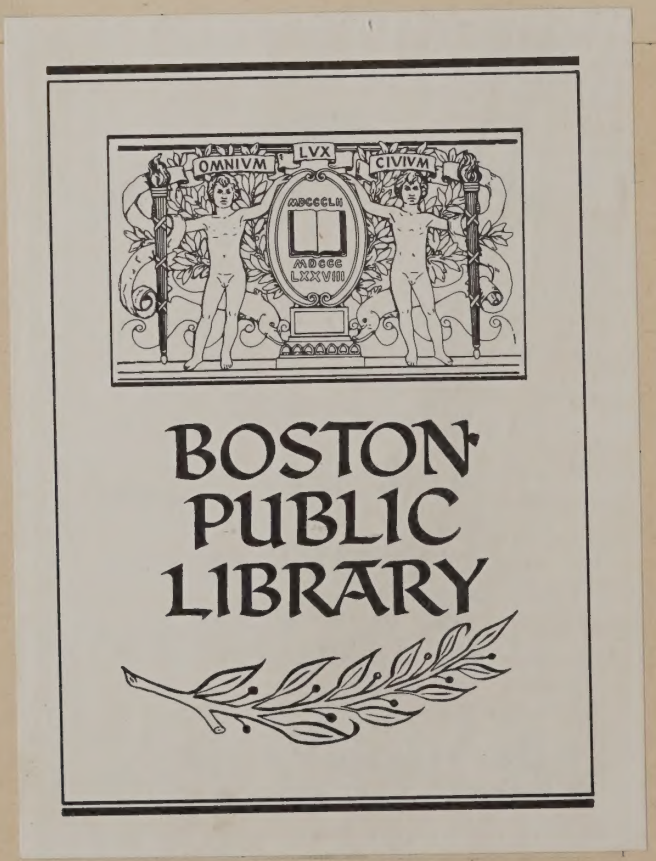
Boston Public Library
3 9999 10588 641 8

PRESENTED TO

# THE MALDEN PUBLIC LIBRARY,

**BY E. F. BICKFORD.**

*Malden, Oct. 1st, 1885.*



# The Nation:

A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

VOLUME XX.

FROM JANUARY 1 TO JUNE 30, 1875.

NEW YORK:
E. L. GODKIN & CO., PUBLISHERS.

1875.

Periodical
AP2
.N2

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE events of the week in New Orleans have been chiefly military. On the appearance of the report of the Returning Board, it was telegraphed from Washington that the Attorney-General (who, according to one account, is the most partisan member of the Cabinet, and, according to another, has acted throughout at the dictation of the President) had determined upon "heroic treatment"; that General Emory was to be superseded, and General Sheridan put in command of the troops. This announcement was received with great dissatisfaction in New Orleans, General Sheridan having there the reputation of a good fighter and cavalry raider, but also of being essentially military, and not ranking high as a pacificator in his temper. On the 29th of last month, a Cabinet meeting was held, which is understood to have developed a decided feeling in favor of strong measures, and on the same day, R. H. Marr, Chairman of the Committee of Seventy, received at the Fifth Avenue Hotel a telegram from McEnery stating that all was quiet in New Orleans, and would continue so; and that he hoped to "control the organization of the House, unless prevented by United States troops." On the 3d of this month, it was discovered in New Orleans by the public that the arrest of one member of the House, and the non-appearance of three others (two of them sending word that, "not having been elected, they would decline to appear"), had upset the Republican majority in the House, and the day ended with wild and startling reports.

---

On Monday, the 4th, matters came to a crisis. Early in the morning, some eighteen hundred troops were placed in position near the State House, and the approaches guarded. At noon the legislature came in, over one hundred members being present, and began its work by making L. A. Wiltz, the Conservative candidate for Speaker, temporary chairman. Some parliamentary skirmishing then began, amid a good deal of disorder, and it was made plain that the Conservatives had a majority, one of the motions carried being to admit some contesting Conservatives to seats, when the Radicals began to withdraw from the House, and Wiltz and Ex-Governor Hahn were put in nomination for Speaker, the result being that Wiltz received 55 votes and Hahn 2. Wiltz was declared elected. The organization then went on, and a clerk was elected, the Radicals continuing to leave the House, and the sergeant-at-arms, under orders of the Speaker, preventing them as well as he could, or not at all, when General de Trobriand appeared suddenly on the scene with his staff and some documents from Kellogg, one of which, on being read by his adjutant, informed the House that it was an illegal body (this fact having been ascertained by him from a "petition" drawn up by the seceding Radicals), while another requested the General to turn out all those members who had not been returned by the Returning Board. This he accordingly proceeded to do, turning out eight or ten members at the point of the bayonet, the members selected being pointed out by General Campbell of the State Militia. General de Trobriand then proceeded to organize the House himself by having the roll called by the old clerk, bringing up a file of soldiers to help him, when the Conservatives, protesting, withdrew in a body from the House. On the same day General Sheridan issued an order announcing that he had taken command of the Department of the Gulf, and also telegraphed to the Secretary of War the existence in Louisiana of a "spirit of defiance," a great "insecurity of life," and "a standpoint which gives impunity to all who choose to indulge" in either defiance of law or murder, and a "general impotence on the part of the civil government"; this being followed on the next day by a second despatch announcing that the only way of restoring "confidence and fair dealing" is the passage of an act of Congress, or a Presidential proclamation, declaring the White League leaders "banditti," and their immediate trial by military commission.

---

Such are the actual facts of the most outrageous subversion of parliamentary government by military force yet attempted in this country. In a statement made by Wiltz, he says that in the organization of the House he carefully followed legislative precedents. But the precedents are a mere trifle. The gist of the outrage is that the legislature of an American State, the absolute, final judge—like every other legislature—of the qualifications of its members, having a legal quorum, in the very act of proceeding to the discharge of its duties, is turned neck and heels into the street by an armed body sent on from Washington for that express purpose, without a shadow of excuse, or even reason. We say without reason, for the pretence of Kellogg that the legislature was not organizing itself in a correct way, is a mere sham. The constitution of Louisiana does not make Kellogg judge of the organization of the legislature of that State any more than it does of the legislature of Massachusetts. We do not get, however, the full flavor of the outrage without recalling the fact that as, on the present occasion, the troops are called in to turn an adverse majority out, two years ago they were brought up for the opposite purpose of seating a favorable majority; and this time the members were turned out on the strength of returns on their face ridiculous, unfair, and fraudulent, while two years ago they were seated on the strength of a midnight order, illegal *on its face*, issued by a drunken United States judge; while Congress is still considering the question, What is the legal government of Louisiana?

---

The Louisiana and Mississippi investigations have been carried on during the week, and led to nothing. In Mississippi on the negro side nothing has been brought out, except what was very clear before, that the poor creatures were deluded into marching in an irregular, half-armed, moblike way on to Vicksburg at the orders of Crosby, under a vague impression that it was "Republican" to do so (according to one witness, who had been in command of the negroes, there was a story that General Grant and Governor Ames were both in Vicksburg in person), and were fired into and dispersed as any mob might have been, they having meanwhile been entirely deserted by Crosby. The New Orleans Committee have made no discoveries of importance, with the exception of the fact that the arrest of one of the Radical members of the legislature, whose absence is one of the facts which gives the Conservatives their present legal majority, was perfectly lawful, he having been arrested for embezzlement and not protected by his privilege.

---

The Pacific-Mail Sub-Committee, holding its meetings in this city, has examined a good many witnesses, and traced $115,000 into the hands of William S. King, formerly Postmaster of the House of Representatives, and member-elect of the next House; has discovered that R. C. Parsons (who admitted some time ago having received some of the money) had an account in Pacific-Mail stock in 1872 with Stockwell's brokers, and made thereby $1,185. In the investigation of last year, King swore positively that he had never received any of the Pacific Mail money; so that he seems to have committed at least perjury. John G. Schumaker, of Brooklyn, a member of the House, is proved to have received $275,000, and it seems likely that the committee have a good deal of very interesting testimony before them, as the accounts of the Company have been kept in such a way as to be much more convenient for purposes of covering fraudulent or improper transactions than for making its past history intelligible. In fact, entries to the amount of hundreds of thousands of dollars are a mere mass of falsehoods, which the witnesses frequently do not attempt to explain, except that they were made for "convenience" or "at Mr. Stockwell's request."

One of the most curious and illustrative incidents in the history of the Pacific Mail Company was the rise and fall of Mr. Stockwell, sometime President and factotum of the concern. He is the son-in-law of Howe, the sewing-machine inventor, and "being possessed of large means," as they say, determined, though without either education or acuteness, to distinguish himself as an operator in the stock market, and for this purpose, strange as it may seem, got himself made president of a steamboat company. While in this position, however, he paid no attention to the boats whatever, and gave his whole mind to the stock, and with such vigor that he impressed what is called "society" with the notion that he was the coming rich man. He accordingly was invited to all the balls, became a sort of leader of fashion, furnished the ladies and dancing-men with "points," and gradually rose to a very high eminence as a giver and receiver of "hospitalities," the ships of the company all the while going to the bottom at intervals. His operations, however, having all gone wrong, and having been more than once caught in his own "corners," society began to let him down with amusing facility. From "Commodore Stockwell," in which capacity he at one time attended "banquets," he became "Captain Stockwell," then plain "Stockwell," and finally Stockwell with an opprobrious epithet, and then disappeared altogether, to give place to other operators and "leaders of fashion." His career, in short, furnishes a remarkable exemplification both of the way the gambling spirit has destroyed legitimate commercial pride among a large body of our moneyed men, and of the way in which paltry adventurers can, with the assistance of the Stock Exchange, suddenly shoot up into positions which formerly were only won by long years of sagacious labor and self-denial.

---

The *Evening Post* is dissatisfied with our position touching the financial bill now pending, on the ground, as well as we can make out, that the practical thing to do in politics is, when you cannot get what you want, to make the best of what you *can* get; and that therefore the bill, though not what we want, is to be accepted, in spite of its imperfections, because it is all that we need look for either from the Republican or Democratic party. On the strength of this account of the situation, the *Post* considers itself entitled to accuse us of a want of practical common-sense, while "saying nothing of the *Nation's* particular criticisms of the bill." We do not well see what kind of politics this is. Our objections to the bill we consider fatal, and, this being the case, we do not know why we should accept it or tell people that it is acceptable. If there were a project on foot for building a bridge across a wide and rapid river, and commerce was in crying need of it, and the party in possession of the Government and the party in opposition were both hostile or indifferent to the scheme and reluctant to deal with it, and had no policy about it, and were trying all manner of tricks to avoid taking it up, and the Government party were some fine day suddenly to produce, for the satisfaction of the popular demand, a plan for crossing the stream on rafts drawn by kites, and were to declare that a raft was for practical purposes the same thing as a bridge, and would eventually by a process of evolution grow into a bridge, and that kites were a magnificent instrument of traction, and that, anyhow, a raft was the only thing they could get through Congress, and that all the opposition would propose was a raft drawn by spaniels—and the *Nation* were to maintain that this was a wretched attempt at imposition, and that no such plan ought to be accepted, and that public opinion ought to be worked on until either one party or the other were forced into a rational policy, we suppose the *Evening Post* would come down and say: "Politics is an art in which compromise is often of the highest value, and in which it is a good rule, when you cannot have all you seek, to accept what you can have. But here is the *Nation*, while acknowledging that neither the party in power nor the party in opposition desires to build a bridge, and that all that either will supply is a raft, growling and complaining, and denouncing rafts as humbugs, and saying that they will not carry goods or passengers safely, and that kites and spaniels cannot draw them, and that no raft was ever known to grow into a bridge. We shall not notice these objections to rafts in detail; we shall simply say that this querulous spirit is very foolish, and that rafts drawn by kites are, at all events, a compromise between crossing on a good stone or iron bridge and not crossing at all."

---

The ground on which the *Post* supports the bill, and Mr. Schurz we believe, voted for it, is that it contains a promise of resumption on a day certain. At first, we were inclined to support it on this ground ourselves, but further consideration satisfied us that this promise was farcical and was not meant to be kept. The greenback currency cannot be contracted under the bill without increasing the national-bank currrency, which is sure to cheapen all paper-money, or, in other words, raise the premium on gold, and increase the popular dread of resumption; and the probability is strong that there will be no additions made to the national-bank notes sufficient to produce a sensible contraction of the greenbacks. It seems also to be now all but certain, and Senator Sherman's evasion lends support to the supposition, that it was the secret design of the caucus that even the greenbacks withdrawn on the issue of the national-bank notes might be reissued at the pleasure of the Government, or, in other words, that this part of the bill is a deliberate attempt to commit a paltry fraud, in order to secure the acquiescence of ignorant barbarians like Logan. So that to treat the measure as a promise to resume requires an amount of hopefulness that may be fairly called childish. It may be likened to the promise of a debtor, who had twenty thousand dollars a year and no more, and lives at that rate, to take up his outstanding notes in four years, while expressly refusing either to cut down his expenses, to increase his income, or to bind himself not to issue more paper. His promise, made under these conditions, might possibly seem to some people better than nothing, but no prudent creditor would base any business transaction on it.

---

At a dinner given to Carl Schurz by the "Bird Club" of Boston, last Saturday, Mr. Schurz stated his belief that no political party has now a well-defined policy that unites its members; that both Republicans and Democrats are casting about in the dark to see what they can agree upon on the most important subject of all—the financial policy of the nation; that unequal as the recent finance bill is to the wants of the country, he feared that the Democrats could not be relied upon to furnish a better one; and that he had striven to form a new party, because of his conviction that no party in existence would treat the really great questions before the country upon their merits. Immediately after these plain statements, Mr. Tarbox, one of the new Democratic Congressmen-elect from Massachusetts, thought it would be the wisest policy for the Democrats of the West "to join in the return of Mr. Schurz to the Senate," and said he should mourn "when political partisanship shall put out the light which shines so brilliantly in the United States Senate in the person of the distinguished guest of this occasion." Other Democrats as well as Republicans made equally complimentary references to Mr. Schurz, and when Mr. E. L. Pierce closed his speech by saying that if Mr. Schurz was a resident of Massachusetts he would receive at least one vote as Charles Sumner's successor in the Senate, the remark, in the language of one of the Boston papers, "was immensely applauded." How far these expressions were the results of a good dinner, and how far they came from a real perception of the condition of parties by prominent Massachusetts politicians, it may not be easy to decide. It is worthy of mention, however, that when Mr. Tarbox expressed his hope that the Missouri Democrats would return Mr. Schurz to the Senate, he felt obliged to add that he did not suppose they would do it.

---

Through the whole of November, the probability of a restoration of the Spanish monarchy in the person of Prince Alfonso, the late Queen's son, in whose favor she abdicated, was a common

topic of conversation in Madrid, and his adherents were very confident that it was coming. Some of the military performances of the Government were so mysterious as to lend color to it. Towards the middle of November, General Laserna landed at San Sebastian with about 5,000 men, who marched under General Loma to the relief of Irun, a little town on the French frontier then closely pressed, and attacked and completely defeated the Carlists. It was expected that this success would have been vigorously followed up; but, far from this, Laserna suddenly received orders from Madrid to re-embark and get down on the Ebro, which he did, leaving Irun once more exposed to the enemy. What this meant nobody could tell. On the one hand, a decisive success seemed necessary to the support of Serrano's position; on the other hand, it might be that Serrano did not want anybody but himself to achieve it, and this even was strengthened by the rumor that Serrano was going to leave Madrid with a powerful force, which he was to command against the Carlists in person, and with a considerable sum of money, with which it was said he was going to buy up the principal Carlist officers, and so in one way and another end the war. About the middle of December he did start for the north with a small reinforcement and over $2,000,000, which he had borrowed through the Rothschilds, who probably knew when they advanced it that the Marshal was not merely going to try his luck in the field, and the Alfonsists stoutly maintained both in Paris and Madrid that the thing was all arranged, and that as soon as he reached the army he would "pronounce" for Alfonso.

---

The movement was begun by General Martinez Campos, Spanish fashion, with *two* battalions of soldiers. The "Army of the Centre" was drawn off from the pursuit of the Carlists to march against him, and when it got near him, Spanish fashion, joined him. The other armies and the navy followed, and the now celebrated iron-clad, *Numancia*, went to Marseilles to bring Alfonso home. He, on his part, makes the usual declarations—that he is liberal and constitutional, and will be the king of the nation and not of a party, and so on. His accession leaves the political situation practically unchanged. He is too young and inexperienced, and possesses too little character, to take the government out of the hands of the military chiefs, who will carry it on, as they have long done, by a system of intrigues and counter-intrigues, varied by abortive attempts at revolution. This termination of the revolution of 1868 was tolerably apparent from the refusal of Serrano to convene the Cortes, or to give in his adhesion to any form of government in particular, and his failure to put down the Carlists. In Spain, delay always works in favor of some monarchical pretender. The general result probably has surprised few intelligent observers. Readers of this journal will remember that we have prepared them for it from the very first day, and warned them assiduously against the notion, which some of our contemporaries preached, that the dethronement of Isabella meant the commencement of a new era in Spain. There was not the shadow of reason for holding any such view. A radical change for the better in Spanish politics will be the result of a protracted educational process of some kind; no such process had taken place under Isabella. There was, therefore, no ground for believing that something better would succeed her. Catholic Spain was the product of many centuries of Moorish Spain; anarchical Spain is the product of three centuries of priest-ridden, absolutist Spain. Supposing that such a country can be suddenly converted into an orderly republic by changing the name of the government, is one of those things which will before many years amuse people as much as attempts to foretell future events by examining the entrails of a hen.

---

The two Centres of the French Assembly from whose agreement in policy much was expected have not agreed, but differed about the Constitutional questions—the Left desiring to have them all taken up together, and the Right being desirous of having the question of a Second Chamber dealt with separately. The Extreme Left, on the other hand, goes in for a dissolution pure and simple, and an appeal to the country. Marshal MacMahon, who, since his tour in the provinces, has shown a desire to rely on "moderate men of all parties," has had a conference with representatives from each in the hope of reaching some position on which all could stand, but without success. A semi-official account of it acknowledges that nothing definite was accomplished by it, though it may, it is to be hoped, remove some misunderstandings. The probabilities are that the Government will press the whole of the Constitutional bills, under threat of a dissolution in case they are not put through, though whether it could command a dissolution even with the assistance of the Left is more than doubtful.

---

Apart from this organic legislation, the Assembly has been occupied for some weeks with a measure proposing to establish "liberty of instruction," or, in other words, to permit the establishment of other universities besides the state one—which, strange as it may appear, is supported by the church through Bishop Dupanloup, and opposed by the extreme Radicals through M. Challemel-Lacour, the Radicals believing, and rightly, that in the matter of setting up independent colleges the church would beat them out-and-out; a measure to establish liberty of public worship, or, in other words, liberty of holding religious meetings without belonging to one of the denominations recognized by the state, and without being licensed by the police, which was introduced by M. Pressensé, the minister of the Reformed Church, in the interest of the rationalistic schismatics in that body; and a measure putting the press on a better and more liberal footing. The Government offers no opposition to the two former bills, and has introduced the last; but it is difficult to see how any radical change in the legal condition of the French press can take place as long as the French public is so inflammable. What renders liberty of the press, as we understand it, possible in the United States and in England is the phlegm which leads the public "not to mind what the papers say"—or rather, to mind it only very slowly, and after much deliberation. If, for instance, it was possible for the "intellectual department" of the *Herald* to endanger the existence of the Government, or even the public peace, by one or more "sensational articles," liberty of the press would rapidly disappear in the United States. The press is enslaved in France largely because Frenchmen are so constituted that any lively young Bohemian or lampooner has it in his power, by a few days of "ink-slinging," to get the garrison of Paris kept under arms and to send the rentes down, and cause a flight of strangers from the capital.

---

In England, the main subject of discussion is the one taken up by our correspondent in another column—the probability that Mr. Disraeli may have to retire from public life. There has been some more skirmishing over Bishop Colenso, who has been again inhibited from preaching, this time by the Bishop of London, and there are all sorts of rumors of further trouble on the Papal question, Archbishop Manning threatening vengeance on the insubordinate Catholics, and they in their turn announcing that they are ready for him. But the Old-Catholic movement, which, if strong, would be the best support of the latter, does not prosper anywhere, and the reason is obvious enough, and has often been pointed out in these columns, and that is, that dissidents and schismatics in our day do not care enough about the matter to proclaim their dissent publicly and set up a new church. When they are dissatisfied with the Pope or the bishops, far from nailing theses about them on the church-door, or offering to go to the stake for their opinions, they simply stay at home on Sundays, or take a walk in the country, and smile when infallibility is mentioned. There is, therefore, not much likelihood that Döllinger and Hyacinthe will ever have a powerful following in public.

## SUBSIDIES.

THE vote recently taken in the House of Representatives on the lending of Government credit in aid of private enterprises probably indicates pretty decisively the fate of the Pacific Mail and other subsidy schemes for the winter. There are only two short months left Congress, now that the holidays are over, in which to legislate; and even in the recklessness and haste of the last days of the session, it will be hardly possible for the most irresponsible member of the enormous majority which voted in favor of the resolution to forget his pledge. The President, it is true, has in his message recommended subsidies to American vessels carrying mails; but it is not necessary to suppose that he is bent on securing this. The lesson of Johnson's failure in administration has not been without its effect on General Grant's mind, and ever since he came into power he has acted on the "no policy opposed to that of Congress" theory with a good deal of consistency—always excepting cases in which he took some lively personal interest, as in that of San Domingo. He has been in favor of civil-service reform, but, apparently becoming convinced that Congress has not set its heart on this measure of purification, he now declares that he has no desire to insist on it, and that if Congress gives it up he will give it up too. Last year, or the year before, he investigated the Western Transportation question, and came to the conclusion that it was of such great importance that it ought to be investigated by the Senate; this year, although it is certainly of just as much importance as before, he seems to have very nearly forgotten its existence, and directs the attention of Congress to the development of American shipbuilding by means of subsidies. Judging of the future by the past, it seems very doubtful whether he will exhibit any deep degree of interest in this recommendation. Besides this, the Administration, like every other branch of the existing Government, is on its good behavior; and, in the present condition of the finances and business, economy, or the appearance of it, is a necessary part of good behavior. The desire of a reputation for economy both on the part of the Administration and the Republican majority of Congress, together with the hostile attitude of the press and public opinion, will make the passage of subsidies, at the present session, a difficult matter; and what these causes will not effect will very likely be accomplished by the very remarkable history of the Pacific Mail Company, in connection with its present application.

Indeed, those who are accustomed to look for and recognize in the tangled maze of human affairs the hand of a superior Power, might fairly find in the present condition of Pacific Mail a heaven-sent warning against the intermeddling of Government with private schemes of any kind. Not many years ago, this company was in an extremely flourishing condition; its stock was among the highest quoted in the market; its management was conservative and successful; its future was promising. In an evil hour, it determined to go to Washington and secure from the Government a subsidy. It went and succeeded. From that time to this it has been a subsidized line; and what are the results? Nine of its ships are lost; its stock is quoted at 34; its management changes from year to year and almost from month to month; it has sent to the bottom as many American-built reputations as it has vessels; and, having totally failed to comply with the engagements entered into in consideration of its last subsidy, it now comes, bankrupt, crawling into Congress, begging that money may be given it on the ground of the good faith with which it has endeavored to carry out its promises, while Congress is at the very moment instituting an enquiry to discover whether this same subsidy was not obtained by fraud and corruption. The evidence of Irwin, taken by the Committee of Ways and Means, though it should not disclose what became of the $750,000 paid by the Company to procure the subsidy, throws a very strong light on the effect of subsidizing on the management of the line. There is a general impression in people's minds that infamous contracts are usually entered into with some circumspection, and seldom committed to writing. We do not remember that in the history of the Erie Railroad, even, it was a common thing for Fisk to sign his name to paper promising to pay a round sum on the signature of bills or the service of injunctions. In the Crédit-Mobilier investigation it proved difficult to get to a higher level in the evidence than that of private memoranda; and it is in the Pacific-Mail case that we have for the first time the production by a witness of a written promise to pay a sum of money to himself as an agent sent to Washington for the purpose, not for "services," or for "legal expenses," but for the *passage of a bill by Congress.*

These facts, which have now become public property, are likely to prove a serious obstacle in the way of subsidies at the present session of Congress. But the history of Pacific Mail is very like the history of a good many other attempts, both at Washington and in the various States, to foster private enterprise for public ends. In almost every State there is some well-known railroad, steamboat, canal, or bank which has been tenderly nursed by the public at the public's expense into a forced, unhealthy activity, and which has ended in ruined credit, lost reputations, and more brazen appeals for assistance from the bankrupt outcast. So common has this been that the greater number of the State governments have put an end to the possibility of such appeals by changes in their fundamental law. There are, however, a number of people who are persuaded that the disasters which have always attended subsidies and other forms of Governmental aid in the United States have come from accidental causes, and might with care be prevented; and every winter they return to the task of demonstrating to Congress that the particular disasters and frauds of one scheme were due to accidental defects in the law, or in the character of the men, or in the nature of the enterprise, and therefore need not be expected to occur again. People who maintain this line of argument usually point to the example of the encouragement of private enterprise by European governments, and ask why, if, under proper safeguards, it works on one side of the Atlantic, it may not work on the other?

The answer to this question goes to the root of the matter, and really constitutes a fundamental reason why subsidies are not likely to succeed in the United States under existing conditions. The reason may be stated very simply. The one thing necessary to a successful expenditure of public money by way of subsidy is continuity and fixity of administration. This European governments have; this, at present, we have not. In most European governments the officials who have charge of the expenditure of public money remain in office for a sufficiently long time to supervise and control, from the beginning to the end, the expenditures. They have been familiar for years with matters of the kind, and have only one object—to see that the government aid is properly administered; while the company or individual subsidized knows very well that it is dealing with a hard and watchful employer, who will cut it adrift unless it performs the contract to the letter. In this country, on the other hand, there is nothing of the sort. Instead of there being any fixity of administration, the administration is perpetually changing from top to bottom. Since the Pacific Mail went to Washington there have been in the two places requiring the most permanence—if subsidies are to be tried at all—not less than four heads of departments: in the Treasury, Mr. McCulloch, Mr. Boutwell, Mr. Richardson, and Mr. Bristow; in the Attorney-General's office, Mr. Evarts, Mr. Hoar, Mr. Ackerman, and Mr. Williams. We might say the same thing of the Pacific Railroad, from which the Government is now engaged in an attempt to recover the subsidy given, on the ground of fraud.

Nobody can doubt that, if the expenditure of the money in both these cases had been watched as it ought to have been, the scandals which have ensued would have been avoided. But this is impossible when the persons who protect the legal and fiscal interests of the Government and their host of subordinates hold their offices with little more fixity of tenure than the members of a State legislature. The consequence is that all supervision becomes a sham. In the Crédit-Mobilier case the Government directors were of no use; in the Pacific-Mail case the inspection provided by law has apparently never been of any avail; in the Hartford-and-Erie case, in

Massachusetts, the representatives of the State were legislated out of office, for the very reason that they were protecting the interests of the State.

The usual process is this: The Government promises, in consideration of certain services to be performed, to undertake certain expenditures, and at the same time makes careful provision for the appointment of a number of discreet persons to see that the money is not paid except for services rendered. Then the game begins. Very soon the company discovers that these checks are in the way; that it needs money faster, or that it is inconvenient to perform the services. They then remember that, fortunately for them, fixed tenure of office is unknown in the United States; that a little of the same influence which got them a place at the public crib in the first instance will keep them there, and they make use of it. A new man is appointed here, and an old one threatened with removal there, and the money soon comes pouring out. And so it will be to the end of time. An official who, like all our officials, may be turned out of office at any moment, and whose retention in office depends on his pleasing, not his superior, but a number of outside interests which can get him out of office, will never be an efficient guardian of Government bonuses to private enterprises. What is the alternative? Nothing but this—to give up subsidies.

## THE CONDITION OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

IT is just two years since Mr. Dawes, on the floor of the House of Representatives, opposed enquiry into the affairs of the District of Columbia because it would cost too much. Since then there has been an investigation, which has cost a great deal more than even the political and economic fears of Mr. Dawes could have anticipated. What the real cost of the investigation has been in national reputation, in the exposure of personal malfeasance, in diminished confidence in public men, and in changes of political power, it is not worth while now to sum up; it is enough to say that the dollars and cents which the work of investigating may have drawn from the Treasury seem in comparison so inconsiderable that no one ever gives them a thought. Certainly, at this time objecting to such an investigation because of its cost seems about as sagacious as to object to the punishment of criminals because jails are not profitable. Certainly, at that time no community ever had a juster right to demand an investigation. Public improvements had been projected in a month or two and pushed forward with a haste and audacity and reckless disregard of cost that savored more of ancient despotism than of modern civilization. A community of only one hundred and thirty thousand persons found themselves in a single year involved in improvements which were to cost twenty millions of dollars. The board that was hurrying along this work the community did not create, its members they did not select, and over its plans and projects they could exercise no supervision. Conceding that the work was justifiable and judicious and wise, still the very magnitude of the undertaking made it always a proper subject for investigation; and the community liable to pay for it, being without power to revise or investigate, had a moral right at any time to invoke the scrutiny of Congress.

During the past year the District of Columbia has played a more important part in national affairs than it has done in all the preceding years since its establishment. Heretofore the people of the United States have strangely looked upon the improvement and welfare of their seat of government as the local affair of an ordinary town. But during the year 1874 the local wrongs of the people of the District have become national, and the inhabitants of Western towns or New England villages have resented these wrongs almost as vigorously as though they were directly their own. A sense of responsibility has taken the place of the old indifference. And this change is not popular caprice, but on the contrary a sound deduction from the facts which Congress and Governor Shepherd have succeeded in laying before the eyes of the American people. What are these facts? (1) A board created by Congress and appointed by the President, which in a year or two places an average debt of nearly eight hundred dollars on the shoulders of every family, and in effect mortgages every man's house often to an amount exceeding its value. (2) The arbitrary funding of this debt, largely illegal, by Congress, turning it into the bonds of the District. (3) The establishment of a temporary municipal government, in which three commissioners are vested with all the powers that lie in the mayor and common council of ordinary cities. Conceive of Congress suddenly abolishing the city government of St. Louis and putting all of the corporate interests of that town into the hands of three commissioners, actual residents of Maine, Massachusetts, and Arkansas. The direct exercise of power is the express acknowledgment of responsibility. The fact that such an interference by Congress is an absolute impossibility for St. Louis while it is the actual condition of Washington, illustrates clearly enough the legal difference between an ordinary town and the national capital.

If New York had been retained as the capital, the presence of the Government might have hindered, but could not have helped, her extraordinary growth. At most, we should now be having a few additional hotels, a few additional acres in parks and squares, not more than half-a-dozen showy public buildings, and not more than five per cent. increase of population. The Government would be a mere boarder and lodger, having little more to do with the management of the town than the philanthropic conventions which are accustomed to assemble here in the month of May. On the other hand, the city would be exercising a powerful influence upon the Government, and especially upon Congress. Members living here for months and years would be drawn insensibly into the rapid currents of commercial thought, and gradually reach the conclusion that what affects the commerce of the metropolis, favorably or unfavorably, affects in like manner every portion of the country. It is not probable that any one would now be saying "New York is America," yet it is more than probable that the United States would now be a "free-trade country," commercial in its policy, and possessing the largest merchant marine in the world. The old slaveholders' violence, which so long disgraced because it intimidated Congress, would never have ventured into expression; and the slave problem might long ago have found a peaceful and therefore better solution. That there might have been deleterious influences overbalancing these advantages no one will deny, but few will now affirm that any great danger could be threatening the Republic because its capital was placed, like the capitals of all European countries, in its chief city. Be the wisdom of the theory that planned our seat of government as it may, two things are today tolerably certain: first, that no great American city will surrender itself to the absolute control of Congress for the sake of being the national capital; second, that the conflicting authority of our State and Federal system requires, in public estimation, that the capital be under the exclusive jurisdiction of the Federal power.

It follows almost inevitably that the seat of the national Government must be not only the creation of the Government, but also under its abiding guardianship. A control which is able to destroy corporate and private rights is morally chargeable with the growth, improvement, and security of the capital. It does not do to say one day that the Government may bind all private and public property in the city as it pleases, and the next that it may surrender a matter of national concern to the exclusive management of a small, local body-politic. An ordinary self-controlled city is subject to the ordinary laws of growth and progress, and its exclusive end is the welfare and convenience of its permanent inhabitants. Washington was never designed to serve any such humble purpose. On the contrary, all of the purposes which called it into existence and dictated its plan and dimensions were national. Its streets, by way of illustration, were not laid out according to the necessities of traffic, nor limited by the economic views of its inhabitants. Instead of such business ways, its founders provided avenues of magnificent proportions, intended from the outset to please not the local taxpayer, but the American citizen, and to be commensurate not with the local wants of a small town, but with its national purposes. Thus

fifty-four per cent. of its area was given up to streets and squares, against twenty-five per cent. in Paris, and twenty-six per cent. in Boston, and thirty-five per cent. in Vienna, the latter being, in this regard, the most extravagant of European cities.

The result of the "District investigation" is a bill before Congress. Under the old city system, the inhabitants appointed their own municipal agents, and were free to devote as little or as much to city purposes as they pleased. As a whole, they had a smaller interest in the improvement of the place than the community of any other town in the world, and, as a consequence, they left Washington so unkept and uncared for that most people who saw it spoke of the national capital as a shame and a disgrace. Under the late Territorial system, the people of the District continued to have a nominal control over taxation; but, inasmuch as a certain well-known Board of Public Works appointed by the President had power to control the voting element and run the District in debt, the reserved right of the people to tax themselves through their Territorial representatives was not a privilege worth shedding one's blood for. Under the system proposed now, all semblance of local government will be swept away, and the national capital will be managed directly by the agents of the Federal Government. Taxation will remain, but it will be within the discretion of Congress and not of the taxpayers; while the amount levied will go directly into the United States Treasury, in the nature of a contribution, and without regard to the amount expended. The Government will manage the city and pay for it, and Congress will levy from the inhabitants such contribution as in its discretion shall seem just; but the contribution will not control the expenditure, nor must the expenditure equal the contribution. The sovereign discretion of Congress, therefore, takes the place of self-government, and the city passes out of the list of free communities, and must be ranked among those which are governed by a power beyond their own control. It passes with the approval of the taxpaying part of the people, and, indeed, the only protest is that raised by Mr. Morton, ostensibly on behalf of the colored voters, but really in the interest of the irresponsible laborers who have been the effective weapon of the Board of Public Works. That the "free-city system" thus falls with the assent of those most concerned to retain it, confesses the failure of corporate governments based on the suffrages of those who are not the true incorporators. An experiment of city management resting on the suffrages of those who own it might have been tried in Washington which would have been of incalculable benefit to the country.

## ENGLAND.—THE NEXT CONSERVATIVE LEADER.

London, Dec., 1874.

THE chief political interest at the present moment is concentrated on the questions whether Mr. Disraeli will meet Parliament as Prime Minister, and what will happen if he does not. The former is not perhaps a political question, but a medical one. No one doubts that Mr. Disraeli will not resign unless his health compels him. But the story goes that his health will compel him. He has, no doubt, been seriously ill for some months. It is true that he is only sixty-nine, and sixty-nine is no age for an English public man. After our experience of Lord Palmerston and Lord Russell, we have got to think from seventy to seventy-five the prime of life for a statesman, and Mr. Disraeli has always been a young man of his age. He is one of those who take the labors and worries of life easily, and from being so much in opposition he has not had much really laborious work to do, and of what he has had to do, it is commonly supposed that a good deal has been done for him. It might fairly have been expected, therefore, that his constitution would stand at least as long as his government. However, he has certainly had a severe attack of gout, and sixty-nine, though it may be young for a statesman, is somewhat old for a human being. He is said to have got considerably better lately, and it is quite possible that he will be able to go on for another session at least. On the other hand, it is quite possible that he will resign within the next six weeks—and what then? Of course everybody knows that there are two branches of the Conservative party—the old Tories, who want at least to stand still at all hazards, and would go backwards if they could, and the moderate Conservatives, who, though they do not want to move forward, do not much object to being pushed, and hold that if changes are to be made it is better, in the interests of conservatism, that Conservatives should have the making of them. An English newspaper compares these two parties to the Legitimists and Orleanists in France, and there is a certain amount of similarity in their respective positions; but, from the difference in the character and habits of Frenchmen and Englishmen, there is little real analogy between the two—indeed, like most comparisons between English and French politics, its apparent plausibility only makes it the more misleading. The Legitimists distinctly prefer no bread to half a loaf; they are continually having "rapprochements" with the Orleanists, but never reach any real union or compromise; while the Tories, with occasional individual exceptions, always act in harmony with the modern Conservatives when it comes to the point, though they often grumble a good deal at having to do it.

Mr. Disraeli, who has as little of the genuine Tory about him as any man in England, has of late got complete command of the party, and has led them—somewhat too fast, as many people think—in the ways of Liberal-Conservatism. They did not like him, and members of the country-gentleman stamp do not even now quite understand how it was that, being Conservatives, they yet, in 1867, enacted an extension of the suffrage wider than had ever before been thought practicable, even by Liberals. But his skill as a leader made him indispensable to them, and so, as they were Englishmen and not Frenchmen, they accepted the indispensable. After the brilliant results of the last elections, there can be no doubt that he will continue, as long as his party remains in office, to be Prime Minister and leader of the House of Commons, if his health remains sufficiently good; but if his health compels him to resign, who is to succeed him in these functions? As to the House of Commons, there is no difficulty. The Tories there, though numerically strong, have no very prominent representative. Mr. Hardy, though perhaps he should be classed as a Liberal-Conservative, yet agrees with the Tories on many points, and is quite trusted by them. He is an able though not a very brilliant man, and the Tories like him the better for his want of brilliancy. He is popular, too, with both sides of the House, and could manage matters with tact and dignity. He unquestionably would lead the House of Commons.

He would, however, not be likely to be Prime Minister yet awhile, at all events. For that office there are three possible candidates, all peers—Lord Salisbury, Lord Derby, and the Duke of Richmond. Lord Salisbury is generally thought to be one of the ablest of all our public men. He is a brilliant debater and excellent administrator. He is, however, impetuous, proud, and difficult to get on with. Above all, he is one of the most bigoted of Tories. In 1867, he resigned office because he would have nothing to do with passing a Reform Bill—a step which gave him great prestige with all the Tory section; and his personal dislike to Mr. Disraeli was so great that it was with difficulty he was persuaded to join his Government last spring. He yielded at last to pressure, public and private; but there have been serious disagreements in the Cabinet, at least so it is said, between his party and the more liberal members of the Government, and though matters are supposed to be patched up for the present, and he continues to serve under Mr. Disraeli's leadership, yet, if there were to be a reconstruction of the Cabinet, it is by no means certain that he would consent to act under any of Mr. Disraeli's followers.

Lord Derby is the Liberal-Conservative candidate. He is by birth and position a Conservative, but by temperament a Liberal. As Mr. Disraeli is by nature a Radical who by accident is Conservative leader, so Lord Derby, though ostensibly a Conservative, is by nature a cold, sensible, cautious Whig. He is not an orator, yet no man is more listened to. He has little enthusiasm, but is the incarnation of sense. He has few intimate friends, but as a public man no one is more trusted. He is the natural successor to Mr. Disraeli, and it is probable that, if the latter resigned, the Queen would in the first instance ask Lord Derby to form a Government. Whether he could do so would, to a great extent, depend on whether Lord Salisbury chose to let him.

The Duke of Richmond is the present leader of the House of Lords. He is a moderate Tory of fair abilities. His position as a statesman is narrow, neither very definite nor very distinguished, and his abilities are of a dullish kind. He is leader of the House of Lords because, between the conflicting claims of Lord Salisbury and Lord Derby, it was thought advisable to get a duke to be the nominal chief over both, and among dukes he was the best. Similar reasons are not unlikely to make him the next Prime Minister.

Such are the candidates. It is to be hoped that there will be no necessity yet awhile to select between them. One point every one, hardly even excepting the members of the late Government, is agreed on, namely, that matters are very well as they are. If, however, a Prime Minister has to be

found, it is to be hoped Lord Derby will be the man. If it were to be the Duke of Richmond or, still worse, Lord Salisbury, we should be in danger of a Tory Government, which only a very small fraction of the nation wish for. The attitude of the country is Liberal-Conservative exactly. Content, on the whole, with what has been done, they want time to look round them and put a few administrative matters straight before entering on more changes. They don't want to be bothered to go on, but still less do they want to go back. Asking them to take a retrograde step, such as a Government under Lord Salisbury's inspiration might wish to take in educational and ecclesiastical matters, would be like asking a man who sat down because he was tired, to walk back half a mile by way of resting himself. He would say, "If I can't sit quiet, I will walk on"; and so should we say—and the result would be a Liberal Government, coming in on the promise of doing something, and, to redeem its promise, setting to work to pull down a lot of things which, for the present at all events, are much better left alone.

If Mr. Disraeli goes on, things at present look like a quiet session. There is, indeed, a theological or rather ecclesiastical rock ahead in the shape of the Bill for Church Government, which was foreshadowed last session. But no one really wants to meddle much with this. It is a thorny subject, on which public opinion is difficult to gauge, and party votes are not to be depended on. The Government has given pledges on the subject, and something must be done to redeem them; but if Mr. Disraeli is Prime Minister that something will not be much. We shall have a legal and sanitary session, which may be useful but will not be amusing.

## THE FRENCH VIEW OF THE ARNIM TRIAL.

PARIS, Dec. 18, 1874.

THE whole interest of the day is in the Arnim trial and the despatches which have been published on occasion of it. It is impossible to speak, impossible to think, of anything else. Arnim's and Bismarck's names are in everybody's mouth. It is not often that a nation acts after the old Greek precept, Know thyself; but France has perhaps less than any other country the faculty of subjective examination; she does not much look at herself, and prefers to be looked at. German diplomats now present to her a mirror in which she can contemplate herself, or rather an image of her which was drawn without her knowledge.

One thing strikes me more than any other in the observations which I have heard on all sides since the beginning of the trial: there is very little anger felt towards either Arnim or Bismarck. These two men wrote to each other, they spoke their own thoughts, and they had no intention of insulting the French people. At the very height of their triumph, they seem chiefly preoccupied with one idea: What can make France more incapable of regaining her past power and prestige, how are we best defended against her? Arnim is the more generous of the two correspondents. In some of his letters he indulged in very sharp criticisms of the French, but on his trial he publicly expressed his regret at having done so. What, however, still better proves his superior generosity, is the fact that he was not quite unwilling that France should have a decent government, well established, and with some guarantees of permanence. The despatches of Arnim are very interesting for a moralist; he has, so to speak, a double soul, a good and an evil genius. When, for instance, speaking of the terms of payment of the ransom, he says, "I have exacted fortnightly payments, because this will give us more opportunities of complaining," the evil genius speaks; the good genius speaks in other places, which have a philosophical and sometimes almost artistic character. There is less subtlety and less art in Bismarck's utterances; he does not try to conceal his hatred of the French nation. Take this phrase, for instance: "If France should represent again before Europe a second act of the interrupted drama of the Commune (a thing which I do not desire for humanity's sake), it would contribute to make the Germans appreciate more fully the benefits of a monarchical constitution." I shuddered when I read the parenthesis—it is only for humanity's sake, not for the sake of France, that Prince Bismarck does not desire the return of the Commune; which implies that he would almost desire it for France. This addition "par humanité" is quite in the spirit of the whole despatch, in which he proves mathematically that Germany must favor the Republican solution in France, because the Republic in France means anarchy, isolation in Europe, and weakness. He scolds Arnim like a schoolmaster; blames him for his generosity, and says to him: "I am sure that no Frenchman would ever think of helping you to reconquer the benefits of a monarchy if God threw upon us the miseries of a republican anarchy. It is an eminently German quality this show of interest in the fate of a neighboring enemy."

Bismarck, as you see, is fortifying his own soul against German weakness and generosity, and he tries also to put the "æs triplex" round Arnim's heart. But Arnim, as is well shown in the despatches, did not believe in Thiers; his portrait of him is a masterpiece, when he paints him getting up seventeen times in a discussion, always "infallible in the things of which he is ignorant." Arnim's previsions proved to be the right ones; Bismarck believed that Thiers would be stronger than the Assembly—the Assembly was stronger than Thiers. When Arnim heard of the vote of the 24th May, he could not conceal his sentiments. "Well," said he, "there is some hope left for France!" He triumphed too much, and Bismarck would not forgive him for it. The restoration of the French monarchy became all the more odious to him since Arnim had prophesied it and desired it. Bismarck knew that it was always in the power of Arnim to make an appeal to the monarchical feelings of the Emperor of Germany; he had enemies on the very steps of the throne. The Emperor of Russia had never affected any love for the French Republicans. It is quite clear that after the 24th of May last a struggle of influence began between the German Chancellor and the German Ambassador in Paris. This struggle was not confined to the French question. Arnim placed himself at the head of the party which did not approve the anti-Catholic policy of Bismarck. He did not believe that dogmas can be attacked simply with laws; his despatches from Rome at the time of the Vatican Council showed him to be an enemy of the Papal infallibility, but at the same time he wished to attack the Papacy with spiritual as well as with temporal arms. He imagined that the Falk laws, which resulted in the imprisonment of Catholic bishops in Germany, the closing of seminaries, and other violent measures, were a real danger to the newly-established unity. Bavaria, Würtemberg, the Rhenish Provinces, Alsace, formed a sort of Catholic league. These views were entertained by some eminent members of the Government, by the wife of the Emperor William, and, to a certain extent, by the heir of the throne. Bismarck felt his danger, but his usual good fortune did not abandon him; two unforeseen events did him an invaluable service. First came the letters of the Comte de Chambord, which destroyed all the chances of a monarchical restoration in France at the very moment when this restoration was imminent. France was forcibly thrown back into a political state which, though it is not a republic, is more republican than monarchical. Thiers was not recalled to power, and the French Conservatives gave President MacMahon a tenure of power of seven years; but this act of despair produced just the effects which Bismarck had always wished to produce—a confusion and a sort of moral anarchy, which hindered France from procuring alliances abroad. The second event was the pistol-shot at Kissingen. Such political crimes are always sure to forward the cause against which they are directed. The violent policy of Bismarck against the Catholics found a kind of excuse; his tottering power was strengthened; the German nation remembered his great services. He did not lose his opportunity; the time had come for him to act like a new Richelieu. Many a time did the Duke of Orleans, then called Monsieur, conspire against the Cardinal-Duke; many a time did Louis XIII. turn a favorable ear to the projects of his enemies. Richelieu always respected the royal faction and the royal family, but he never spared the conspirators. One after the other, whether high or low, they were brought to the scaffold; and, as Victor Hugo said, he covered all this blood with his red gown. Our times are milder; we have no longer any political executions; even Bazaine's life was spared after the war. Bismarck was determined, however, to strike Arnim, and in his person the Court party; he confided in his own popularity, and he accepted the duel with Arnim. He had all the advantages on his side—he chose his time, his position, and, when he was once ready, he began hostilities in his own terrible way.

Everybody is asking how it is that all the despatches, the disappearance of which gave rise to a prosecution, are now published. It was a crime against the state to take them away from the archives of the German Embassy in Paris, and to hide them; and now the whole world is at liberty to read them. Of course Bismarck sees the consequences of this publication, but he is ready to accept them. His victory would not have been complete if the despatches had not been known by everybody; there would have remained round Arnim a mysterious halo, which would have screened him, and afforded a shelter to all the enemies of the Chancellor. Now, all the veils are torn apart. Bismarck probably does not underestimate the force of some of Arnim's despatches; but still, as a German and as a diplomat, he believes that he can face him; and it is not only to the Berlin tribunal that he makes an appeal—it is to the whole German nation. He fights a battle which he cannot lose in any sense; and his victory will give him a strength which nobody will ever dare to resist. Such

is at least my estimation of this great trial, and events will show if I am much mistaken. I do not believe that Bismarck has much personal animosity against Arnim; he has struck his blow less at him than at the Court party which surrounds the Emperor, which he cannot publicly face in the Reichstag, and which is constantly working against him. It matters not to him if in obtaining this result he has erected for himself some minor difficulties. Napoleon used to say that dirty linen ought to be washed at home. Bismarck shows much dirty linen to the world, and is not over-delicate. His old friendship with Prince Orloff, the Russian Ambassador in Paris, is not likely to be improved by the singular despatch which he wrote in reference to him; the relations of the German ministers with the press may become for a time a little difficult; the position of the German secretaries will not be made agreeable everywhere by the revelations concerning the relations of Arnim and Count Holstein. But these minor details will be forgotten, and Prince Bismarck has gained a double advantage: he has shown how far he is ready to go in order to destroy a rival; he has assumed in the eyes of Germany the position of the deadliest enemy of France—one who is willing in order to hurt France to favor revolution, and who will do all in his power to remove from her the blessings of a strong government.

This intensity of hatred, this sincerity which is almost cynical, will of course make him the centre of the French animosity against Germany. The French have no great powers for hating—their anger evaporates very quickly, sometimes too quickly; they are taking lessons from Bismarck. They are looking upon him with a sentiment which can hardly be defined. As for the lessons which they might draw from some of Bismarck's despatches, these will not, I hope, be utterly lost. Of course, every party insists particularly on the passages of the despatches which are detrimental to the other. The collection of Arnim's and Bismarck's letters is like a large heap of stones on the high road, from which everybody can pick his own weapon. But it would be almost impossible if under these party recriminations a deeper feeling were not produced by the exhibition of so much hostility. It will be interesting for us to know with what feelings disinterested countries will read the German despatches. Such countries are the witnesses of a duel, and the guardians of the laws of honor. The Cæsars did not mind the sarcasms of the slaves who followed their triumph in chains. Bismarck, while he speaks of the French, boldly says, "Oderint dum metuant"; but he has always shown too much understanding of the relations of all the countries of the world with each other, too much knowledge of the new forces of the universe, to remain quite indifferent to criticisms which should come from another latitude than Paris. It seems to me impossible that the world at large should view with favor the exhibition of such concentrated and wilful hatred of a conqueror towards the conquered; such a virtual avowal of the rights of force; such a contemptuous disregard of the common notions of humanity. Bad times have begun for Europe. Our youth was spent in the golden age of Louis Philippe's reign—an age of peace, of liberalism, of progress. Our generation was not well prepared for the bloody scenes of the age of iron which has begun, and we are not yet accustomed to understand the feelings of such a man as Prince Bismarck.

# Correspondence.

## "AN ALLEGED DICTUM OF COPERNICUS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, "J. B. S.," writing upon the subject named above, is doubtless right. Yet Mr. John Fiske and Mr. Lewes have erred in good company.

The facts seem established as follows: Osiander, who had charge of the publication of Copernicus's book, and wrote the preface, in a letter to Copernicus, dated April 20, 1541, endeavored to reconcile him to the presentation of the heliocentric doctrine as a hypothesis simply, and ends by saying: "Sic enim placidiores redderis peripatheticos et theologos quos contradicturos metuis." See the "Apologia Tychonis" in 'Kepleri Opera Omnia,' Frisch's edit., Vol. I., p. 246.

Kepler holds Osiander entirely responsible for the timid and prevaricating preface.

Bertrand, in his 'Fondateurs de l'Astronomie moderne,' gives the text, with the suggestion that Copernicus may have yielded "in pure condescension for his disciples"; but this idea is utterly at variance with expressions in Copernicus's own dedicatory letter to the Pope. The "fear" referred to in Osiander's letter is evidently the feeling which had led Copernicus to withhold his book from publication for several years, and not the timidity which would authorize a published falsehood.

For a good summary of the argument, see Figuier's 'Savants de la Renaissance,' pp. 378, 379; also a citation from Gassendi's 'Life of Copernicus' in Flammarion, 'Vie de Copernic,' p. 124; also Whewell, as cited by your correspondent. A. D. W.

Cornell University, January 4, 1875.

## MESSRS. LIPPINCOTT & CO.'S RESPONSE TO THE MESSRS. CHAMBERS'S "EDITORIAL STATEMENT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the recent appearance of an "editorial statement" from the Messrs. W. & R. Chambers relative to our issue of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' we beg leave to invite attention to the following exposition of the circumstances under which we engaged in the enterprise therein alluded to, feeling confident that, if the public be placed in possession of the *whole* truth touching the matter, a more accurate judgment will be arrived at than will be possible from a perusal of the Messrs. Chambers's "statement" merely.

The facts are these: When, some fifteen years ago, the Messrs. Chambers commenced the publication of their Encyclopædia, we arranged with them to *import* the work for the American market; but at the same time Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., of New York, commenced to *reprint* it, and in the then existing condition of commerce were able to compete successfully with our importation. Feeling ourselves aggrieved by the action of Messrs. Appleton & Co. in thus interfering with our arrangement, we proposed to the Messrs. Chambers to furnish us with a duplicate set of the stereotype plates of the work, we agreeing to relieve them of all the expenses and risks attendant upon the experiment, and also agreeing that they should share in the profits of the American edition should the result prove pecuniarily successful. Of course, the Messrs. Chambers had no interest in Appleton's reprint, and, as there was a possibility that by this arrangement with us some profit might accrue to them—with no risk whatever on their part, since we promptly refunded to them their outlay in making the plates—our offer was accepted, and we carried the enterprise through at our own risk, and at an expense of many thousands of dollars, even purchasing the interest of the Messrs. Appleton in the reprint which they had undertaken, and prevailing upon them to retire from the field.

In engaging in this transaction there were no stipulations, so far as we are aware, either expressed or implied, that we were to be subject to the dictation of the Messrs. Chambers in the management of our edition, nor were we prohibited from making such emendations therein as might be needful to adapt it to the use of American readers.

The work, as originally written, was of course designed for the *British* public, and it is not strange that in relation to American matters it at times contained language and sentiments at variance with our prevailing ideas, both of men and measures; and in cases where the retention of such sentiments was not material to the accuracy of the work, they were, to some extent, changed before the first appearance of our edition, and more carefully eliminated in our subsequent thorough revision. For instance, we did not think it judicious to retain in our edition the statements of the editors of the British edition, that John Adams "*entertained a decided favor for a hereditary aristocracy*," or that John Quincy Adams "*endeavored to make himself popular* [with the Democrats] *by betraying the schemes of his former political associates*" (!); or in the notice of Prof. Agassiz a statement, touching one of his works, which *he* pronounced "nonsense"—statements all of which the Messrs. Chambers retain in their so-called "Revised Edition." Nor did we think it advisable to perpetuate the exploded theory touching the so-called Bird Tracks in the sandstone of the Connecticut Valley, nor to ignore the fact that something is being done in the United States in the way of Agricultural Education and of Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. Neither did we care to say that Mr. James Buchanan's Administration "*was, on the whole, popular*," nor to place Florida upon record as the "*most southerly of the Confederate States of America*." These are a few of perhaps a thousand instances of more or less importance in which changes in articles were deemed advisable, in order to adapt the work to the needs and tastes of American purchasers; and we claim that the large amount of money that we had invested in the enterprise justified us in making the changes for this purpose.

The pretence that, in making these changes, injustice has been done to the Messrs. Chambers, in their capacity as authors or editors, seems to us simply absurd, since we have caused it to be known far and wide,

through the tens of thousands of circulars that we are constantly issuing, that our edition has undergone careful revision at the hands of our editors—the names of the editors and contributors being given, with the authorities principally made use of; and furthermore, in the CONCLUDING NOTICE to the work, published in the tenth volume, special pains is taken to give prominence to this fact. We believe that the true province of an ENCYCLOPÆDIA is not to advocate the theories of any man or class of men, but principally to embody in convenient form statements of facts; and we do not understand how it can reasonably be demanded that such statements be suppressed merely because they happen to be "repudiated by and hateful to the original proprietors of the work." Whether, in the five cases which the Messrs. Chambers cite in their "Editorial Statement," their editors or ours come the nearest to fulfilling their duties as *Encyclopædists*, may depend, in the opinion of the reader, upon whether, in his judgment, FREE TRADE "*now expresses the most important and fundamental truth in political economy*," as is stated in the British edition, or is "*a dogma of modern growth*"; and whether, as is stated by our editors, under the article VICTORIA I., there does or does not exist "*an unmistakable distrust by a portion of the* [British] *nation of the fitness of the heir-apparent to the throne.*" This last is what the Messrs. Chambers characterize as a "slanderous imputation" which they "are ashamed to copy"; and we have no hesitation in acknowledging that in both these instances the zeal of our editors may have carried them farther, in the discussion of the topics, than was necessary or perhaps prudent. The question, however, is as to the *facts*, and the rights which we had acquired to make changes in accordance with the facts.

Again, in the article on SLAVERY, it is claimed by the Messrs. Chambers that in the American edition "a historical fact of some moment is suppressed," but they omit to mention that in place of the "historical fact" (if their citation may be so called) which is suppressed, several other historical and statistical facts have been substituted. We invite a comparison of the two articles, and beg leave to suggest whether the Messrs. Chambers's objections to the American article do not grow out of the fact that it places the responsibility of the *primary existence* of American slavery upon the British Government.

Finally, as the best possible explanation of the whole matter, we have to say, that through a recent purchase by us from the British publishers, their interest in our edition of the work has ceased, and they, by various means, seem to be making strenuous efforts to create a sentiment here adverse to this edition, and in favor of their own, for which latter they apparently hope to find an extensive market in the United States, and this impression is strengthened by the somewhat ostentatious announcement of the Messrs. Chambers "that the only authentic edition of their Encyclopædia is the one published by themselves." It would appear also that their efforts are being seconded by certain other parties, who look for some pecuniary advantage through the importation of the British edition into this market.

We think we are not mistaken in believing that had it not come to be for the pecuniary interest of the Messrs. Chambers to cause *their* edition of the work to circulate in the United States in preference to ours, the present discussion would never have arisen. But be that as it may, we shall hereafter designate our issue as THE AMERICAN REVISED EDITION, and thus relieve the Messrs. Chambers of all cause of sensitiveness touching the changes which our editors have hitherto made or may make in it hereafter.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co.

PHILADELPHIA, January, 1875.

---

[We shall meddle no further in this controversy than to say (and we may be allowed to say it in spite of the very proper expression of regret to which the Messrs. Lippincott have given utterance), that the embodiment in a permanent work of reference, like an Encyclopædia, of a vague and yet serious imputation on the private character of a living man, which could, from its very nature, neither be met nor refuted, like that cast by the American editor of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' on the character of the Prince of Wales, was evidence of a lack of editorial discretion which might fairly prepare one for other eccentricities. As regards the proper treatment of Free Trade and Protection, our idea of the duty of an encyclopædist towards them would be the production of a compendious statement of the origin, nature, and history of each doctrine, and some account of the extent to which it was at the present day received by public opinion and acted on in legislation, accompanied, perhaps, by a very modest and careful statement of the writer's own views. In so far as the Messrs. Chambers's version departed from this standard, the American editor would doubtless have been justified in modifying it. Instead of this, however, he produced a kind of protectionist tract, reading somewhat like a campaign document, such as no man would be willing to produce who was in the habit of careful reasoning in political or economical matters, as anybody who edits or writes for an encyclopædia ought to be.—ED. NATION.]

---

# Notes.

A SERIES of 'Brief Biographies' is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The first issues, of eight or ten volumes, will be under the editorship of Mr. T. W. Higginson, and will be devoted to the contemporary statesmen of Europe.——Wilson, Hinkle & Co. publish together as an 'Eclectic Historical Atlas' the maps which accompanied Miss Thalheimer's manuals of history. The exigencies of printing from blocks or plates make the coloring of many of these maps rather a hindrance than a help to a ready comprehension of boundaries and nationalities; and for the same reason, one map too much resembles every other. Otherwise, they will be found useful as sketch-maps not overloaded with details.——The Bureau of Education has issued a pamphlet of 118 pages entitled 'Contributions to the Annals of Medical Progress and Medical Education in the United States before and during the War of Independence,' prepared by Joseph M. Toner, M.D. This compilation seems to us defective in method, but to be creditably full and, so far as we have tested it, accurate. It contains a large number of brief references to early physicians in the Colonies and in the Revolutionary armies, with abstracts of laws prescribing their duties, etc., and much other valuable matter.——The hundredth anniversary of the fight at Lexington will be celebrated by the town on the 19th of April. The exercises will include the unveiling of statues of John Hancock and Sam. Adams, "who had sought refuge from British proscription in Lexington, and were under its protection on that day." The orator of the day is not announced.——Harper & Bros.' edition of Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet on the Vatican Decrees is enriched by the addition of a history of the Vatican Council, and the Latin and English text of the Papal Syllabus and the Vatican Decrees of 1870, taken from Dr. Philip Schaff's forthcoming 'History of the Creeds of Christendom.'——The National Educational Association has published the addresses and journal of proceedings of the session held last year at Detroit. It makes a closely-printed octavo volume of nearly four hundred pages, and may be had of Albert P. Marble, Worcester, Mass., chairman of the Committee on Publication.——A catalogue of the publications of the U. S. Geological Survey of the Territories, under the charge of Dr. F. V. Hayden, comes to us from the Department of the Interior.——We are glad to learn that Scribner, Armstrong & Co. have in press an American edition of Mr. Leslie Stephen's 'Hours in a Library,' which we reviewed last week.

—In many of the mechanic arts it is important to know the percentage of moisture in the air. This is most conveniently ascertained, as everybody knows, by means of the wet and dry bulb thermometer. An objection to the use of the wet and the dry bulb is that it requires a reference to tables, like those in the Smithsonian Meteorological Collection; most people have no tables to refer to, and persons not familiar with the use of tables find some difficulty in managing them. An instrument has been invented by Professor Winlock, of the Harvard Observatory, and named by him the Hygrophant, which makes the use of the tables unnecessary. In hospitals, where it is desirable to keep up a uniform degree of moisture, the readings of the Hygrophant could easily be taken by an attendant of little education; and in private houses the question common in the spring and autumn, "Isn't the house almost damp enough to have a furnace-fire?" or in mid-winter, "Hasn't the furnace-heat made the house dreadfully dry?" could be settled very much more satisfactorily by the figures of the Hygrophant than by vague appeals to the feelings.

—Unlike that of recent years, the necrology of 1874 is not remarkable for the number of great and illustrious names which it embraces. Death has spared the sovereigns of the earth, except the last survivor of the Hawaiian dynasty of the Kamehamehas, William (or Bill as he was commonly spoken of in the press) Lunalilo, after a reign of thirteen months. Nor has any one in the lower walks of life been cut off whose loss has in any appreciable degree affected the destinies of a nation or of mankind. It may be thought that had General Manuel de la Concha not fallen in June before Estella, the Spanish problem would have received a different solution from

that which the past week has revealed ; but the *coup d'état* of January 2 unquestionably buried the Republic out of sight. His country lost also General Francisco Lersundi ; Austria, Field-Marshal Louis Charles Gablentz and Archduke Charles Ferdinand ; the United States, most excellent officers in Generals George L. Hartsuff and John G. Foster, both distinguished in the Rebellion, and having seen earlier service: the one against the Seminoles in Florida, the other in Mexico ; as had also the less-known General Morgan L. Smith, a thoroughly brave soldier, one of Sherman's subordinates in his march to the sea. The war of 1812 first gave employment to Rear-admiral William B. Shubrick—a South Carolina name not new to our naval annals—whose service covered sixty-eight years, and to Commodore William Inman. Death certainly came too soon to Lieut.-Commander William B. Cushing, who won distinction rapidly in the late war, which found him not twenty years of age ; and who in 1864 achieved perhaps the most daring exploit performed either on land or sea when he blew up the Confederate ram *Albemarle* on the Roanoke River. To this list may be added Captain Francis Garnier, a distinguished French officer, assassinated by Chinese rebels, a great loss to exploration and science ; General Alexander B. Dyer, long Chief of Ordnance at Washington ; General John T. Cuxton, a Kentuckian (at the age of thirty-six), who, although the son of a slaveholder, early became an emancipationist, enlisted the first company of loyal Southerners in the war, and was much trusted by General Thomas ; and General William S. Hillyer, one of General Grant's original staff.

—At the head of the politicians as of the men of letters of 1874 stands, of course, François Pierre Guillaume Guizot, the Nestor also of the deceased of both classes. He was born in 1787. Where his rôle as a statesman ended, that of Alexandre Auguste Ledru-Rollin began, in the Revolution of 1848. He was one of those twenty-year exiles who returned to France on the eve of or immediately after the great overthrow of 1870–71, and found themselves more than ever men without a country. There died also in France Jean Louis Victor Adolphe Forcade Laroquette, a minister in the time of Napoleon III., and Goulard, who tried to form a ministry after the Duc de Broglie's failure under MacMahon, and was thought to have died of chagrin caused by his failure. Across the border, the Ultramontane Herr Mallinckrodt, Bismarck's honest and respectable opponent, is Germany's loss in statesmanship. In England, no greater than Charles Gilpin's can be mentioned—a useful member of Parliament, worthy to be remembered—unless we add that of an Englishman by residence and marriage, Sylvain van de Weyer, born in Amsterdam, but one of the three foreigners (the other two being the Prince-Consort and Stockmar) who, during the earlier years of Victoria, helped to govern England. Of obscure origin, he became a journalist and barrister, aided in the separation of Belgium from Holland, and was the trusted adviser of English statesmen. Italy honors the memory of Niccolò Tommaseo, a scholar of no mean rank, as well as a patriot of '48 ; a Dalmatian by birth. In the United States, the deceased, whether to be called more rightfully statesmen or politicians, were directly associated with the agitation for the maintenance or the abolition of slavery. It was a marked coincidence that Fillmore and Sumner, the signer and the opponent *par excellence* of the Fugitive-Slave Law, passed away in the same month (March) and the same week—leading, as in Massachusetts, to some awkward juxtapositions of official eulogy and grief. On the Southern side died Lewis T. Wigfall, whose extravagant support of slavery furnished its adversaries with plenty of ammunition of the softer kind in vogue before the war. The Abolitionist ranks testify also to the lapse of time by the gaps which have been made in them. Gerrit Smith, James Miller McKim, Rev. Beriah Green, and David Lee Child were all representative men, whose work and influence could ill have been spared in the long struggle with the slave power. Mention as politicians should also be made of Nicholas P. Trist, son-in-law of Jefferson, a friend and adviser of Madison, private secretary of Jackson, consul at Havana, and negotiator of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo during the Administration of Polk ; and Cespedes, the Cuban revolutionist, all his life an enemy of Spanish rule in Cuba, at one time President of the Republic so-called, but impeached and deposed in October, 1873.

—The profession of the law has lost Judge James Thompson of Pennsylvania, a good lawyer and serviceable representative in the legislature and at Washington, who (1847–1862) was Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of his State ; John Meredith Read, till very recently Chief-Justice of the same court, grandson of George Read, one of the signers of the Declaration ; John Bowers Lewis, said to have been the ablest lawyer in Canada ; John Worth Edmonds of New York, better known as a Spiritualist than as a judge ; Benjamin R. Curtis of Boston, perhaps in most respects the ablest lawyer in the United States, a Judge of the Supreme Court at Washington from 1851 to 1857, and shortly before his death the candidate of the Massachusetts Democrats for the seat made vacant by the death of Sumner ; Judge Basil Harison of Michigan, the original of Cooper's Beehunter, who died August 13, at the age of 104 years 6 months.

—Theology, in the broadest sense, has suffered heavily in 1874. Biblical criticism lacks two great lights in Dr. Abraham Geiger and Professor Contantine Tischendorf, while David Frederic Strauss led the way in that critical study of the life of Christ which has been so fruitful of controversial and historical works on the same subject. The Papacy has been deprived of the counsels of Monsignor de Mérode and of the nominal attachment of Father Augustine Theiner, a Prussian convert of 1831, who became a most learned and fertile writer on ecclesiastical subjects, and whose recently published letters have been made much of in Germany by the contestants against Papal infallibility ; of Cardinal Tarquini, one of the few Jesuits who have ever worn a cardinal's hat, and who died within two months after his elevation, a descendant of Benedict XIV., and claiming descent also more remotely from the Tarquins ; Cardinal Barnabo, the head of the Roman Propaganda ; Jean François Landriot, Archbishop of Rheims, born 1816, a celebrated preacher and author of many volumes. In this country three clergymen have died of rather local distinction—Dr. Edward N. Kirk, whose pulpit oratory was once celebrated in Boston ; Dr. James Walker, the venerable and sagacious ex-president of Harvard College ; Bishop Henry John Whitehouse, prominent in the prosecution of the Cheney case in Chicago, whose death afforded the opportunity of a decisive condemnation of ritualism in the appointment of his successor by the Episcopal Convention ; and Elder Jacob Knapp, the Baptist revivalist, said in his time to have converted one hundred thousand people.

—The scientific losses of the year tell most heavily in astronomy, including Peter Andreas Hansen, a mathematician unrivalled in our day ; Johann Heinrich Mädler of Berlin, the associate of Beer ; and Lambert Adolphe Jacques Quetelet, founder and director of the Brussels Observatory. Quite in rank with these celebrities was, in another field—comparative anatomy—Jeffries Wyman. Geology has lost Elie de Beaumont, born in 1798, the successor of Arago in the secretaryship of the French Academy of Sciences, who left unfinished the work which had engaged forty-two years of his life—a general geologic map of France ; and John Phillips, a distinguished British geologist, nephew of William Smith, the "Father of British Geology," professor in three colleges, author of more than sixty books and papers contributed to the literature of geology from 1826 down to the time of his death, and secretary to the British Association, in which office he arranged and edited twenty-seven volumes of Transactions. The Medical Faculty will miss Dr. Francis E. Anstie (of England) and Dr. George Derby (of the Massachusetts Board of Health), both devoted students of sanitary science ; and in a measure Dr. Nathaniel B. Shurtleff, ex-Mayor of Boston, whose medical career, however, and whose adhesion to the doctrines of Spurzheim have been forgotten in his later historical and antiquarian activity ; Dr. Alfred Hitchcock, one of the physicians who assisted at the autopsy on Charles Sumner's body, and who died a fortnight afterwards of the same disease as Sumner's, *angina pectoris ;* Dr. Forbes Winslow, eminent for skill in nervous diseases and in mental alienation cases, author of some medico-psychological works, and often witness as an expert in cases of insanity ; and Louis Philippe Cruveilhier. Indirectly connected with science were Sir Francis Pettit Smith, the first engineer who succeeded in applying the screw-propeller to navigation, and rewarded for his services by a pension—though his title to the credit of the discovery was disputed by Ericsson ; and William Fairbairn, pioneer builder of iron machinery, bridges, and ships. Livingstone's burial in England took place last year ; and another African explorer of repute, Dr. Charles Tilstone Beke, passed away. Arabia was the field in which Heinrich von Maltzan, traveller, ethnologist, and philologist, had last distinguished himself.

—Guizot and Tommaseo must again be mentioned when literature reckons her losses. The first is still *facile princeps*, Jules Michelet being far behind him as an historian, and Jules Janin offering no point of comparison. An obscurer but a painstaking and admirable antiquarian, employed in the MSS. department of the National Library, was Emile Mabille, whose labors throw much light on the ninth and tenth centuries especially. Two other French archæologists and authors were Charles Ernest Beulé, who figured just before his death as Minister of MacMahon's Government, and issued in the summer of 1873 his famous order regulating "civil" interments ; and the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, whose Mexican and Central American researches are familiar to all scholars. Paillard de Villeneuve is

memorable as having been for a long time editor of the *Gazette des Tribuneaux*, to which post he was appointed provisionally, whence it might have been that the saying (made use of, if not invented by him), "The only thing that lasts in France is the provisional," occurred. That delightful Platt-Deutsch novelist, Fritz Reuter; the poet and philologist Hoffmann von Fallersleben; and the wonderful linguist, Hans Conon von der Gabelentz, whose acquirements threw Mezzofanti's quite in the shade, make serious vacancies in German letters and scholarship. The English losses are: "Barry Cornwall" (Bryan Waller Procter); Herman Merivale, professor of political economy at Oxford, and biographer of Sir Philip Francis; Charles Shirley Brooks, editor of *Punch*, and Tom Hood the younger, editor of *Fun*, the rival of *Punch*. Besides these there were Agnes Strickland, the historian; John Heneage Jesse, son of Edward Jesse, naturalist, who long held an appointment in the Admiralty, and was the compiler of very entertaining semi-historical books, the best known of which is the 'Memoirs of the Life and Reign of George III.'; Mowbray Morris, long the manager of the London *Times;* Sidney Dobell, the poet, the son of a wine-dealer, and for ten years himself an assistant in the business. In this country died Charles Astor Bristed ("Carl Benson"); Ralph Keeler, correspondent and writer of magazine articles; Edward Morris, author of 'Ten Acres Enough'; Col. S. C. ("Sandy") Faulkner, of Arkansas, who held public, and, during the Rebellion, military office, but was known to the Southwest as the author or personator of the famed "Arkansas Traveller," a composition which is said to have gained him at the old St. Charles Hotel in New Orleans a special room bearing in gilt letters over the door, "Arkansas Traveller"; Mrs. Anna C. Lowell, of Cambridge, author and teacher; and Mrs. Martha Walker Cook, also a writer to be mentioned with respect. To William A. Wheeler, author of many dictionaries and catalogues, and co-laborer on others which do not bear his name, the reading public owes more than it is ever likely to acknowledge. Literary criticism, as our readers are well aware, suffered an almost irreparable loss in John Richard Dennett. Our publishers and the buyers of foreign books regret the death of Henry Kernot, an ardent and amiable bibliographer. Among foreign publishers Adam Black was best known. Another Edinburgh publisher, James Gall, merits recollection for having introduced printing for the blind into Great Britain after its disuse in Paris for some forty years. A London publisher, George Stiff—who began life as an engraver, became in 1844 proprietor of *Mayhew's London Journal*, and raised its circulation to a figure extraordinary even in these days by means of sensational stories and pictures—may, says the *Bookseller*, "be regarded as one of the principal pioneers of illustrated literature in its present popular form."

—Kaulbach, Fortuny, and Gleyre lend brilliancy to the mortuary record of art, and the names of the painters Theodore Cassagne and Octave Tassaert complete the list for France. In architecture and ornament Owen Jones enjoyed deserved eminence; and in sculpture, particularly portrait-sculpture, John Henry Foley took very high rank, if not the highest, in Great Britain. To both of these professions belonged in some degree Hammatt Billings, of Boston, whose designs ranged from churches and warehouses to monuments (like that at Plymouth) and book illustrations—he made those for 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Still another illustrator of books was John Hows, of this city. Among musical artists, Parepa-Rosa was without a peer in her own time, and perhaps in all time. Mr. Brooks, the editor of *Punch*, must also be thought of as a dramatist; his works, he used to say, outnumbered Shakspere's. Scarcely less prolific was Watts Phillips, author of 'The Dead Heart,' and of numerous other popular plays which still keep the stage, and also a forcible caricaturist, as one of Cruikshank's pupils might well be. An equally productive French dramatist, who never attained more than a passing distinction, and who died poor, was Victor Séjour. The theatre also lost Marcus (Mark) Smith, son of the famous manager, Sol Smith, a good stock comedy actor, and for a short period a manager; William Henry West Betty, born in the last century (1791), and called the "Young (or "Infant") Roscius" from having played leading parts in standard drama at the age of twelve or thirteen, and thus gaining a reputation which afterwards broke down; Mdlle. Desclée, the great French actress, and Felix François Edgard, a good comedian, who had long lived in this country and whose services were always in request when French plays were acted here.

—Philanthropists and public benefactors are never wanting in an American necrology. Among those of 1874, Gerrit Smith, Ezra Cornell, and Samuel Williston had made our colleges the recipients of their bounty, while Henry Grinnell had given a powerful impulse to Arctic exploration. The great executive capacity of John Edgar Thomson, the late president of the Pennsylvania Railroad; the inventive genius of Gail Borden, who invented "condensed milk" and preserved meat; the reformatory labors in American kitchens of Pierre Blot; the peculiar industry of John Laird, builder of the *Alabama*, and member of Parliament for Birkenhead; the great wealth of Meyer von Rothschild; and the unique physiological connection of Chang and Eng, the Siamese twins, make them severally worthy of a place in the list of the deceased of 1874. We may add the names of Rev. J. W. Appleyard, missionary to Kafir-land, author of a Kafir grammar published twenty-four years ago, said to be still unrivalled, and translator into Kafir of such books of the Bible as had not been done into that language before his time; Cochise, a bloody Apache chief—for some time, however, a "good Indian"; Edward Dickenson, the Treasurer of Amherst College, a Puritanical man of great integrity, outspoken in his dislikes and making many enemies; Christian Sharpe, the unlucky inventor of the rifle which goes by his name; Joseph Harrison, an inventor who succeeded in making a perfectly safe boiler; Robert Morris Copeland, a New England landscape gardener, author of a single book, 'Country Life,' and of many fugitive writings in the line of his profession; and James W. Gerard, of this city, once a leader of the bar, who did much for the school system, and brought about the uniforming of the Metropolitan police force.

—Some time ago (No. 458) we expressed the hope that the University of Oxford, having completed the publication of the invaluable Icelandic-English dictionary by Gudbrand Vigfússon, would now undertake, for the benefit of English and American scholars, a series of saga texts. We are glad to learn that this hope is about to be realized. Mr. Vigfússon, whom Oxford has been fortunate enough to retain, has already commenced the printing, at the Clarendon Press, of the text of the Sturlunga saga, to be accompanied by ample notes. No better initial volume could have been selected. This saga, from its size and importance, has received the title of 'Islandinga saga hin mikla,' or the great saga of the Icelanders, and is popularly known, in consequence of the general excellence of its style, by the characteristic appellation of 'Blómstr,' or 'The Flower.' The period which it treats extends from 1116 to 1264, but it is most minute in regard to the thirteenth century—the turbulent age of the Sturlunga family, which produced Iceland's most celebrated historian, Snorri Sturluson, and to a member of which, the learned Sturla Thórdarson, the authorship of the saga is generally ascribed. Unlike most of the important sagas, the Sturlunga exists in but one printed edition, that of the Icelandic Literary Society (Copenhagen, 1817–20), in four thin quartos, the text of which is, however, far from critical, while the orthography and typography are utterly unworthy of the work. The British Museum possesses the best manuscript of the Sturlunga.

—Of the works called forth by the Icelandic Millennial anniversary, the most notable is Konrad Maurer's stout volume, 'Island von seiner ersten Entdeckung bis zum Untergange des Freistaats.' The author is one of the most eminent members of the legal faculty in the University of Munich, and enjoys a high reputation for his 'Beiträge zur Rechtsgeschichte des germanischen Nordens' and for other publications relating to Scandinavian literature and antiquities. The present essay is, and is intended to be, rather a historical commentary than a history, comprising, in systematic order, all the principal facts deducible from the ancient sagas and laws concerning the social and political relations, the customs and avocations, the literature and culture, of the Northern islanders during the period of independence. To say that it is the best treatise on Icelandic history accessible to the general reader is no very high praise, for it is written with a clearness, a careful citation of authorities, and a profound knowledge of the subject, by no means characteristic of foreign works which in any way relate to Iceland. The introduction treats of the discovery and physical features of the island and of the character of the settlers; the author showing the unsoundness of those archæological fancies which ascribe to Iceland, in the days of its colonization, a climate more genial and forests more extensive than it at present possesses. This is followed by two sections, the first of which is devoted to the history of the Republic, with an admirable analysis of its constitution, and accounts of the introduction of Christianity, the development of the episcopal power, and the final downfall of the Commonwealth. The second section relates to the internal condition of the Republic, with chapters on "The State," "The Church," "The Community," "Kinship," "Neighborship," "Social Economy," and "General Culture." The final chapter narrates and estimates the changes which followed upon the submission of the sturdy Icelanders to foreign domination. Nowhere else, outside of the Icelandic language, is there so complete an exposition of the complex godord-system upon which the constitutional arrangements of the early Icelanders were so largely based. To the inhe-

rent weakness of this system, which led to dissensions among the great houses of the island, and to the peculiar relations of the church and the state, the author chiefly attributes the subversion of the island's independence.

—Another valuable work which owes its existence to the Icelandic Millennial is a quarto edition of the 'Islendingadrápa' of Hauk Valdísarson, an Icelandic poem of the thirteenth century. The editor is Dr. Theodor Möbius, Professor of Icelandic in the University of Kiel, to whom scholars are already indebted for a long series of critical editions of sagas and various other treatises illustrative of the early literature of Iceland. The quaint old drápa of the almost unknown Hauk, one of the later skalds, is a eulogy of the athletic accomplishments possessed by certain famous Icelanders. In its existing shape it is a fragment of a little over two hundred lines, a large portion of which is now printed for the first time. It is found in but one manuscript—at the end of a vellum Codex, containing portions of the two Eddas—which is preserved in the Arna-Magnæan Library at Copenhagen. The Codex has lost its last leaf or leaves, and hence it is impossible to determine the original length of the poem. Professor Möbius has supplied each stanza with very full notes as well as with explanations of the "Kenningar," or poetical figures, which form such a stumbling-block in the path of the Icelandic student, and has added a complete vocabulary.

## HOWELLS'S 'FOREGONE CONCLUSION.'*

MR. HOWELLS in his new novel returns to his first love, and treats once more of Venice and Venetian figures. His constancy has not betrayed him, for 'A Foregone Conclusion' is already rapidly making its way. A novelist is always safer for laying his scene in his own country, and the best that can be said of his errors of tone and proportion, when he deals with foreign manners, is that the home reader is rarely wise enough to measure them. But in Venice Mr. Howells is almost at home, and if his book contains any false touches, we, for our part, have not had the skill to discover them. His Venetian hero is not only a very vivid human being, but a distinct Italian, with his subtle race-qualities artfully interwoven with his personal ones. We confess, however, that in spite of this evidence of the author's ability to depict a consistent and natural member of the Latin family, we should have grudged him a heroine of foreign blood. Not the least charm of the charming heroines he has already offered us has been their delicately native quality. They have been American women in the scientific sense of the term, and the author, intensely American in the character of his talent, is probably never so spontaneous, so much himself, as when he represents the delicate, nervous, emancipated young woman begotten of our institutions and our climate, and equipped with a lovely face and an irritable moral consciousness. Mr. Howells's tales have appeared in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the young ladies who figure in them are the actual young ladies who attentively peruse that magazine. We are thankful accordingly, in 'A Foregone Conclusion,' for a heroine named after one of the States of the Union, and characterized by what we may call a national aroma. The relation of a heroine to a hero can only be, of course, to be adored by him; but the specific interest of the circumstance in this case resides in the fact that the hero is a priest, and that one has a natural curiosity to know how an American girl of the typical free-stepping, clear-speaking cast receives a declaration from a sallow Italian ecclesiastic. It is characteristic of Mr. Howells's manner as a story-teller, of his preference of fine shades to heavy masses, of his dislike to *les grands moyens*, that Florida Vervain's attitude is one of benignant, almost caressing, pity. The author's choice here seems to us very happy; any other tone on the young girl's part would have been relatively a trifle vulgar. Absolute scorn would have made poor Don Ippolito's tragedy too brutally tragical, and an answering passion, even with all imaginable obstructions, would have had a quality less poignant than his sense that in her very kindness the woman he loves is most inaccessible. Don Ippolito dies of a broken heart, and Florida Vervain prospers extremely—even to the point of marrying, at Providence, R. I., an American gentleman whom, in spite of his having in his favor that he does not stand in a disagreeably false position, the reader is likely to care less for than for the shabby Venetian ecclesiastic.

This story is admirably told, and leads one to expect very considerable things from Mr. Howells as a novelist. He has given himself a narrow stage, or rather a scanty *dramatis personæ* (for he has all glowing Venice for a back scene), and he has attempted to depict but a single situation. But between his four persons the drama is complete and the interest acute. It is all a most remarkable piece of elaboration. Mr. Howells had already shown that he lacked nothing that art can give in the way of finish and ingenuity of manner; but he has now proved that he can embrace a dramatic situation with the true imaginative force—give us not only its mechanical structure, but its atmosphere, its meaning, its poetry. The climax of Don Ippolito's history in the present volume is related with masterly force and warmth, and the whole portrait betrays a singular genius for detail. It is made up of a series of extremely minute points, which melt into each other like scattered water-drops. Their unity is in their subdued poetic suggestiveness, their being the work of a writer whose observation always projects some vague tremulous shadow into the realm of fancy. The image of Don Ippolito, if we are not mistaken, will stand in a niche of its own in the gallery of portraits of humble souls. The best figure the author had drawn hitherto was that charmingly positive young lady, Miss Kitty Ellison, in 'A Chance Acquaintance'; but he has given it a very harmonious companion in the Florida Vervain of the present tale. Miss Vervain is positive also, and in the manner of her positiveness she is a singularly original invention. She is more fantastic than her predecessor, but she is hardly less lifelike, and she is a remarkably picturesque study of a complex nature. Her image is poetical, which is a considerable compliment, as things are managed now in fiction (where the only escape from bread-and-butter and commonplace is into golden hair and promiscuous felony). In the finest scene in the book, when Florida has learned to what extent Don Ippolito has staked his happiness upon his impossible passion, she, in a truly superb movement of pity, seizes his head in her hands and kisses it. Given the persons and the circumstances, this seems to us an extremely fine imaginative stroke, for it helps not only to complete one's idea of the young girl, but the fact of the deed being possible and natural throws a vivid side-light on the helpless, childish, touching personality of the priest. We believe, however, that it has had the good fortune to create something like a scandal. There are really some readers who are in urgent need of a tonic regimen! If Mr. Howells continues to strike notes of this degree of resonance, he will presently find himself a very eminent story-teller; and meanwhile he may find an agreeable stimulus in the thought that he has provoked a discussion.

A matter which it is doubtless very possible to discuss, but in which we ourselves should be on the protesting side, is the felicity of the episodes related in the last twenty pages of the tale. After the hero's death the action is transplanted to America, and the conclusion takes place in the shadow of the Fifth Avenue Hotel. We have found these pages out of tune with their predecessors, and we suspect that this will be the verdict of readers with the finer ear. The philosophy of such matters is very ethereal, and one can hardly do more than take one's stand on the "I do not like you, Doctor Fell" principle. One labors under the disadvantage, too, that the author's defence will be much more categorical than the reader's complaint, and that the complaint itself lays one open to the charge of siding against one's own flesh and blood. We should risk it, then, and almost be willing, for the sake of keeping a singularly perfect composition intact, to pass for a disloyal citizen. And then the author can point triumphantly to 'A Chance Acquaintance' as proof that a very American tale may be also a very charming one. Of this there is no doubt; but everything is relative, and the great point is, as the French say, not to *mêler les genres*. We renounce the argument, but in reading over 'A Foregone Conclusion' we shall close the work when the hero dies—when old Veneranda comes to the door and shakes her hands in Ferris's face and smites him, as it were, with the announcement. The author, however, is thoroughly consistent, for in stamping his tale at the last with the American local seal he is simply expressing his own literary temperament. We have always thought Mr. Howells's, in spite of his Italian affiliations, a most characteristically American talent; or rather not in spite of them, but in a manner on account of them, for he takes Italy as no Italian surely ever took it—as your enterprising Yankee alone is at pains to take it. American literature is immature, but it has, in prose and verse alike, a savor of its own, and we have often thought that this might be a theme for various interesting reflections. If we undertook to make a few, we should find Mr. Howells a capital text. He reminds us how much our native-grown imaginative effort is a matter of details, of fine shades, of pale colors, a making of small things do great service. Civilization with us is monotonous, and in the way of contrasts, of salient points, of chiaroscuro, we have to take what we can get. We have to look for these things in fields where a less devoted glance would see little more than an arid blank, and, at the last, we manage to find them. All this refines and sharpens our perceptions, makes us in a literary way, on our own scale, very delicate, and stimulates greatly our sense of proportion and form. Mr. Lowell and Mr. Longfellow among the poets, and Mr. Howells, Bret Harte, and Mr. Aldrich

* 'A Foregone Conclusion. By W. D. Howells, author of 'Their Wedding Journey,' 'A Chance Acquaintance,' etc.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

among the story-tellers (the latter writer, indeed, in verse as well as in prose), have all pre-eminently the instinct of style and shape. It is true, in general, that the conditions here indicated give American writing a limited authority, but they often give it a great charm—how great a charm, may be measured in the volume before us. 'A Foregone Conclusion' puts us for the moment, at least, in good humor with the American manner. At a time when the English novel has come in general to mean a ponderous, shapeless, diffuse piece of machinery, "padded" to within an inch of its life, without style, without taste, without a touch of the divine spark, and effective, when it is effective, only by a sort of brutal dead-weight, there may be pride as well as pleasure in reading this admirably-balanced and polished composition, with its distinct literary flavor, its grace and its humor, its delicate art and its perfume of poetry, its extreme elaboration and yet its studied compactness. And if Mr. Howells adheres in the future to his own standard, we shall have pleasure as well as pride.

## ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY.*

WE have in this work an assemblage of compositions so very heterogeneous in character that few persons, it may be surmised, less catholic in taste than their accomplished author, will be minded to read more, at most, than a third of what is here offered them. "A Fortnight in Faroe" and "Wildbad and its Waters," in the first volume, teem both with amusement and with instruction; and the four light papers in the second volume, though inferior to those just named, are calculated to beguile a vacant hour or two agreeably. As to the leash of review articles about Norway, Harold Hardrada, and Magnus the Good, certainly no known living Englishman but Dr. Dasent could have written them; and we suspect that, among Englishmen and Americans combined, Mr. Marsh stands alone in his competency to pass judgment on them. For ourselves, we feed on them with equal faith and pleasure, and grieve that the banquet is so soon at an end. Of the remaining chapters which make up the volumes before us, one, entitled "Origin of the English Language," is an admirable summary of information touching the sources and mutations of our mother-tongue; and the other, headed "Latham's 'Johnson's Dictionary,'" serves, by its searching scholarship and incisive criticism, to evince the deplorable shallowness, not to say worse, which distinguishes English lexicography, even in its latest developments. On this point we purpose to dilate a little, in the way of reporting some of the most interesting results which Dr. Dasent has arrived at.

Confining himself, chiefly, in dealing with Dr. Latham, to a single branch of his most recent labors, Dr. Dasent states, and very truly, that his "etymology is, generally, of the scantiest, and sometimes of the wildest, kind; and scarcely an attempt is made to show the place in which English stands in the great Indo-European family. We believe Dr. Latham is an unbeliever in the truths of philology. He thinks the wise men came from the West. He is welcome to his unbelief; but a dictionary is not written for unbelievers, but for believers; and the new philological faith is too firmly rooted to be simply ignored. Whoever, compiling a dictionary, does thus ignore it, must do so at the peril of his head, and must look to hear hard things." On the performance in question, "Latham's 'Johnson's Dictionary,'" viewed with reference to all its departments, Dr. Dasent's verdict, damnatory in the last degree, and yet not going a whit beyond the strictest justice, is this: "In the present edition we have almost every one of Johnson's errors and Todd's absurdities, with others which neither Johnson nor Todd would have committed. The truth lies in a simple sentence. Johnson was before his age, Dr. Latham is behind it. The one knew many things of which no one else was aware, and so his work brought light to their eyes. The other seems not to be aware of many things which every one who has any right to call himself a philologist must know; and thus his work serves rather to blind than to enlighten. Johnson's etymology we now see to be entirely wrong; but it was the best the age afforded. We now see in it nothing but confusion; but Dr. Latham's is confusion worse confounded." Only a small part of the new edition had appeared when its critic wrote thus; and Dr. Latham, if he had either regarded his own fame, or had taken sufficiently to heart the needs of the age, would thereupon have thrown up his hand, if conscious, as he must have been, that he had undertaken a task immeasurably too great for his ability. His opinion, however, seems to have been, that what he had at his elbow to give to the world was quite as good as the world deserved; and, such is the popular awe inspired by well-printed quartos, that thousands of decently educated people already consult his pages in firm confidence of finding there the last and the most trustworthy decisions on the English vocabulary that have been reached by modern research. Disappointing as it is to have to say so, the work is, to its very end, just as superficial as its beginning, and not unfrequently is, if possible, more superficial. From first to last, too, Dr. Latham drenches us with the crazy conceits of Mr. Wedgwood, who has ridden to the very death his darling hobby, onomatopœia, if ever hobby was so ridden. It is quite deservedly that Dr. Dasent says of Mr. Wedgwood, on one occasion, that, "after throwing a good deal of etymological rubbish in our eyes, which makes such a dust that we can scarce see where we are," etc. So he does at almost every step where we choose to follow him; and yet Mr. Wedgwood is well-nigh the only nineteenth-century authority on English etymology that Dr. Latham thinks good to recognize.

However, dismissing Dr. Latham and his *magnus Apollo*, let us see what Dr. Dasent has to bring us that is new. He reveals to us that the *a* of *aback* and of many other words is the Norse *á*, which denotes rest quite as much as motion—"on" and also "on to." *A baki* and *á bak* are the Norse for *aback*, in expressions meaning, respectively, "borne *on* the back" and "put *on* the back." *Abroad* has no connection with *broad*, being referable to the Norse *braut* or *bröd*, 'way.' *Again* and *agen*, once different words, are less naturally derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ongeanes* than from the Norse *gagn* and *gegn*, with *á* prefixed. *Against* is the superlative of *again*. *Agate*, now obsolete, came to us, through the Northumbrian dialect, from the Norse *á götu*, from *gata*, 'path.' In *agog* we have the Icelandic *á gœgjum*, from the plural substantive *gœgjur*, 'staring.' *Aloft* is the Norse *á lopt* or *á loft*. Our *alone*, we are informed, has nothing to do with *all* and *one*, but originated, most probably, from the Northumbrian *á laun* or *á lön*, in which we have the source of our *lone* and *lane*. *Aloof* is traced to an expression in Norse, *á hlaupi* or *á löpi*, from *hlaup* or *löp*, akin to our *leap*. *Along*, instead of representing any Anglo-Saxon word, descended from the Northumbrian *á löng*, and the old *alongst* was a superlative, like *against*. *Askant* we are taught to find the source of in the Icelandic *á skakkt* or *a skankt*. *Away* is the Northumbrian *á veg*.

But here we must stop, our space being limited; for which same reason we have forborne to transcribe, even in abridgment, the abundant reasons alleged in support of the etymologies just quoted. Enough, however, has been said and shown to convince scepticism itself that a lexicographer of our language can as little dispense with a knowledge of the Old Norse as with a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon or of Mœso-Gothic.

Dr. Dasent's philology one has to look very closely at to pick flaws in it; for we must presume mere momentary forgetfulness on his part where he writes that, in former times, "*His* was the true common genitive of *he*, *she*, and *it*." *His* was never the genitive of *she*; and our *her* involves only a slight change of the Anglo-Saxon *hire* or *hyre*. To find, as he does, in the *apple-pie*, with which we qualify "order," a corruption of *chapel-pie*, dating from Caxton's printing-house, looks whimsical, to say the least. Moreover, it is too bad that he should allow penny-a-liners and literary slovens an opportunity of pointing to him as capable, at times, of descending to their level. "To see a gannet in Faroe is quite another thing *to* seeing a gannet on the Bass," Vol. I., p. 82. "Parenthetically, we may remark that you had better call a man a fool at once, in Germany, *as* leave out the Herr," Vol. I., p. 131. "Again, if you are angry with him, you cannot ease your mind by patting him, as every right-minded person would behave by a donkey who had *aggravated* him," Vol. I., p. 146. "Neither Godwin nor Harold *were* likely," etc., Vol. I., p. 235. "Therefore we will share this money between us, at once, into *equal halves*," etc., Vol. II., p. 217. "The man *whom* you say robbed you can never be one of my soldiers," Vol. II., p. 363.

A great scholar, the author knows a whole host of words which ordinary folk are ignorant of. Still, it is rather hard that he should so often puzzle the inerudite reader with terms which may cost him a long hunt before he gets any light on them. We may mention, as in point, his "baneman," "byrnie," "candleswain," "ettle," "gurly," "hirple," "niddering," "wardrake." And why try to revive "glode" for "glided"?

But, besides being a great scholar, Dr. Dasent is a traveller; and, in his wanderings, he has, quite as a matter of course, run foul of a "Yankee vulgarian." The "Yankee" first disclosed his nationality by exclaiming: "Tell you what, sirree, in my great country that darned nigger would be located in the nigger-van." As was to be expected, the odious creature pronounced the Strasbourg spire to be "some tall." A further sample of his jargon, which, somehow, he never fully airs except when abroad, is this: "Have you heard of our great Gineral Grant, marm? I dubitate if there's air another gineral in Europe can black his shoes. He is an obstinate old child, marm, and cares nothing for human life, I expect." Once more: "Then let me say that the architecture in our great country is as far supe-

* 'Jest and Earnest. A Collection of Essays and Reviews. By George Webbe Dasent, D.C.L.' 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall. 1873.

rior to your architectúre in Eurépe as Eurépe is inferior to our great continent." The existence of endurable Americans has, we are aware, some difficulty in getting itself acknowledged by Englishmen of a certain class. Can it be, however, that little sketches, such as that which Dr. Dasent here indulges his fancy in, are likely to contribute towards engendering between two great nations mutual understanding or mutual respect? Much more than by labored arguments, or by violent invective, it is by seeming trifles of this sort that public opinion and public belief are fashioned and stereotyped; and no one knows this better than they do who resort to them as vents for a personal animosity which they suppose it to be for the welfare of England that they should assist in propagating.

*Hovedströmningerne i det Nittende Aarhundredes Litteratur.* I. Emigrantlitteraturen. II. Den Romantiske Skole i Tydskland. By G. Brandes. (Copenhagen : 1873.)—After many brilliant achievements in the first half of the present century, the Danish literature now rests on its laurels. The old generation of authors is rapidly passing away, and no new forces seem to be coming to the front to fill the vacant places. The only literary names of any importance which the last two decades have to show, are those of Wilhelm Bergsöe and G. Brandes, the latter of whom is not a poet but a critic. Denmark has for many years barricaded itself with a Chinese wall of prejudice, national pride, and orthodoxy, and it required a Schleswig-Holstein war, a diplomatic enemy like Bismarck, and a critic like Mr. Brandes, to make it accessible to the great currents of thought which have agitated the nineteenth century. The late Mr. Hauch, an amiable conservative who occupied the position of Professor of Æsthetics at the University of Copenhagen, possessed an admirable talent for softening every harsh and disagreeable truth which might grate upon the ears and offend the taste of his sensitive countrymen. Mr. Brandes, being a man of sterner mettle, and having a broader and more comprehensive mind, knows no such considerations, and consequently his situation in Denmark has hitherto been anything but enviable. If, impelled by revolutionary ardor, he has perhaps at times gone further in his disregard of national prejudice than prudence and conscience strictly demanded, the fact still remains that he has done some excellent work and been of incalculable service to his country.

To make the intellectual results of the nineteenth century accessible and fruitful to his nation, to transfuse its progressive spirit into Scandinavian thought and literature, is the æsthetic mission of Mr. Brandes. His previous writings, the bulk of which prevents us from giving them the attention here which they so amply deserve, all deal with certain phases of intellectual life which until his day have remained comparatively unknown to the extreme North. The present volumes, one of which reviews the Emigrant Literature of France, while the other most entertainingly discourses about the Romantic School in Germany, are obviously part of the same preconceived programme, the scope and purpose of which we have indicated.

For clearness and brilliancy of style, wealth of striking metaphors, and dramatic swiftness of thought, we know of no living critic who surpasses, or even rivals, Mr. Brandes, except M. Taine, whose disciple he freely acknowledges himself to be. His diction, which literally bristles with epigrams and sparkling antitheses, is, however, liable to the same charge as that of his master. It seems to exist principally for its own sake, because it is brilliant, and is not properly subordinate to the thought which it is intended to embody. This, to be sure, is a fault which by many readers would rather be deemed a merit, and we should not have taken it into account if it did not naturally lead to another and graver error, from which the volume on the Romantic School is not altogether free. The author there occasionally sacrifices some measure of truth where the exact fact does not suit the requirements of the antithetical phrase. Where a pet theory is at stake, it is only natural that M. Taine's pupil consents to even greater sacrifices. It is difficult to forgive him when, for instance, to prove the immorality of the life in Weimar, he throws an unwarranted suspicion upon Schiller's spotless memory. We, at least, have failed to find any evidence that Caroline von Wolzogen was Schiller's mistress ; neither do we believe that there is any worthy of that name to be found. Again, the harper in Wilhelm Meister does tell his tale before he dies; and it is probably a mere *lapsus linguæ* when Mr. Brandes calls Heinrich von Ofterdingen a Meistersänger instead of a Minnesinger.

But it is a thankless task to unearth the minor faults of a work which on every page bears evidence of true genius, and the merits of which so far outweigh its deficiencies. The author's acuteness of insight, his great command of illustrative facts, and his broad sweep of vision over the entire historic field of culture, place the present volumes far above anything which the Scandinavian nations have hitherto produced in this department of literature.

*Prepayment of Postage on the NATION to Subscribers being compulsory after January 1, 1875, the subscription price for a full year will be $5 20 (Clergymen $4 20); or the paper will be sent for 50 weeks for $5 (Clergymen $4).*


BOOKS PUBLISHED IN 1874

BY

*Henry Holt & Co.,*

25 BOND STREET, NEW YORK.

*ADAMS (C. K.) DEMOCRACY AND* Monarchy in France. From the inception of the Great Revolution to the overthrow of the Second Empire. Large 12mo, $2 50.

*ABOUT. THE NOTARY'S NOSE.* 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*ALEXANDER (MRS.) WHICH* Shall it Be? 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*AUERBACH. WALDFRIED* (a novel). Translated by Simon Adler Stern. 12mo, $2.

*ALCESTIS* (a novel). 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*CHESNEY (C. C.) ESSAYS IN* Military Biography. Large 12mo, $2 50.

*CHERBULIEZ. PROSPER* (a novel). Translated by Carl Benson. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*CHORLEY'S RECENT ART AND* Society, as described in the Autobiography and Memoirs of Henry Fothergill Chorley. Uniform with 'Recent Music and Musicians.' $2.

*CONWAY'S THE SACRED AN-* thology. A book of Ethnical Scriptures. Collected and edited by M. D. Conway. 8vo, $4.

*CONWAY'S THE EARTHWARD* Pilgrimage. 12mo, $1 75.

*DEUTSCH. LITERARY RE-* mains. 8vo, $4.

*ESSAYS AND REVIEWS.* Large 12mo, $2 50.

*FREEMAN'S (E. A.) HISTORI-* cal Course for Schools. Vol. 3. History of Scotland. By Miss MacArthur. 16mo, $1. Vol. 4. History of Italy. By Rev. W. Hunt, M.A. 16mo, $1. Vol. 5. History of Germany. By James Sime. 16mo, $1.

*GAUTIER (T.) A WINTER IN* Russia. Translated from the French by Miss M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*HARDY, THOMAS. DESPERATE* Remedies (a novel). 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE MAD-* ding Crowd. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*JENKIN (MRS. C.) JUPITER'S* Daughters. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*MAINE (H. S.) ANCIENT LAW.* Its Connections with the Early History of Society, and its Relation to Modern Ideas. Large 12mo, $2 50.

*MILL (J. S.) THREE ESSAYS ON* Religion. 12mo, $2 50.

*OTTO (DR. EMIL). FIRST GER-* man Book for Young Pupils. 16mo, 40 cents.

*RICHARDSON'S CLARISSA HAR-* lowe. 16mo, $1 25.

*STILLMAN (W. J.) THE CRETAN* Insurrection of 1866–7–8. 12mo, $1 50.

*SUMNER (W. G.) HISTORY OF* American Currency. With chapters on the English Bank Restriction and Austrian Paper Money. Large 12mo, with diagrams, $3.

*TURGENIEFF (IVAN). SPRING* Floods and A Lear of the Steppe. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*VERS DE SOCIETE.* By Locker, Dobson, Calverley, Landor, Hunt, Thackeray, and others. Quarto, $7 50.

*WILEY (CHAS.) THE ORDO SE-* ries of Classics. I. Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War. 12mo, $1 25. II. Select Orations of M. T. Cicero. 12mo, $1 50. III. Virgil's Æneid. 12mo, $1 75.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

*For Macmillan & Co.'s advertisements, see pages 16 and iii.*

*The Four Gospels.*

With 132 Full-Page Steel Etchings.

By M. BIDA.

Messrs. Cassell, Petter & Galpin have the honor to announce that they will issue in America the English edition of the above magnificent work. It will be published by subscription only, in parts and volumes, and is now ready for issue.

The work has been produced at an outlay of more than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The N. Y. *Times* says of it: "There have been no such illustrations to the Bible until now. . . . We earnestly advise our readers to become acquainted with them for themselves."

Prospectuses on application to 596 Broadway, New York, where specimens may be seen and subscriptions registered.

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN,
596 Broadway, New York.

JUST PUBLISHED.

A NEW AND REVISED EDITION

OF

## *Dana's Text-Book of Geology*

*FOR SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES.*

By Prof. James D. Dana, LL.D., of Yale College. Cloth. 358 pages, and more than 400 illustrations. Price $2.

By mail to teachers, for examination with a view to introduction, on receipt of $1 50.

This edition has been rewritten and changed throughout, so as to make it conform in all respects to the new edition of the Manual, and the arrangement of the larger work has been retained.

---

*ROBINSON'S JUNIOR CLASS* Arithmetic. Oral and Written. For Graded and Evening Schools. By Daniel W. Fish, M.A. 318 pages. Numerously illustrated with appropriate designs. Price 80 cents.

☞ By mail to teachers, for examination with a view to introduction, on receipt of 50 cents.

*THEORY OF PENMANSHIP.*

For Schools and Private Learners. Developed by Questions and Answers, with practical illustrations, and designed to be studied in connection with the use of the Spencerian Copy-books. By 'The Spencerian Authors.' Price 50 cents; by mail on receipt of the same.

*THE COMBINATION SPELLER.*

A Scientific Development of English Orthography and Orthoëpy, by a full analysis of the sounds of the language and adaptation of the alphabet to a phonetic basis, together with rules for spelling, the meaning of prefixes and suffixes, the use of words likely to be confounded, etc. Conformed chiefly to Webster's Dictionary. By James W. Shearer. 168 pages. Price 30 cents.

☞ By mail, on receipt of 15 cents, if desired for examination with a view to introduction.

*MILITARY LESSONS.* For military schools, colleges, and militia. With numerous diagrams. By Prof. W. T. Welcker, Professor of Mathematics and Chief of Military Instruction in University of California. Flexible cloth. 175 pages. Price 75 cents.

☞ By mail, on receipt of 50 cents, if desired for examination with a view to introduction.

*PROGRESSIVE MUSIC LESSONS.*

A course of instruction prepared for the use of public schools. (Revised from 'First Steps in Music.') Book second. By Geo. B. Loomis. Boards, 78 pages. Price 25 cents.

☞ By mail, on receipt of 15 cents, if desired for examination with a view to introduction.

---

*THE EDUCATIONAL REPORTER* for January, full of interesting and valuable educational information, will be sent to teachers and educationists without charge on application.

IVISON, BLAKEMAN, TAYLOR & CO.,

EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHERS,

Nos. 138 and 140 Grand Street, New York.

---

*HOLDEN WITH THE CORDS.*

By the author of 'Shiloh.' 12mo. 517 pp. $2.

"A good story, and well worth perusal. The plot is exceedingly clever, and the characters are well conceived."—*N. Y. Evening Post.*

"Mrs. Jay is a writer of a great deal of natural power, and of a good deal of originality; and her forte lies in her management of the development of her plot, which she succeeds in keeping interesting with all its intricacy."—*The Nation.*

Sent by mail, postage paid, on receipt of price.

---

E. P. DUTTON & CO., PUBLISHERS,

713 Broadway, New York.

---

## *1875.*

## *Messrs. Roberts Bros.*

WILL PUBLISH IMMEDIATELY:

I.

*EZRA STYLES GANNETT.* His Life. By his son, Rev. W. C. Gannett. With Illustrations. 8vo, price $3.

II.

*SUPERNATURAL RELIGION:* An Enquiry into the Reality of Divine Revelation. Fifth edition. 2 vols. 8vo, price $8.

This is the Fifth London Edition of a remarkable work, which has created as profound a sensation as did 'Ecce Homo' some years since.

III.

*SOCIAL PRESSURE.* By Sir Arthur Helps, K.C.B., author of 'Friends in Council.' 12mo price $2.

"The deliberations of the 'Friends in Council' are always interesting, and this fresh instalment of the decisions of the conclave will be especially welcome to thoughtful students of the social problems of the day; since, besides discussions on lighter subjects, such as 'the abuse of ridicule,' the 'art of leaving off,' 'looking back upon life,' and a hundred other topics, delicately and wittily treated, Sir Arthur Helps deals in this series with some important questions of administrative detail."

IV.

*RECOLLECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS* of Public Life, 1813–1873. By John Earl Russell, K.G. 8vo, price $3.

V.

*HARRY BLOUNT.* Passages in a Boy's Life on Land and Sea. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton, author of 'The Intellectual Life,' etc. 16mo, price $1 50.

VI.

*A RAMBLING STORY.* By Mary Cowden Clarke, author of 'The Iron Cousin,' 'Concordance to Shakspeare,' etc. 16mo, price $1 50.

"The story is nicely told, and will please those who like their novels to be pretty full of exciting incidents, to give no trouble of thinking, and to end with the triumph of the good characters and the discomfiture of the bad characters."—*London Athenæum.*

VII.

*OUR SKETCHING-CLUB:* Letters and Studies on Landscape Art. By the Rev. R. St. John Tyrwhitt. With an Authorized Reproduction of the Lessons and Woodcuts in Professor Ruskin's 'Elements of Drawing.' Crown 8vo, cloth, price $2 50.

---

If you cannot find these books at your bookseller's, send the advertised amount directly to the publishers, No. 143 Washington Street, Boston.

ROBERTS BROTHERS.

---

*THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.*

A few views (by the autotype process) of the principal monuments of the Acropolis. Remarkably fine. Size, 15⅜ x 19¾. Unmounted. Price $5 each. Address Publisher of the *Nation.*

---

## *The Life of Christ.*

By the Rev. F. W. Farrar, D.D., F.R.S.

Two volumes 8vo, cloth, $7; Turkey morocco, $15.

"Great ability, ripe literary skill, graphic descriptive powers, and a fine spiritual insight, are conspicuous in every chapter, and, taken altogether, it is the most marked of all the many attempts in our day to present to us the human life of the Saviour of mankind."—*International Review.*

☞ Sent by mail, postage paid, on receipt of price.

E. P. DUTTON & CO.,

713 Broadway, New York.

---

## *The Academy.*

A WEEKLY REVIEW

OF

LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

---

"You should read the *Academy* and the *Portfolio;* the *Academy* is the best thing there is."—*Cornhill Magazine for December*, p. 719.

The ACADEMY has engaged competent correspondents at NEW YORK, BOSTON, WASHINGTON, and SAN FRANCISCO, who report on all the important American work in Literature, Art, Travel, Physical Science, more fully than is done in any other English journal.

The Secretary proposes to visit the United States in 1875, for the purpose of establishing Agencies in all the important cities of the American Republic. When this is done, the *Academy* will be the leading international literary organ of the English-speaking public throughout the world.

Price 4d.; free by post, 5d.; subscription, six months, 10s. 10d.; twelve months, £1 1s. 8d.; or by order of

Messrs. WILLMER & ROGERS, New York.

---

Published by W. G. SMITH,

43 Wellington Street, Strand, London.

---

Published this day.

THE

## *American Law Review,*

FOR JANUARY, 1875.

VOL. IX. NO. 2.

*CONTENTS:*

The Proposed Codification and Reform of the International Law.—The Potter Act at Washington.—Authors' Rights before Publication.—The Representation of Manuscript Plays.—Title by Estoppel.—Digest of the English Law Reports.—Selected Digest of State Reports.—Book Notices.—List of Law Books published in England and America since October, 1874.—Summary of Events.

TERMS:

| | |
|---|---|
| Price of Annual Subscription, | $5 00 |
| Single Numbers, | 1 25 |
| Vols. I.–VII., law sheep, each, | 6 00 |

---

LITTLE, BROWN & CO.,

PUBLISHERS,

110 Washington Street, Boston.

---

TURNER.

*CATALOGUE OF THE PLATES*

OF

TURNER'S LIBER STUDIORUM.

With an Introduction and Notes by Charles Eliot Norton, who has incorporated extracts from Ruskin's celebrated criticisms on Turner. With Heliotype facsimiles of three Etchings. 4to, $1 50. Smaller edition, without Heliotypes, 50 cents.

---

For sale, and sent, post-paid, on receip of price by

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO BOSTON.

# MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.'S PAGE.

## NEW BOOKS.

*MILTON'S POETICAL WORKS.* Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and an Essay on Milton's English, by David Masson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh. With three Portraits engraved on Steel by C H. Jeens and Radclyffe. 3 vols. 8vo, cloth, elegant, $15.

"This edition of Milton's works is undoubtedly destined to supersede all others."—*N. Y. Times.*

*MILTON'S POETICAL WORKS.* (Golden Treasury Edition.) With Introductions, Notes, and Memoir. By Professor Masson. With two Portraits Engraved by Jeens. 2 vols. 18mo, $3.

*SOCIAL LIFE IN GREECE.* From Homer to Menander. By the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Crown 8vo, $2.

An attempt to give an idea based on contemporary evidence of the social aspect of old Greek life, not dwelling merely on their manners and customs, but endeavoring to express the feelings of the Greek themselves about them. In short, it is the subjective, not the objective side which Mr. Mahaffy means to illustrate.

*THE EXTANT ODES OF PINDAR.* Translated into English, with an Introduction and short Notes, by Ernest Myers, M.A., Fellow of Wadham College, Oxford, and of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law. Crown 8vo, $1 50.

*TALES IN POLITICAL ECONOMY.* By Millicent Garrett Fawcett, author of 'Political Economy for Beginners.' Globe 8vo, $1.

Mrs. Fawcett's idea, in her own words, is to "hide the powder of Political Economy in the Raspberry Jam of a story."

*CHRIST AND OTHER MASTERS.* A Historical Enquiry into some of the Chief Parallelisms and Contrasts between Christianity and other Religious Systems of the Ancient World. By the Venerable Archdeacon Hardwick. Edited, with Memoir, by the Rev. F. Proctor, M.A. Third and Cheaper Edition, in one volume, crown 8vo, $3.

*THE ELEMENTS OF THE PSYCHOLOGY OF COGNITION.* By Robert Jardine, B.D., D.L., Principal of the General Assembly's College, Calcutta, and Fellow of the University of Calcutta. Crown 8vo, $2.

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo.

[*Immediately.*

*THE ELEMENTS OF EMBRYOLOGY.* By M. Foster, M.D., F.R.S., and F. M. Balfour, B.A. With numerous Illustrations. Part I. Crown 8vo, $2 25.

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.* By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. Crown 8vo, with Genealogical and Chronological Tables and Colored Maps, $3.

"It stands alone as the one general history of the country for the sake of which all others, if young and old are wise, will be speedily and surely set aside. It is perhaps the highest praise that can be given to it that it is impossible to discover whether it was intended for the young or the old. The size and general look of the book, its vividness of narration, and its avoidance of abstruse argument, would place it among school books. But its fresh and original views and its general historical power are only to be appreciated by those who have tried their own hands at writing history and who know the enormous difficulties of the task."—*Academy.*

*A RAMBLE ROUND THE WORLD.* By M. le Baron de Hübner, formerly Ambassador and Minister, and author of 'Sixte Quint.' 12mo, cloth extra, $2 50.

"We do not hesitate to say that 'A Ramble Round the World is the most interesting book of its class produced in the last ten years. . . . The narrative of the author's travels through Japan and China is one of unbroken interest; there is not a page in it which the intelligent reader would willingly omit. All phases of society are reported after careful observation; the politics, religion, manners, and customs of each nation are exhibited with a sharp distinctness that we have never seen equalled in a work of this kind. As a whole the book is thoroughly satisfying, and we commend it confidently to those who enjoy a narrative of travels at once substantial with information, and pleasing with the wit and wisdom of a shrewd observer and with the art of a skilled narrator."—*The Literary World.*

*BIRDS: THEIR CAGES AND their Keep.* Being a Practical Manual of Bird Keeping and Bird Rearing. By K. A. Buist. With colored Frontispiece and other Illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*FOR THE KING'S DUES.* A New Novel. By Agnes Macdonnell, author of 'Martin's Vineyard.' 12mo, paper, $1.

"There is a certain freshness and sparkle about this book which is due to a considerable degree to the choice of period and place which is a little out of the beaten track of novelists. The various parts are sustained by characters of much force and distinctness."—*Athenæum.*

## CLARENDON PRESS BOOKS.

*MILTON. AREOPAGITICA.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by J. W. Hales, M.A. Extra, fcp. 8vo, $1 25.

*SHAKESPEARE'S TEMPEST.* Edited with Introduction and Notes. By W. Aldis Wright. Extra fcp. 8vo, 75 cts.

*AN ELEMENTARY LATIN* Grammar. By J. B. Allen, M.A., Master of the Birmingham and Edgbaston Proprietary School. Extra fcp. 8vo, $1 25.

*A FIRST LATIN READER.* By T. J. Nunns, M.A. Extra fcp. 8vo, $1.

*LIVY.* Books I.–X. With Introduction, Historical Examination and Notes. By J. R. Seeley, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History, Cambridge. Book I. Second Edition. 8vo, $2 50.

## THE READER.

### *PROFESSOR MASSON'S EDITION OF MILTON.*

The importance, in merely a philological view, of Milton's Poems to the language, makes it truly desirable that they should be well and searchingly edited. In the absence of an academy, for the sifting and fixing of English definitions according to their nicer values, there is nothing to prevent the national tongue from sweeping on to wider and wider change but our great literary monuments, such as Chaucer's works, the Bible version, Shakspere's plays, and the "Paradise Lost." Among these, from various considerations of scholarship and intellectual influence, Milton's poetry remains paramount, and is indeed one of the great terminal pillars of English grammar. Recognizing that the Miltonic Poems have this, as well as almost every other kind of literary consequence, Professor David Masson, of Edinburgh University, has given the most elaborate care to the study of Milton's English, in the Editorial Essay, Notes, and Introduction to his recent edition of the Poems, published by Macmillan & Co.

Of what value the merely grammatical study of Milton may occasionally be is shown in the ease with which Prof. Masson decides on the claims of the elegy published in the papers, by Mr. Henry Morley, a few years back, as a recovered epitaph of Milton's. That a little poem, contained on a fly-leaf, should employ the neuter *its* four times, while the whole of the authentic poems of Milton use it three times, stamps the trifle as an effort of one of Milton's admirers, not of himself. The present editor, who has made Miltonic study the labor of many loving years, extracts all the philological value from Milton's English in a way that is exhaustive, and seems to leave nothing at all for future gleaners. In the matter of prosody, the feet, the breaks, the liberties and exceptions are so minutely computed and classified, that it would seem at first sight as if Milton's miracle of melody was reduced to an algebraic formula, which might be possessed by any modern poet. With so clean a besom does the present editor prepare the high-road to an appreciation of Milton as a standard of English.

His notes of criticism are more modest than might be wished, though he is frequently novel and forcible, as when he points out the strategic splendor of Satan's temptation of Christ (in the "Paradise Regained") in bidding him search out through the Parthian districts the remnants of the lost tribes, put there by Shalmanezer, and head a great Parthian revolt against Rome.

It is evidently not a want of ardent appreciation of the text, but a consummately delicate view of editorial function, that prevents Prof. Masson from expanding his critical remarks into admirable essays.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1875.*

## The Week.

GENERAL SHERIDAN seems on the whole to have been a singular person to select for the duty of pacifying a disturbed district or reconciling opposing political factions. He arrived in New Orleans on or about the 1st inst., and found himself at once in presence of a political problem of so much complexity that for over three years it has puzzled both the Government and the country, and has resisted several investigations. Nevertheless, on the 4th, or three days later, he had, although a cavalry officer who has passed most of his life in the field, mastered it sufficiently to recommend certain legislation about it to Congress, which he did promptly by telegraph, thus outdoing McClellan at Harrison's Landing in 1862, as the latter at least developed his views on the political situation in a written letter. General Sheridan, however, seems not to have been entirely sure of the necessity of waiting for legislation, for he suggested in the same despatch that the object in view might also be accomplished by a proclamation from the President. His plan consisted in declaring by a general act of attainder, or by proclamation of outlawry, a large and indefinite body of citizens to be "banditti," and handing them over to Sheridan himself, to be dealt with by military methods. We can recall no precedents in modern history for this scheme, except the letting loose of Claverhouse's dragoons on the Scotch Covenanters, and of Louis XIV.'s on the French Huguenots, and we can safely say, that at no time within the present century would a general in any country in Europe, except Russia, have dared to send such a despatch to his Government, or that, if he had, the Government would either have suppressed it, and privately rebuked him, or have published it, and openly punished him; and saying this, we bear in mind the Napoleonic decree of December 8, 1851, which made liable to seizure and banishment to Cayenne all persons who had ever belonged to secret societies. Our Secretary of War, however, warmly approved of it.

---

Sheridan's subsequent despatches are in keeping with the first one. In a report on the occurrences attending the attempt to organize the legislature on the 4th inst., and of which he had only hearsay information, he not only recites facts, but gives conclusions of law with an assurance worthy of Mr. O'Conor or Mr. Evarts. He decides off-hand that Mr. Wiltz's taking the chair was "an arbitrary and unlawful proceeding" and "revolutionary action," and that the address of the Radical members to the Governor, asking him to intervene, was "reasonable and in accordance with law"; and he justifies the compliance of the military commander with the Governor's request to furnish troops to take part in the organization of the legislature on the ground that somebody (we suppose the officer in question, he does not say who), "remembered a terrible massacre on the assembling of the Constitutional Convention in 1866 at the Mechanics' Institute," and "believed that the lives of the members of the legislature would be endangered in case an organization under the law was attempted." He decides, too, that the persons who were expelled from the floor "under directions from the Governor of the State," "had been illegally seated, and had no legal right to be there"; and he closes by pronouncing Wiltz, the speaker, "a usurper." According to these rulings, the Governor of any State has a right to call upon the Federal troops to occupy a State House in anticipation of the meeting of the legislature, and if the commanding officer can "remember" any riot or massacre as ever having occurred in the State capital or in the neighborhood, and "believes," or says he believes, there will be bloodshed, he is justified in sending soldiers into the House to determine the qualifications of the members.

Considering that it is a little over fourteen years since the outbreak of the war, it must be admitted, in view of the above, and of Mr. Boutwell's issues of paper-money, that we have got on pretty rapidly. At this pace, we shall probably see it maintained by the year 1890 that the President has the right to inflict capital punishment with his own hand on all persons whose behavior in his immediate view and presence leads him to believe they may subsequently become dangerous to the public peace. In fact, Sheridan's despatches about his own safety and "the impregnation of the air with assassination," down in Louisiana, recall the English traveller's story, that President Monroe wore his hair cut close to the skull during his term of office to protect him against being gouged. There are numerous stories, of which at this writing we are able to say no more than that they seem probable, that the Cabinet is divided in sentiment about the Louisiana affair, and that Secretaries Fish, Bristow, and Jewell disapprove of the use made of the troops in Louisiana; and we may add that, if this be true, the line of division lies just where we should, on general grounds, have expected it to lie. The President's course it would be difficult to predict. In fact, one of the great difficulties of this and all other embarrassing situations during the past two years, lies in the fact that the very obstinacy of temper which made him so formidable in the field, now, when combined with the self-confidence bred by his re-election and the flattery of his adherents, not only makes him impervious to public opinion, but makes all criticism of him seem an act of insolent hostility, to be punished or defied. The newspapers, too, which in this as in other free States are the only channels as yet provided through which public sentiment finds vent, he looks on very much as Prince Metternich looked on them, as pestilent nuisances, to be borne with if necessary, but not heeded. We cannot now recall any prediction of ours about his course which turned out false, and have never in the least shared the more extravagant anticipations of his enemies; and we cannot help believing that he will, with his growing infirmities of temper, give cause for a good deal of trouble and anxiety, in his character of "a plain, blunt man," or "a simple-minded, sagacious man," before his term of office expires.

---

One of the most striking features of these Louisiana troubles is the remarkably novel nature of the justifications and explanations brought forward by the President and his military advisers whenever they are accused of violating the Constitution and laws. The gist of the complaint made against them is that they have committed illegal acts, and to this they reply, not that the acts are legal, but in some one of the following ways: 1st. They say they would not have done them had not the persons whose persons or property they have wronged belonged to the class known as "ex-rebels," who, fifteen years ago, engaged in a "fratricidal war." 2d. They say that a general state of excitement and domestic violence exists, which cannot be quieted in any other way than by the commission of high crimes and misdemeanors. 3d. On being asked to point out some of the excitement, they generally produce a list of murders said to have been committed in remote districts and in former years by persons not connected in any way with the case in hand; the evidence of these murders generally being a statement by somebody or other that in certain parts of the country there prevails what General Sheridan calls a "standpoint" which "renders life insecure." 4th. They ask, if the people did not want to have the President commit unlawful and unconstitutional acts upon them, why did they "call him in"? 5th. On being reminded that, in the first instance, the people of Louisiana did not "call him in" at all, but that he called himself in, and with a number of soldiers has kept himself in ever since by main force, they say that this was done because Louisiana was not

reconstructed. 6th. On being reminded that all the other States are reconstructed, and that this is a question between Congress and the State, they say "that is very true; that is just what they have maintained all along." General Sheridan is now understood to be at work upon a list of murders.

The meeting at the Cooper Institute on Monday evening to protest against the interference in Louisiana was large and enthusiastic—or, to put it more accurately, indignant. The speeches, dealing as they necessarily did with a long history of facts difficult to follow, were of a grave character, and the tone of the meeting was more serious and less emotional than a public political meeting is apt to be. The assemblage was rather Democratic than Republican—so far as the distinction of parties can be said now to exist in this city; that is to say, many of the men principally concerned in organizing it were known and are still known as Democrats. On the other hand, neither the temper of the crowded audience nor the tone of the speakers was partisan, and the resolutions adopted were confined to a single point—the illegal acts complained of. A meeting of the same kind, but still more Republican in complexion, will be held in Boston to-morrow night.

Since the holidays, Congress has been mainly occupied with the Louisiana case, and has not succeeded in accomplishing much business. On Tuesday of last week, in the Senate, Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, introduced a resolution calling on the President for information as to the interference by the United States army in the organization of the Louisiana Legislature, which led to a protracted debate, Mr. Conkling, on behalf of the Republicans, insisting on the adoption of an amendment, to the effect that the President should furnish the information "if in his judgment it is not incompatible with the public interest." On Friday, Mr. Schurz submitted a resolution of enquiry concerning the legislation necessary to secure self-government for Louisiana, and on Monday supported it in one of his incomparable speeches, perhaps the last great effort of his Congressional career, and in all respects a fitting termination of it. In the House the members occupied themselves on Wednesday with Louisiana, and Irwin was arraigned for contempt, and, still refusing to answer the questions addressed to him, was remanded for custody to the common jail. The next day the Senate Finance Bill passed the House under the previous question by a vote of 136 to 98. Mr. Maynard, who had charge of the bill, was accused, apparently with reason, of treachery to the other members of the Banking and Currency Committee. On the same day, the resolutions of impeachment in the case of Durell and Busteed were laid on the table, and General Butler introduced a bill providing for a new election in Louisiana under the auspices of the Federal Government.

The Pacific Mail enquiry still goes on, and, notwithstanding Irwin's refusal to testify, some interesting though not surprising facts have been brought out. Mr. R. C. Parsons has acknowledged the receipt of some thirteen or fourteen thousand dollars, which were paid him, he says, for legal services, the examination of statistics, and arguments. Mr. Schumaker, who declares his services to have been of a legal character, has given an account of his two hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars, and has confused matters and blackened his own character by his unintelligible explanation. $50,000 of it he paid to a certain General Smith, and almost all the rest of it he said he returned to the Company. The great event of the week, however, among the lobbyists, who take a keen and increasing interest in the investigation, has been the refusal of one Abert to tell what he did with some $100,000 paid to him by Irwin. He fortified his refusal with an opinion of Reverdy Johnson's, to the effect that, being a lawyer, he had no right to disclose the confidential communications of his client Irwin. The confidential communications which he felt a delicacy about revealing were in reality the names of the persons to whom Irwin had told him to pay the money, and the professional stand taken by Mr. Abert no doubt filled certain gentlemen in Washington with a pleasure almost as great as, and at the same time less selfish than, the satisfaction they manifested a few days before on learning that "old Bill King had been smoked out at last." Indeed, Mr. Abert's position, if sustained, would have rendered it only necessary for any member of the lobby to be enrolled as a member of the bar to enable him to begin at once a career of unparalleled and unblushing corruption, without danger of any human accountability. But Abert, apparently feeling that prudence is the better part of honor as well as of valor, shortly afterwards gave the names to the House. According to this statement, he paid the money, in amounts varying from $500 to $25,000, to persons connected with the press, $45,000; ex-Postmaster General Randall, $5,500; R. C. Parsons, $1,500; ex-Mayor J. G. Berrett, "for himself and Sam. Ward," $7,000; O. J. Averill, ex-collector of internal revenue, $9,000; besides large sums to "operators," door-keepers, and so on. Mr. McFarland, a correspondent of the *Philadelphia Press*, received $25,000, but swears that he received it for and at once paid it to Col. Forney. The door-keepers have not yet been thoroughly examined.

The first messages of Mayor Wickham and Governor Tilden are refreshing documents, and the former had the advantage of appearing on the heels of the recent official action which had relieved the city of the services of some very worthless public servants, and therefore seems an earnest of more work of the same kind. The latest descent of Mr. Wickham has been upon Mr. E. Delafield Smith, the Corporation Counsel. Whether the technical ground on which the Mayor proposes to remove him—that he has been guilty of egregious failure to protect the city against the fraudulent claims by the proper legal means—is tenable, we do not profess to know, though we have our suspicions; but this we do know—that the bar of the city will breathe a sigh of relief when he is gone, and welcome with profound satisfaction the appointment of an honest, capable, and competent successor. In his message to the Common Council, the Mayor does a thing which we believe has not usually before been tried in communications of this kind, and it is an experiment which will turn out, even as a mere political device, highly successful—he tells the truth about the city. As to the finances, for example, he frankly states to the city legislature that neither he nor any one else knows the exact condition of affairs, and he also says that he considers this bad, and will do all in his power to put an end to it. He discusses all the subjects of which his message treats in a frank and decided way, which has won him already the substantial approval of the press and the public. Mr. Tilden's message is an able state-paper. He discusses among other things, with a peculiar fulness of information, the difficulties which in this and probably other States have attended all attempts to recover public money stolen under the forms of law by local public officers like Tweed. He points out that as the local officers who are entrusted with prosecuting the thieves generally or frequently do the thieving themselves, the prosecutions in such cases are not likely to be effective, and therefore suits against them ought to be maintainable on the general principles for equity jurisprudence by the State itself. The Court of Appeals has, in what we must say is a very extraordinary decision, held that such suits are not maintainable, and the legislature certainly ought to take some steps in the matter.

Mr. Albert Grant, or, as he is now called, "Baron Grant," under a German title, who is the London equivalent of Jay Gould, and the promoter of all sorts of companies on the London market whose stock is difficult to float, and was the principal engineer of the Emma Mine scheme, has come before the courts in a curious way. One Rubery, who planned the diamond swindle in California, got up a company in London to work the diamond fields. The enterprise was, however, severely denounced in the money article of the London *Times* by Mr. Sampson, for many yeaars and until very

recently the "city editor" of that paper. Rubery thereupon sued Mr. Sampson personally, and not the paper, for libel, and joined Baron Grant in the action, on the ground that it was he who had inspired the libels, and evidently relied on his threat of exposing the relations between Sampson and Grant to bring about a settlement without going into court. The two defendants stood fire, however, and the *Times* defended the suits. Rubery produced in court checks to the amount of $15,000 which Grant had at various times paid to Sampson, and which a clerk of the former had been bribed to steal, and Grant was forced on cross-examination to explain that the money had been paid to recoup Sampson's losses on the stock of various new companies in which Grant was in the habit of allotting him shares. The rule which governed their dealings was that if the shares thus allotted rose, Sampson pocketed the profit; if they fell, Grant paid him the amount of the loss. The affair has caused great scandal in "journalistic circles," and is a fresh illustration of the enormous difficulty of getting the money articles of a great newspaper honestly written by a man competent to write them. The temptations of the position seem to be more than the supply of virtue thus far found in the male sex of the Caucasian race is equal to.

---

One of the modes in which Rubery tried to bring Grant to terms was by threatening to send a telegram to each director of the Emma Mining Company, asking him "if he was aware that Albert Grant, late of the Crédit Foncier, was the moving spirit and chief partner in the Emma Mine, and that his connection therewith would be exposed on Monday?" and counsel declared in court that this threat was indictable, as an attempt to extort blackmail. Apropos of this low view of the Emma Mine, a Baltimore correspondent writes to us to say that there is a gentleman in that city "whose personal character, intelligence, property, and sources of information are such as to command respect and confidence for any statements he may make, and who asserts that General Schenck was never a director of the Emma Mining Co., and that he held no official relation to it whatever; that he was merely a stockholder, having purchased and paid for shares, for which he subscribed under representations made to him by parties who brought him introductions, and that he never was a willing party to any subsequent use of his name in connection with the Emma Mine; and that he was in fact a victim of and not in any sense a party to the swindle."

---

As this means that the *Nation* has gone on for two years denouncing General Schenck on charges which have not a particle of foundation, we shall now take leave to warn the citizens of Baltimore against the gentleman above-mentioned as a reckless and untrustworthy person, whose "intelligence and property," instead of doing him credit, ought to make him ashamed. The prospectus of the Emma Mining Co., which now lies before us, and which was published for many weeks in the London papers, contains the name of "Major-General Robert C. Schenck, United States Minister, London," in big letters in the list of directors. Worse still: the same name appears as that of one of the three "trustees" of the swindle. Moreover, when the London *Economist* and other English papers had commented in sharp terms on the scandal of a foreign Minister's allowing his name to be used in this way, General Schenck, *after the shares had, on the strength of his name, gone off in a few weeks*, resigned these two offices, in a letter which was printed in all the papers, in which he expressed strongly his continued confidence in the mine. Lastly, on being followed up by one of the stockholders, Mr. Paffard, who has published a pamphlet about the transaction, the General admitted to this gentleman that he had no money to pay for his shares himself, but had to borrow it from a friend; and we will add that the general belief in London is that the friend was one of the promoters of the mine, and that the stock was allotted to him on the same terms as those on which Baron Grant allotted stock to Mr. Sampson — in short, that the General has not lost one cent by the mine, while Grant, Park, Stewart & Co. have made millions.

---

Apropos of the controversy over the civil allegiance of Catholics which Mr. Gladstone raised, and which still rages, M. Emile de Laveleye, the well-known economist, publishes a letter in the London *Times* recalling a curious incident of recent modern history which well illustrates how completely the relations of the Catholic Church to the state are regulated by necessity—that is, they are everywhere and always, in spite of the lofty demeanor of the bishops, what the people of any particular state insist that they shall be—a fact which of itself goes far to justify Bismarck's crusade. In 1815, the King of Holland and Belgium gave his kingdom a constitution embodying the usual modern guarantees of freedom —amongst others, complete religious freedom, equal legal protection for all creeds, and equal eligibility of persons of all denominations to public office. The Catholic bishops of Belgium thereupon met and condemned the constitution in a "doctrinal judgment," and caused its rejection in the Assembly of Notables by 798 to 527. M. Laveleye reproduces this judgment textually, and in it the bishops declare that any person who took the oaths prescribed by the constitution would "commit a great crime, and betray the dearest interests of his religion," inasmuch as the articles guaranteeing religious liberty and offering equal protection to persons of all creeds, are really an offer to put truth and error on the same footing; inasmuch as the article making persons of all creeds eligible for all offices might result "in confiding the interests of the Catholic faith to Protestant functionaries"; and inasmuch as the article which provides that the King "should see to it that all denominations were kept in the obedience due to the laws of the kingdom," "was to give the sovereign the right of obliging the clergy and the faithful to obey all the laws of the state, of whatever nature they might be—that is, to render them liable to co-operate in the enslavement of the Catholic Church," and, in fact, "subject the spiritual to the caprices of the secular power." In 1830, after the revolt of the Belgian provinces from Holland, the Liberals carried a constitution containing all the features which the bishops found so objectionable in 1815, and then, as there was no other resource, the Pope discharged an encyclical letter at them. In short, the church puts up with modern ideas when it is compelled to do so by physical force, but not sooner or otherwise. It curses and struggles until the policeman arrives, and then submits and pretends that it always liked what it had been blaspheming.

---

On the 6th inst. President MacMahon sent a message to the Assembly, again urging Constitutional legislation, including provision for the creation of a Second Chamber, to which he attaches great importance, and for the maintenance of the Septennat in case of his own death before the expiration of his term of office, and suggesting that, when the Second Chamber was created, both could decide upon the form of government to succeed the Septennat. The ministers accordingly put the Constitutional bills on "the order of the day," and M. Batbie moved for the consideration of the Second Chamber Bill first, but his motion was defeated by a large majority, made up of all parties, though it was subsequently decided that the Constitutional bills together should come up for debate on Monday, the 11th. The Cabinet, however, took its defeat so much to heart that it resigned, and Marshal MacMahon refused to accept their resignation until he could form a new one, and asked the Duc de Broglie to undertake this task; and it was generally supposed in Paris that he would act on a dissolution programme. He has, however, informed the President that he cannot take office until the Constitutional bills have passed; pending this, the present Ministry remains in office, and it is believed that MacMahon himself will then press for a dissolution. Whether he can bring it about, however, is, as we intimated last week, very doubtful. The certainty that the larger portion of them would, in case of a dissolution, have to retire into private life, will of course exert a powerful influence on the sitting members.

## THE LAW AND THE FACTS IN LOUISIANA.

WE wish it were possible to discover some excuse, we will not say for the recent interference of the Federal troops with the organization of the legislature in Louisiana—of course subordinate military commanders are everywhere liable to make mistakes—but for the failure of the President and his Cabinet to telegraph prompt disavowal and rebuke of it as soon as the news reached them. But we have, after diligent search, been unable to light upon anything that can put a good face on it, and we propose now to lay before our readers what we honestly believe to be the pertinent facts of the case, without extenuation or malice. It is, in the first place, to be observed that the situation in Louisiana which led to the recent events cannot have taken the Government in Washington by surprise. The situation is in all essential features more than three years old. The character and relations of the principal actors in it have been long known. The liability, in particular, of the United States troops to be used for unlawful or improper purposes by one of the contending factions, is a fact which was brought home to the President in 1872. In that year, the Kellogg faction procured an order from a United States judge, and called on the Federal troops to execute it, and under it these troops took possession of the State House and organized the State legislature, admitting nobody to the Assembly but such persons as the United States Marshal pointed out. This order was examined by a committee of the Senate and pronounced "reprehensible and wholly void" on its face, and all the proceedings taken under it null and outrageous. Moreover, the impeachment of the judge who issued it was recommended by a committee of the House, and he resigned office to escape trial, and has lately in this city denounced his own acts himself and thrown the blame of them on "the politicians."

The President was, therefore, fully aware of the special dangers of the crisis at New Orleans, but seems to have taken no precautions against the repetition of the occurrences of 1872, and to have issued no fresh instructions to the military officers more exactly defining their duties. Accordingly, when the day came for the new legislature to meet, Kellogg seems to have been still under the impression that he could have the assistance of the troops in "controlling" it, as the politicians say, and the troops seem to have received no warning as to the nature and extent of their relations to him.

Now, it will not do to say that he or they supposed that the proclamation issued by the President on the 15th of September, directed against the persons who had overturned the Government by force of arms, was still in force. That proclamation was called forth by a state of things which had totally ceased to exist. The "domestic violence" which had justified it was at an end. Kellogg was again in possession of his government, and his officers again at their posts; an election had been held for the State officers; the lawful Returning Board had counted the votes; and the committee sent down by Congress was peaceably sitting in New Orleans enquiring into the political condition of the State, for the information of the United States legislature. There was no disturbance or disorder of any kind. Kellogg had made no fresh call for Federal aid, and the civil police were not resisted, and the courts were sitting, and the legislature which, and not the Governor—as Mr. Evarts forcibly pointed out at the meeting last Monday night—constitutes the State government, could be and was convened. In short, the state of things had all the marks and tokens of peace, as that term is used by the Constitution and the laws. If crime was rife, it was crime of a kind with which the State government is competent and bound to deal. Nevertheless, preparation was made for the meeting of the legislature by occupying the State House with Federal troops and preparing it for a siege, and the members actually entered it through lines of sentries.

Under these circumstances, the Returning Board, after two months' examination, made out a list of persons elected members of the General Assembly. Our belief is that that list was fraudulent, but for the purposes of this discussion we are willing to admit that it was honest and correct. We would warn the reader who has accompanied us thus far, however, against the supposition that there is anything novel or mysterious about this Board, or that there is anything in its functions which makes the organization of the legislature in Louisiana a process in any way peculiar, or takes it from under the ordinary rules of parliamentary law. The Returning Board differs in no essential point from the Board of State Canvassers in this State, except that it has the power of enquiry into the regularity of the election. It simply "canvasses and compiles" the statements of votes sent in by the Commissioners of Election, decides *primâ facie* who have been lawfully elected to the General Assembly, and makes out a list of them. At this point the Louisiana statute of 1872 does differ somewhat from our law. It provides that the Secretary of State shall transmit to the Clerk of the House of Representatives of the last legislature the list of persons so declared duly elected by the Board, and directs the Clerk to place the names of the persons so returned as elected on the roll of the House, and declares that "the representatives whose names have thus been placed on this roll, and none others, shall be competent to organize the House of Representatives." But a similar arrangement exists in Massachusetts, as well as in other States. In Massachusetts, the Secretary of State delivers a similar list to the Sergeant-at-Arms, who admits the persons named on it to the House, of course excluding all others, and they, and they only, are competent to organize the House, under the presidency of the senior member present.

Now, what rights usually enjoyed by legislatures in this country and in England under parliamentary law did this provision of the Louisiana statute take away from the Louisiana House of Representatives? None—absolutely none. Article 34 of the State constitution of 1868 provides in the usual form that "each House of the General Assembly shall judge of the qualification, election, *and return* of its members, but contested elections shall be determined in such manner as may be prescribed by law." Section 35 authorizes the House to "determine its rules of procedure, and punish members guilty of disorderly conduct." In other words, the constitution simply confirms the immemorial usage of parliamentary bodies, in according to the legislature the power absolutely necessary, as the experience of one thousand years has proved, to its dignity, its independence, and the proper discharge of its duties.

Perhaps, however, somebody will say, this power has been curtailed by the law above indicated prescribing "the manner of determining contested elections." Nothing of the kind. This law is to be found in Section 1,417 of the Revised Statutes of 1870, which provides "that, in all contested elections of the General Assembly, the power rests with each House to determine which of the parties is entitled to the seat, and to award it accordingly." To make assurance doubly sure, and to guard against all mistake, Section 1,386, prescribing the manner of contesting elections to administrative offices before the District Courts, declares "that nothing in the act contained shall be construed so as to take aught from the power given to each House of the General Assembly to be judges of the qualifications of its own members." Nor does the Act of 1872, creating the Returning Board, in any manner impair this right. Section 44, which defines the duty of the Board as to the list of members, expressly provides "that nothing in this act shall be construed to conflict with Article 34 of the Constitution."

It is therefore clear that the Louisiana Legislature stood, on the day of its meeting, in the position of Congress and all the other legislatures in the country. It was in full possession of the "ancient, natural, and undoubted privilege" of organizing itself in its own fashion, and deciding for this and all other purposes who were its members and who were not. The law ordained that only the persons named on the lists of the Returning Board should take part in the organization; but the execution of the law lay with the legislature itself. No power on earth was competent to superintend, revise, or check its proceedings. If, as the Radical members assert, there was unfairness in the election of the Speaker, it was a thing which has happened before, which will happen again, and for which, like any other fault or folly, there is no remedy beyond an appeal to

public opinion. If it had proved impossible to elect a Speaker, owing to the unnecessary turbulence or absence of members, it would have been a state of things, however discreditable, which has been witnessed in the Federal House of Representatives and in the General Court of Massachusetts for days and weeks together. If persons not qualified voted in the organization, it was to the House itself, after the organization, that complaint should have been made. The "petition" addressed by the Radical members to Kellogg was an absurd and ridiculous document, which that person had no more right to entertain or act on than the writer of these lines. No Governor or President has a right to have hand, act, or part in the organization of any legislative body, or in controlling or directing its proceedings. It is not amenable to him in any manner or form. If any one portion of a legislative body finds itself oppressed or outraged by another, it must, under the immemorial usage of civilized constitutional states, appeal to the honor, patriotism, and sense of justice of its opponents, and if this fails, if right and justice are sacrificed to party, there is, as Cushing finely says, "no alternative but to appeal to that tribunal which revises the decisions of all others—the tribunal of the future, eternally and everywhere sitting in judgment on the past, whose judges are the people, and whose judgments are recorded in public opinion." This is no rhetorical dictum or bit of Sentimentalist vapor. It is a doctrine which lies at the very foundations of free government; for if the legislature is not independent or irresponsible, the executive is or may quickly become a despotism. When Kellogg, therefore, presumed to act on the Radical petition, and called in the aid of the troops to enable him to coerce the majority of the members of the House, whether that majority was real or ostensible, he committed a high crime and misdemeanor, for which he ought to be punished. The notion which General Sheridan seems to entertain that the Governor's demand for Federal troops justified General de Trobriand's action in the House, may be put in the same category with the notion that American citizens can be outlawed by Executive proclamation.

As regards the proper mode of dealing with this question on the part of the public, it is difficult to know what to say. The Louisiana problem, in all its odious deformity, has now been before us for over three years, and if, during that period, there had been the slightest sign of a desire or intention on the part of either the President or the majority in Congress to set up an honest government for the good of the people of the State, we should counsel the greatest forbearance towards any mistakes the Administration or its agents might make—towards even such hideous mistakes as this last one. But, as every man at the North knows in his heart, the history of Federal interference in the affairs of the State is the history of the connivance of a great Government at the efforts of a small band of rascally adventurers to live by fraud, corruption, and intrigue. The first great scandal in the dismal tale—the abduction for twelve days, on board the United States revenue-cutter, of enough members of the State legislature to prevent the formation of a quorum, in 1872, by the Federal collector of the port, Casey, the President's brother-in law, was a fitting beginning of all that has since occurred; and that, like the latest outrage, passed without one word of rebuke from Washington. When we ask what the Republicans, either in or out of Congress, have done to put a stop to this shameless caricature on civilized government, the answer is—nothing, absolutely nothing. They have remained silent and often approving spectators, and now, when the climax has been capped, and the thing has become so bad that it is furnishing solid and valuable capital to the Democrats, good Republicans will not touch the matter because the Democrats are excited about it—under the argument *ab irâ infidelium*. So that it is very difficult to see how the reform is to be brought about, or why the firm of Kellogg, Packard, Casey & Co. should not carry on business in Louisiana for ever. The last few days have in fact furnished us with an astounding illustration of the extent to which the ignorance or indifference of large numbers of intelligent men has gone in matters pertaining to the very foundations of the Government, in the enquiries we hear on every side whether there may not be circumstances which justify a brigadier in going into a legislature and selecting for military arrest the persons whom he thinks ought not to be there. One might as well ask whether it might not be good practice for a doctor to make an incision in one of the valves of a patient's heart, and whether it would not be well to wait for the diagnosis before condemning the treatment.

As regards the people of Louisiana, we trust they will remember that the most effectual aid they can render to the right-minded men at the North in putting an end to the régime which has made their State the scandal and disgrace of constitutional government, is by maintaining perfect order. If they do this, their deliverance, though it may not come this winter, is sure to come before long.

## THE CONGRESS OF ST. PETERSBURG.

WITHIN the past two years, a movement has been set on foot among the philanthropists of Europe to make some changes in the customs and rules of war respecting the wounded and prisoners. Originating, or at least appearing to originate, in the voluntary action of private citizens, the reform was to be accomplished by diplomatic action and a general congress or treaty. Societies were formed to promote the measures, and they presented the matter to the different governments. Early in 1874, the Russian Government appeared as the special champion of the project; and from that time all the operations were carried on by it, as an avowed object of its policy, in which, however, it was aided from the outset by the co-operation of Germany. A circular letter was addressed by Russia to all the cabinets of Europe, inviting them to unite in a Congress at Brussels in July. In the published statements of the voluntary societies, and in the earliest Russian correspondence, the purpose announced was purely a humanitarian one, and was represented to be merely the adoption of rules which would ameliorate the condition of prisoners and the wounded. The governments very generally, if not universally, signified their intention of taking a part in the conference. In this position of the affair, Prince Gortchakoff sent a note to the Russian Ministers at the different courts, which, with most of the stock phrases of the Sentimental school—"the solidarity of the peoples," and the like—announced that the Russian cabinet had prepared "a project for an international code with the object of determining the laws and usages of war," which, however, "is only a starting-point for ulterior deliberations, and will, we trust, prepare the way for a general understanding." "The motive," he added, "by which it is inspired is one of humanity, which, we are convinced, will meet a general feeling, a general interest, and a general need." The contents of this proposed code, notwithstanding the humane motives to which its origin was ascribed, startled the European statesmen, and opened their eyes to the nature of the ulterior designs of the Russian Minister. Some of its provisions, as will be seen, would destroy at one blow the naval strength of maritime countries, and its effect as a whole would largely enhance the power of the great military empires. Earl Derby, in a despatch addressed to the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, and which was communicated to all the other cabinets, while expressing a willingness on the part of Great Britain to unite in any measures which would actually tend to mitigate the personal hardships of warfare, and especially in those which would alleviate the condition of prisoners and the wounded, refused in very plain though very polite terms "to enter into any discussion of the rules of international law by which the relations of belligerents are guided, or to undertake any new obligations or engagements of any kind in regard to general principles." In particular, he demanded from Russia, as well as from all the other nations which should take a part in the conference, that it "would not entertain in any shape, directly or indirectly, anything relating to maritime operations or naval warfare." This pledge was at once given by Prince Gortchakoff in the most positive terms, and he even went so far as to declare that, "in general, the recognized

principles of international law will not be entertained by us nor brought forward for discussion." Most of the other governments returned a similar answer to Lord Derby's demands, although Germany and Italy replied that they would follow Russia. How far Prince Gortchakoff was strictly accurate in his sweeping assertion that "the recognized principles of international law would not be brought forward for discussion," will be seen from a review of the code which he prepared and proposed to the Congress for its adoption.

With most of its details we have at present no concern, and shall only refer to those portions which define the general rights and powers of belligerents. Its central principle is contained in the declaration that "operations of war must be directed exclusively against the forces and the means of making war of the hostile state, and not against its subjects." In this doctrine is found the humanitarian coloring which has proved so attractive to kindly theorists, and which has under its thin veil hidden from them the real injustice and hard absolutism of the code as a whole. The notion that war will be humanized by making it a duel between professional combatants—so that the success will always depend upon the possession of the largest and best equipped and best trained armies, and not upon the free spirit and fortitude of an entire people—is a favorite one with publicists of the Sentimental school and with unreasoning philanthropists. That it is a mistaken notion is shown by the fact that the only governments and statesmen who urge its general acceptance are those who most rely for security at home and abroad on a vast standing military force. Those wily and far-seeing men—the Gortchakoffs and the Bismarcks—perceive that in reducing warfare to a contest between professional soldiers, they will destroy at once the reliance of constitutional states upon the free activity of their citizens; they will force all nations in self-defence to adopt the policy of vast standing armies and a thorough military organization of their people. In this manner, the theory of war, which on its surface appears to be so mild and humane, and which by such appearance secures the advocacy of many professional reformers, is contrived to undermine and overthrow political institutions based upon civil liberty, and to strengthen those which rest upon force. Even the claim of a superior humanity in this mode of warfare is wholly without foundation. Reduced to its lowest terms, it is simply this: To kill or wound *men* called soldiers is more humane than to take or destroy the property of persons who are not soldiers. In other words, the name and condition of "soldier" places the *man* in the scale of humanity beneath the goods of the merchant or the crops of the farmer. This is the conclusion to which the modern Sentimental theory inevitably carries us. It is impossible to escape it by any subterfuge of argument, or to obscure it by any cloud of words. John Stuart Mill stripped it of all verbiage and placed it in its naked absurdity by one expressive sentence: "How war is to be humanized by shooting at men's bodies instead of taking their goods, I confess surprises me."

Adopting this central notion of war confined to the actual combatants, the code, of course, professes to respect private property, and enacts that "troops should respect private property, and in no case destroy it without pressing necessity." The utter worthlessness of this general declaration is evident when we turn to other sections of the same chapters. In addition to a sweeping permission given to seize and destroy everything that is necessary to the enemy, or may add to their strength, or that may hinder its own success, an invading army is authorized to exact for its own use from the population all taxes and public dues of every kind, and all articles necessary for its maintenance; but in the last case, indemnity, *as far as possible*, must be given to the losers. Even money contributions may be levied in cases of necessity, or by way of penalty; but, unless imposed as a penalty, the sums thus taken "*may be liable to restitution.*"

Here, for the first time in the history of modern public law, the uncontrollable, absolute, arbitrary power of the commander-in-chief of an invading army is legalized and made to receive the sanction of all civilized nations. Granting that all these acts are constantly done in modern wars, they have been suffered rather than justified, and a strong public opinion might produce some mitigation of their severity. This code, however, places them beyond the reach of opinion by conferring upon them a formal and universal sanction. The pretence that any indemnity or restitution is secured is too shallow to call for a criticism. The same hostile power which imposes the burden is made the sole judge of its extent, and all remedy is thus rested upon the enemy's discretion. To call this a legal redress is a simple perversion of terms.

The real design of the code is shown most plainly, however, in those portions which define the relations of an invading army with the population of an occupied district or territory. Its commander may maintain, modify, or suspend the local laws; he may compel the local civil officials, whether administrative or judicial, to continue the full exercise of their functions, and to perform on oath all such duties as may be required of them, and those who refuse or neglect to perform these duties may be prosecuted judicially. All public property, including even buildings, and also all railways and their rolling-stock, although belonging to private companies, may be appropriated. Citizens are forbidden to offer any opposition to the invaders unless they are fully organized as a portion of the national forces, and the inhabitants of an occupied district are prohibited under any circumstances from taking arms against their enemy. The dread penalty for a violation of the rule in either case is "military justice." Finally, all individuals who at one time take a part in military operations and at another return to their peaceful occupations, are treated as without rights and subjected to the same swift and inexorable punishment.

These few sections, selected from many others setting forth the same doctrines, show the animus of the proposed legislation. Under the specious pretext of confining war to the professional soldiery, it lays the heaviest of burdens upon all private citizens. As soon as the district in which they reside is invaded, all their natural allegiance is ended, and they must fulfil all their civil functions and duties, private or official, for the benefit of the enemy. Resistance is made a crime, and every endeavor in aid of country and government is made to be a violation of the international law. In short, all reliance upon the spontaneous action of its own citizens is denied to every state, and if it would maintain its independence and be able to resist external attacks, it must be prepared with sufficient armies and military organization. It is thus that, through the means of a Congress assembled to consult upon the laws of war, Russia and Germany would impose their own theories of government upon the nations of Europe, and, by the introduction of standing armies and a military organization as a necessary means of self-preservation into every state, would destroy the possibility of free institutions and constitutional governments. The first Congress at Brussels failed to accomplish these designs, and it seems to be expected that the one to assemble at St. Petersburg will be more pliant.

## OLD CATHOLICISM IN SWITZERLAND.

GENEVA, December 8, 1874.

OUR little republic has just passed through a critical election. The announcement need not startle any one; for the canton of Geneva (to judge from more than a year's close observation) is generally either on the eve of a crisis, or at the turning-point of a crisis, or just rallying after a crisis. Such a perpetual raging of tempests as goes on in this "tumbler of water" may be imagined by those who can conceive of a state of society in which not only municipal and State elections, but Congressional and Presidential elections, come every year; and in addition constitutional revisions and amendments, cantonal and federal, are frequently submitted to universal suffrage, and the periodical election of Protestant and Catholic ministers by popular ballot adds a vivacity of its own to local and general politics. The issue on trial at the late election was a religious one. Most of the recent elections have turned on religious questions. The cry of the triumphant party—the Radicals—was "The application of the laws," meaning the crowding of the Roman Catholics to the wall. On the other side was a feeble and hopeless wail of "Let us alone!" "No more harassing legisla-

tion!" "Quit inventing and engineering new state churches, and attend to the affairs of this life for a while!" The more sober and temperate Protestants, the little company of the disciples of Father Hyacinthe, and (in self-defence) the Ultramontane Catholics, combined their strength in opposition to the Radical party. But the vote of the latter was an overwhelming majority. For a year to come, it is settled that the utmost power of the canton, unrestrained even by an effective minority in the legislative and executive councils, is to be applied to the worrying out of the Roman Catholic clergy and faithful.

It must be acknowledged that the affair begins now to take a form approximating persecution. When the law for the election of priests by their parishioners was applied in the city of Geneva and its larger suburbs, the free-thinking Catholics went in for liberty with a shout and a rush, and elected their liberal priests by a vote which proved that it was the wish of a large majority of the born-Catholic population to repudiate the Roman hierarchy. But when it comes to the application of the same law in the Catholic country parishes, it is a totally different matter. The old parish-priests can be turned out of their churches and parsonages by tendering them an "iron-clad" oath, which they cannot in conscience take; and by the same process all priests in good and regular standing with the Roman hierarchy can be made ineligible to the position. But the law requires that no election of curé shall be valid unless at least a quarter of the registered Catholic vote of the commune is actually cast, on one side or the other; and when, a few weeks since, an election for curé was held at the rural parish of Grand Saconnex, the villagers were able to defeat the choice of a liberal curé by simply staying at home. The number of persons who could be persuaded to vote at all fell far short of the requisite one-fourth. But the root-and-branch men, who have complete control of the affairs of the canton for another year, give notice that they do not mean that "the application of the laws" shall stop there. By hook or by crook—most likely by the latter—not only are the Ultramontane clergy to be dispossessed, but the churches, parsonages, and salaries are to be transferred to a new clergy, detested by their parishes, disowned by bishop and pope, but in full fellowship with M. Carteret and the rest of the Protestant council of state.

Meanwhile, the religious Protestants, a large proportion of whom considered the democratizing of the Catholic Church a clever stroke of politics, have been disgusted by an application of almost the same law, word for word, to the National Protestant Church. According to the new statute, the sole condition of becoming a pastor of the old church founded by John Calvin is to pass examination at the university, or give some equivalent proof of scholastic training, and then get a majority of the universal suffrage of the Protestant community. No ordination is required, there is no test of orthodoxy, there is no enforced liturgy nor catechism, and there is no limitation whatever on the subjects of which the preacher shall speak, nor on his manner of treating them. There is nothing to hinder a Jewish Rabbi from becoming a minister of the state church if he can get votes enough. In fact, I regard it as highly probable that the learned and eloquent Grand Rabbi Wertheimer may some time be invited to be one of the preachers from the old chair of John Calvin. Of course, all the old Protestants, of any earnestness of religious conviction, are getting ready to quit the church of their fathers, declaring that it has ceased to be a Christian church; and all persons of the slightest political forecast are looking for the speedy and complete dissolution of all connection between church and state. No sentiment is more sure to "bring down the house" at a popular religious assemblage, than a prediction of the early adoption of the American system in Geneva and in all Europe. I told Dr. Joseph P. Thompson the other day—whose useful little book on 'Church and State in America' is undoubtedly having an important influence on public opinion in Europe—that I was sorry it did not contain one candid chapter on the drawbacks and failures of the American system. He told me that the edition now preparing by that clever young statesman, the Marquis of Gonzaga, for circulation in Italy, would have such an addition. If these people will try our experiment, as I hope, we are bound to do what we can to save them from our mistakes and incidental evils.

Father Hyacinthe has at last organized his separatist worship, thus dividing the "National Catholic Church" of the city of Geneva. He announces, in a little manifesto, that as soon as the Liberal Catholics of Switzerland complete their organization by the choice and institution of a bishop, he shall tender his submission and obedience to the new prelate, *if*——.

On the whole, I am slowly and reluctantly making up my mind that this Old-Catholic movement is not going to have much of a future. Here, in this canton, it has had a noble, sincere, though not very sagacious leadership in its clergy, but a most scurvy though numerous following of small politicians, unscrupulous and irreligious. In the Bernese Jura there has been a sort of drumhead Reformation, under the main direction of M. Bodenheimer, Protestant Minister of Public Instruction. I will not deny that Bodenheimer is a pretty fair makeshift Catholic bishop, and has done the best in his power for his flock. But his best efforts to recruit a new clergy for his diocese of sixty-nine parishes, even with the most moderate regard for validity of ordination, have resulted in bringing together from the contiguous countries a scanty supply of men of doubtful quality. But these have, practically, no parishes. For it is a pretty well-established fact that the Liberal Catholic, although he will turn out with alacrity on election day to vote against the clergy, will not go to church except under stress of some unusual combination of motives; and, further, that the Liberal Catholic's wife and children will, generally, go to the Ultramontane worship unless he does something to stop them.

Further north, in German Switzerland, there does seem to be a somewhat greater depth and reality to the Old-Catholic movement; and if the scholar-like and pious Professor Herzog, of Olten, should really become the Swiss bishop, as is proposed, he will do much for the character and success of the movement. But the difficulty with it, both there and in Germany, is that it is a movement that does not move. It begins in the universities, and never travels far beyond them. Instead of pushing and propagating their principles, the Old Catholics are content with making their protest, demanding their rights, and waiting on Providence. Their feeling is profound and almost religiously earnest that there is no knowing what may turn up when the Pope dies. When the Pope dies. Have you ever thought professionally what a heading that would make for a magazine article; and what a good thing some bright fellow with a talent for vaticination might make of it? But meanwhile that aggravating old man shows no disposition to gratify the public interest as to what will come next; and some of the best of the Old Catholics, like Hyacinthe, are among those who pray most sincerely for the Pope's health and long life, saying that no one else could possibly help on their reform half so effectively as Pius the Ninth himself.

The new federal constitution, adopted this year, begins to take hold like a mustard-plaster. The whole character of the debates in the federal legislature has undergone a change in consequence of the effective transfer to it, from the cantons, of most of the chief functions of government. Instead of holding, as heretofore, far less proportionate authority than the Federal Government of the United States, the federal authorities at Berne now hold control of all civil law, all commercial law, all military and postal organization, leaving to the cantons nothing but a part of the penal legislation and an imperfect control of their own police. For three or four weeks past the main subject of study has been a bill for regulating marriages, funerals, and the registration of births and deaths. It seems strange to our notions of federal government to see the central authority busy in regulating the order in which the sexton shall dig the graves in a village burying-ground, and the conditions of the marriage contract, and who shall keep the parish register. But there is an explanation, if not a reason, for all this, in the excess of state-rights with which the people have been annoyed until now. The hindrances to marriage, and even to the decent burial of Protestants in Roman Catholic cantons, have been swept away, with the hearty consent of those cantons themselves, by turning the whole matter over to the federal authorities, who will regulate it in detail by a general law, doubtless excluding all the clergy from any official participation whatever in any civil transaction. And, when you once think of it, it is a fair question whether in the United States there is any point at which we really suffer more for lack of uniformity of law than in the matter of marriage, in which one State is at liberty, through bad legislation, to make itself a nuisance to all its neighbors. Too much State-rights, on a matter so vital to society, may sometimes bring us, as it seems to have brought the Swiss, to an excess of centralization. But what may be tolerable and even salutary in this little confederacy might be fatal to our great organism.

# Correspondence.

## MANUAL LABOR AT HAMPTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To the discussion of manual-labor systems which you notice in your issue of December 10, there is still something to be added; and a statement of the facts which prove, in opposition to the experience of Cornell University, that the manual labor of students can be made practically successful, may throw some light upon the conditions of such success. The

experiment which has been made in the Normal and Agricultural Institute at Hampton, Virginia, during the past six years, is of great practical value to the South, and should be of at least indirect interest to Northern educators; for it includes the severe test of a somewhat complicated manual-labor system, and the proof that such a system may be made a valuable adjunct to the resources of a college, a majority of whose students are impecunious. If manual labor is a failure at Cornell and a success at Hampton, it is certainly worth while to discover the reasons for these different results, in order to obtain data for future work and to avoid the costly repetition of demonstrated mistakes.

In your note upon the Cornell system, you mention some of the principal causes of its acknowledged failure, and these chance to be salient points of difference between it and the Hampton system, some being inherent and inevitable differences, while others are the accident of circumstance and surroundings. A primary difficulty at Cornell seems to have been that the system required of the students a "rare amount of constancy, fortitude, and self-restraint." Now, in Hampton, all the students are manual laborers, and the required constancy, fortitude, etc., being simply the habit of their lives, are not consciously elevated into the rank of virtues. The students are, furthermore, assisted by the knowledge that their work is educational, has results both in the present and the future, and directly affects their standing in the college. The demand which their work makes upon them is taken as a matter of course, and they are stimulated by understanding that they are ranked not only according to the spirit in which they deal with books, but also according to the spirit in which they deal with the appliances of physical labor. Their manual labor is made a necessary and an honorable thing. Then, too, the natural dislike to the coarser forms of work is met by putting the students, so far as possible, at work of which they can themselves see the value, work which teaches them something, whose completion leaves them wiser and more helpful, and whose connection with more highly developed forms of labor is evident.

Competition of course exists, and student labor, in order to be of substantial assistance to individuals, must, estimating it at its true value, necessarily be overpaid in comparison with current rates; but although this lessens the profits, it by no means annihilates them. At Hampton there is also the disadvantage (if it be a disadvantage), caused by the general stagnation of the South, of a glutted labor market. The college must perforce, at all times and seasons, provide its students with work, as there is absolutely no demand for their labor outside the college walls; but while this is a frequent cause of perplexity to the college officials, it undoubtedly affords protection to the students, by keeping them constantly under the beneficial control of college regulations.

The irregularity of students who are also manual laborers is an obstacle which remains always and everywhere insurmountable. The most that can be done is to transform it into organized irregularity, and make an allowance for it in the academic classes. In the Hampton system it has been found that by a careful arrangement of the working hours, thorough reviewing on the part of the teachers, and a good deal of personal pressure, the students can be saved from any essential loss. A student who spends one-quarter of his school hours in labor need not, by any means, lose the same amount of time in his studies. As to the complaint made in the Cornell report of the dishonesty of students, Hampton has a somewhat remarkable record to offer. During the past six years the officers have not discovered a single case of intentional misstatement in regard to labor performed, or any attempt to garble accounts. The negroes, finding themselves for the first time treated as trustworthy and responsible agents, develop a curiously strict sense of honor, which may or may not prove to be the result merely of their novel position. Their friends do not claim that this apparent trustworthiness is likely to be a permanent characteristic, but state the fact as they at present find it, for it to some extent simplifies the official machinery and is undoubtedly one of the factors in the problem.

The total amount expended in the payment of students (both male and female) during the past five years at Hampton, is something over $25,000, the rates being from five to eight cents per hour for agricultural and household labor, and from ten to twelve cents for mechanical; and it is noticeable that, instead of the falling-off experienced at Cornell, the Hampton books show a steady increase of from $3,833 in 1870 to $6,270 in 1874. In short, the manual-labor system has thus far worked so well at Hampton that the authorities of the Institute do not hesitate to hazard the opinion that, given a class of students of whom a large proportion have felt the pressure of poverty, and know the value of their opportunity, manual labor, under ordinary conditions, can be made in every sense profitable.

M. F. A.

New York, December 26, 1874.

## BISMARCK'S HUMANITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to call your attention to an error in the letter of your Paris correspondent which was published in last week's *Nation*. Bismarck did not write, while speaking of the drama of the Commune: "A thing which I do not desire *for humanity's sake*." His exact words were: "Was ich aus *menschlichem* Interesse nicht wünschen will." *Menschlich* here means humane, and Bismarck means to say: his own humane feelings, his humaneness, does not allow him to wish for a repetition of those horrid events, even if it would be desirable from a political point of view. Your correspondent, therefore, would not have had any reason at all to *shudder* at Bismarck's atrocious hatred of the French nation, if he had understood the true meaning of Bismarck's words.

I am sure your well-known sense of justice will not allow you to leave the American people laboring under the wrong impression of Bismarck's character which such an interpretation of his words as that of your correspondent must necessarily have produced.—Very respectfully yours,

Edw. Althaus.

110 East Twenty seventh St., New York, Jan. 10, 1875.

# Notes.

THE American reprint of Livingstone's 'Last Journals' will be by Harper & Bros.——D. Appleton & Co. have reprinted in full the Greville Memoirs.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. secure Mr. George Smith's account of his recent discoveries at Nineveh.——G. P. Putnam's Sons publish James Martineau's 'Religion as Affected by Modern Materialism.'——Roberts Bros.' list for the coming season includes one American book—Rev. W. C. Gannett's life of his father, the late Dr. Ezra Styles Gannett; and the following authorized reprints: Earl Russell's 'Recollections and Suggestions of Public Life (1813–1873)'; Helps's 'Social Pressure'; 'Our Sketching Club,' by R. St. John Tyrwhitt; a boys' story, 'Harry Blount,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton; and 'A Rambling Story,' by Mary Cowden Clarke.——No. I. of the natural-history publications of the U. S. Northern Boundary Commission is on the Muridæ, by Dr. Elliott Coues, U.S.A. ——The '*Tribune* Almanac' for 1875 is as usual full of political statistics convenient for editors and voters, while the farmer may profit by the tables of trade and commerce, of canal and railroad transportation, and of the wheat market of the world. Misbehaving Senators and Representatives find here their shabby record as to "six important financial propositions involving the question of inflation"; and the slipshod legislation of the last session is summarized or given at length.——Berlin has reached that stage of metropolitan growth where the peculiar pabulum known as an "American" newspaper seems a necessity. The *International Gazette* has been endeavoring for months to supply the supposed need. It is said to have met with some success in obtaining circulation among settled Americans. The numbers we have seen do not indicate any intention to rival the *Anglo-American Times*, or even, which is saying a good deal, to equal the *American Register* of Paris. Of course, *Galignani* is, without doubt, the best English paper on the Continent, but it pretends to no independent existence. The *Anglo-American Times*, of London, has long been the best publication intended to meet the wants of Americans travelling or sojourning abroad. From this to the *Register* (despite some improvement the last year or two) and the *Swiss Times* the gap is huge. We are speaking only of the literary merits of these papers. The advertisements and purely local information or "hints" have in each a special value of their own.

—The accounts given by the newspapers of the new kind of volunteer winter Commencement held at the Academy of Music last Thursday evening, differ in some respects. According to the *Tribune*, "the first intercollegiate contest, whether considered with reference to the ability of the work which it evoked, or the character and numbers of the audience gathered to witness it, or the enthusiasm which was displayed, proved a much more marked and significant success than even the best friends of the undertaking had anticipated." The *Herald*, on the other hand, dismissed the subject with a good deal of hauteur, declaring that "the whole thing" was "a dreary exhibition of mediocrity," maintaining that the young men would have been better employed elsewhere, and that "even the winner of the first prize in oratory only won because he forgot himself, and was natural in his delivery during a part of his speech." In his description of the evening's entertainment, too, the *Herald's* commissioner gives evidence of a praiseworthy but excessive tendency to set up a high standard for the estimation of literary performances of this kind, expressing

grave doubts whether good reason can be assigned why, on the evening of the seventh of January, in the year of grace 1875, an audience should be assembled in the principal opera-house of the country to hear one young gentleman of tender age discoursing upon "Independent Thought," or another telling the tale of "The Good King of the North," or a third analyzing "The St. Simeon Stylites of To-day." We are inclined to fear that if this keen and searching kind of criticism were brought to bear even upon the midsummer and orthodox commencements, they would hardly be found to bear the test, and, after all, the principal difference between a commencement of the old and of this new kind is probably that one is a college exercise, properly so-called, with a merely local public to encourage the contestants, while this gives to literary intercollegiate rivalry the same kind of glare of general publicity which boating secures for the athletic interest in the summer.

—We may, however, be allowed, "without seeming invidious," as the reporters say, to give one powerful reason why literary intercollegiate rivalry can never have the interest which attaches to the boat-races, viz., that the boats are pulled by men who are, for this work, in their very prime and flower, and from whom, in the matter of strength and endurance, no improvement need be looked for during the rest of their lives. In short, from the athletic point of view, they are perfect men. On the other hand, the intellectual performances of undergraduates are those of very immature persons, whose rhetorical efforts are apt to be merely imitative, who will not be at their best for ten or twelve years to come, and who have nothing to say on any subject which possesses real interest for the spectators. And we may add, that we think the appearance of undergraduates in the middle of the college session to recite essays in a city theatre, on subjects which have no special relation to the studies in which they are actually engaged, and before judges who, however competent, have not been selected by the college authorities, must be considered a performance of very doubtful utility with reference to its disciplinary influence, in the best sense of the term. This objection, it is true, is not applicable to contests in mathematics or other scientific subjects, which are now proposed, but to make these really intercollegiate, the competitors should really represent their colleges as regards excellence, and whether they did so or not could only be ascertained by a preliminary collegiate examination; but how would this comport with the sober and fruitful pursuit of the regular college course?

—The representation of colleges at this contest was by no means numerous, and was indeed confined to Cornell, Princeton, Williams, the University of New York, Rutgers, and Lafayette; and the absence of Harvard and Yale was of course noticeable. Whether they intend to take part in the contests of next year (which are to include competitive examinations in Greek and mathematics) seems as yet undecided, and meanwhile the smaller colleges probably take a wicked satisfaction in reflecting that, whether owing to their absence or to some other cause, this contest has not, like some others, ended in accusations of fraud directed against the judges, nor even have any of the orators or essayists entered a claim, as yet, of a "foul." No doubt, one reason why neither Harvard nor Yale took any part in the contest this year is that in both colleges the oratorical fever—the thirst for declamatory distinction which a generation ago seemed to seize upon every American boy at a certain age like an irritating epidemic—is a thing of the past; the time has come when at Harvard a reaction has set in of a very decided character. So strong, indeed, has the anti-oratorical current begun to run in that college that among recent graduates the reputation for a precocious ability for speech-making is not at all enviable—a fluency of political tongue having become associated in the minds of observant youngsters with hypocrisy or a general lack of sincerity. Lately, this healthy reaction has been carried pretty far, and has inclined some persons to fear for the total extinction of American oratory—an event which we, for our part, in no wise anticipate so long as there are people to persuade and halls in which to persuade them. The next meeting of the Intercollegiate Association will be watched with a good deal of interest, particularly as it is now, through the liberality of Mrs. J. J. Astor and Mr. Dwight H. Olmstead, supplied with funds to a considerable amount. One of the curiosities of the discussions of this year was a proposition for a great collegiate inter-State national contest at Philadelphia during the Centennial, which, we are glad to say, was voted down after a lively discussion. The judges on Thursday evening in oratory were Messrs. W. C. Bryant, G. W. Curtis, and Whitelaw Reid; in essays, T. W. Higginson, James T. Fields, and Richard Grant White.

—The Paris Geographical Society has been arranging for an International Geographical Congress. The answers from foreign governments and societies have been so favorable that a definite programme has been drawn up and issued. The congress, in connection with an exhibition of instruments, maps, books, etc., bearing upon geography, will open on the 31st of next March. The sessions will continue not more than ten days. The Society has proposed 123 questions for discussion in the seven divisions, to one of which each visitor will be assigned as he may designate on announcing his intention to be present. The groups are: 1. Mathematical Geography. 2. Hydrography. 3. Physical Geography, including Botanical and Zoölogical Geography and General Anthropology. 4. Historical Geography; Ethnography and Philology. 5. Economical Geography (*i.e.*, the problems of emigration and the use of emigrants in obtaining new information); Commercial and Statistical Geography. 6. The Teaching of Geography. 7. Travels. There are corresponding departments for the articles which are to be exhibited. This exhibition will continue at least a month. Each Government appoints a director who cares for the exhibitors of that country, and to him all announcements of participation are to be made. The French members of the Society who arrange the details of the congress are: President, Vice-Admiral Baron de la Roncière le Noury; General Commissioner Baron René Reille; General Secretary of the Geographical Society, Charles Maunoir. All suggestions of new questions and proposed changes of those announced, as well as all memorials and notice of intention of speaking, are to be sent to M. le Baron Reille, commissaire général, 10 Boulevard Latour Marbourg.

—Herr Niemann, the genealogical editor of the *Almanach de Gotha*, appears not to have heard of the criticism excited last year among the Italians by his novel addition to the account of their sovereign. In the current issue of the *Almanach* (which comes to us from B. Westermann & Co. and F. W. Christern), he retains the entry concerning the morganatic marriage of Victor Emanuel with Rosina, Countess of Mirafiore, merely altering the name to Rosa Vercellana. The protestations of the Foreign Office, therefore, if any were made, were without effect, and it is perhaps as much a secret as ever who prompted the editor to record the left-handed alliance. Other noticeable aspects of the *Almanach* for 1875 are the unusual changes in the diplomatic and statistical matter—for example, in the military data of Great Britain, France, Italy, Austria, Russia, and Turkey, owing to the reorganization of their systems; and the preponderance given to financial statistics, in accordance with the policy of alternation adopted for successive editions in view of the superabundant material at the command of the statistical department. The notice of Spain is confined exclusively to the personnel of the Government and its representatives abroad. No prominent name occurs in the necrology of royalty for 1874. The portraits of the living include Marshal MacMahon, the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh—a pair of whom striking beauty cannot be predicated in spite of the engraver's good intentions—and the pretty young Archduchess of Austria, once the Infanta of Portugal, by name (much abbreviated) Maria Theresa.

—In the last number of Kolbe's continuation of Erdmann's *Journal für praktische Chemie*, issued in November, 1874, though bearing the inscription No. 20—1873, we find a chemical review of the year 1873 by the editor. The Leipzig professor finishes his review in a short paragraph, remarking that there have been no important discoveries, but that other occurrences will weigh so much the more heavily upon all chemists who have their profession at heart. With a brief allusion to Liebig, whom he reserves for the succeeding article, he launches his diatribe against the new chemistry. He feels that the time has come for him to speak out. For some years, he declares, chemical research in Germany has been going backwards, and German "Gründlichkeit" has given place to superficialness and one-sidedness. The chemical journals contain many articles, but very few of any depth or originality—"Arbeiten nach einer Schablone." Young chemists, nowadays, care only for work which promises to lead to something new; they are poorly educated, get to work early, and are declared to be useless by the directors of factories where they are employed. The blame of most of this lies at the doors of the "so-called modern chemistry." This new theory, really nothing but an imposing hypothesis, misleads by the plausible explanation it offers for all that happens. The new chemist, who knows exactly how a molecule looks at both ends and in the middle; who knows all about the ortho-, meta-, and para- arrangements, and even tries to determine the very place of an atom in a molecule (in which, by the bye, the "moderns" declare they have been wonderfully successful of late), is no longer on solid ground. The "Naturforscher" has become a metaphysician. Kolbe then impressively warns all defenders of the new chemistry—he "who for thirty years has held fast to the 'Typentheorie,' and has built it out according to his needs, in preference to tear-

ing down preparatory to building anew." This comparison is unlucky. A theory or a hypothesis is not a house to contain facts, nor built of the facts. It were better compared with the child's endeavor to put its colored blocks together according to a pattern—only the child is a big child ; there is a doubt about the number of the blocks, and the pattern is lost, though we believe the theologians are thought to have a copy. The professor next vents his rage upon the German Chemical Society of Berlin—a monster created by the new chemists—the name "German" especially arousing his apparently Particularistic ire. This society was for a time doubtless somewhat free in its terms of membership, but is improving. At all events, the charge that it has been conducted for personal ends seems a little hard. Kolbe's especial complaint is against the honorary election of Wurtz, in which he finds an insult to the memory of Liebig. The rest of the number, excepting one page, is devoted to Liebig, and contains a sketch of his life and work, with reflections by Kolbe, and articles on his relation to agricultural and physiological chemistry by Strohmann and Neubauer. In fact, the number ought to be dedicated to the memory of Liebig, who, we may remark, promises in his way to occupy a shibbolethic position not unlike that long held by a renowned general and president among us. We say this without wishing in any way to depreciate the distinguished services he rendered science.

—We have alluded to this article as containing not only a curious example of the *odium chemicum*, but because of its suggestiveness in another aspect. The tirade against the new chemical philosophy we may leave to the chemists. The Chemical Society will doubtless be able to take care of itself, and perhaps of Mr. Wurtz too. As to what Prof. Kolbe says about students of chemistry, it is probably only too true—even in Germany. Its truth as regards some other countries has been only too well known. Grand as is the recent progress of chemistry—particularly that of the carbon compounds, and this because of the new theory and not in spite of it—the training of students of chemistry has suffered. The ease with which brilliant results may be obtained has led students away from the more difficult problems. Here probably the German training, excellent as it is, is weakest. Had Prof. Kolbe confined his attention to this point, and elaborated it, instead of burying it in his majestic abuse of other things, he would have found a readier hearing. It is, however, curious that Prof. von Sybel, in his address on Founders' Day (August 3) at Bonn (reprinted with the edition of his 'Die deutschen Universitäten'), makes a similar complaint concerning students of history. He finds them too ready to take little-worked departments of research which promise rapid though worthless results, rather than view work as training. Prof. Mommsen, too, in his rectorial speech at Berlin, expressed himself in a similar way, laying weight upon the time spent at the university as a time of training. This shows that the materialist hurry which characterizes American life and to some extent American culture, and for which our German cousins have been wont to abuse us, is not unknown among them. In other words, German nature is human nature too, and upon opportunity shows its likeness to its fellows. Such an opportunity the new historical school and the newer chemical school have offered to their students.

—An ingenious arrangement for a Latin vocabulary has been devised by Dr. Sanneg of Luckau. In place of the usual alphabetical order, which begins with the first letter of the word and goes from left to right, the words defined are arranged in their alphabetical order as spelt backward from right to left. This arrangement will be clear from the two columns below : the first gives the words in the usual alphabetical order, the second in Sanneg's inverted order :

| | |
|---|---|
| FABA, horse-bean. | I. *Adv.* around. CIRCA |
| FABACEUS, of a horse-bean, horse-bean-. | II. *Prep. w. Acc.* around, about. *Adv.* there. EA |
| FABAGINUS, of beans. | *Adv.* in company, together. UNA |
| FABALIS, of beans. | I. *Adv.* below. INFRA |
| FABARIS, a river in the Sabine country. | II. *Prep. w. Acc.* below. I. *Adv.* above. SUPRA |
| FABELLA, a short story, a short play. | II. *Prep. w. Acc.* above. |

The custom of reading from left to right is so ingrained that some practice would be required to read, like Macaulay's "thirty chosen prophets," as if the words were "Traced from the right on linen white," namely, *circa* as *acric*, *ea* as *ae*, *una* as *anu*, etc., and the proposed method never can supersede the common one. But the immense usefulness of a book of words grouped in the order of the endings as a supplement to the common dictionary, is obvious. We have always insisted that the study of the derivation and formation of words, which is finished up in a page or two of the Latin grammar, deserved very much more attention than it receives. At the same time, there are great difficulties in the way of pigeon-holing the words, when once we get beyond the commonest suffixes. A boy turned loose among Roby's lists would find himself in a perfect labyrinth ; while Sanneg's arrangement would furnish him with an Ariadne-clue to guide him out of the tangled maze ; for example, he could run his eye at a glance over all the words ending in *-mentum*, *-osus*, *-io*, *-tio*, etc. In fact, a simple list of the Latin vocabulary arranged in this order, even without definitions, would be as useful to the student of language as a table of anti-logarithms is to the computer. We shall be very glad to welcome such a work, and if it is carried out we promise to give it an extended notice.

—Brockhaus has recently published in his series of Italian authors ('Biblioteca d'autori italiani') the first volume of a new edition of Dante's Commedia, edited and commented by G. A. Scartazzini, already favorably known to Dantesque students by his book, published in 1869, entitled 'Dante Alighieri, seine Zeit, sein Leben und seine Werke.' The volume before us, an octavo of four hundred and fifty closely printed pages, contains the 'Inferno,' and is remarkable for the same care and fine typographical execution which distinguish the rest of the series. The editor has given on all important passages the opinions of the most celebrated ancient and modern commentators, besides the results of his own extensive studies in this field. Hence this edition will not only be of value to beginners who have mastered enough of the language to use with ease an Italian commentary, but more advanced scholars will find it very convenient as giving a résumé of many volumes. Nowhere could more amusing instances of the intolerance of men of letters be found than among commentators on Dante. Biagioli allowed himself to call Padre Venturi "an infamous, dirty dog" (*sozzo can vituperato*), and was in turn termed "an inurbane grammarian" and "a most ungrateful ingrate." Scartazzini, we are sorry to say, cannot resist the temptation to abuse Scarabelli of Bologna, whom he calls "an ignorant, harebrained, and unconscientious editor," "*quel tal* Scarabelli," and "*dottorone*." On this subject it will be interesting to hear what Scarabelli has to say in his next work on Dante.

—While Ariosto has been translated into seven Italian dialects, and Tasso into nine, Dante has not yet been completely translated into even one. Various cantos have been translated with greater or less success into the dialects of Milan, Naples, Verona, Venice, Chioggia, and Padua. In addition to these, we learn from a late number of the *Athenæum* that Francesco Limanzi, a local judge, has just successfully translated the 'Paradise' into the Calabrian dialect. There is surely no reason why the peasants of that wild region should not be as much interested, in case the translation is continued, in the episodes of Francesca di Rimini and Count Ugolino, as the Venetian gondoliers in Armida and Rinaldo or Tancred and Clorinda. Before passing from Dante, we may mention a pamphlet by Dr. Johannes Jacob on the import of Dante's guides in the other world, Virgil, Beatrice, and St. Bernard ('Die Bedeutung der Führer Dante's in der Divina Commedia,' Leipzig), with relation to the ideal aim of the poem and the mental development of the poet. This little work shows what excellent results can be obtained from the system of explaining Dante by Dante—a system partially adopted by many commentators, but most completely carried out by Giuliani of Florence in his admirable comment entitled 'Dante spiegato con Dante.'

—At the beginning of this century the publication of the 'Vision' of Frate Alberico, a monk of Montecassino, aroused a lively discussion as to the originality of Dante's 'Commedia.' Since then, Ampère, Labitte, and others have collected and illustrated the various legends and visions current during the Middle Ages, and even earlier, which throw light upon the great poem. The latest contribution to this subject is from the pen of the well-known Italian scholar, Alessandro d'Ancona, and is entitled 'I Precursori di Dante' (Firenze, 1874). The author skilfully arranges and classifies the extensive material collected by his predecessors in this field, and comes to the conclusion, which will be readily received, that Dante's originality did not consist in the form of his poem, but in the consummate art with which he managed it.

## NORDHOFF'S COMMUNISTIC SOCIETIES.*

MR. NORDHOFF offers us here a copious volume on a subject deserving of liberal treatment. His researches have been minute and exhaustive, and he makes a very lucid and often an entertaining exposition of their results. He writes in a friendly spirit and tends rather, on the whole, to dip his pen into rose-color ; but he professes to take the rigidly economical and not the sentimental view; and certainly the Rappists and the Shakers, the

* 'The Communistic Societies of the United States, from Personal Visit and Observation, etc. By Charles Nordhoff.' With Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1875.

Perfectionists and the Bethel people, make their accounts balance with an exactness very delightful to a practical mind. It would have been possible, we think, for an acute moralist to travel over the same ground as Mr. Nordhoff and to present in consequence a rather duskier picture of human life at Amana, Mount Lebanon, and Oneida; but his work for our actual needs would doubtless have been less useful. Mr. Nordhoff, too, has not neglected the moral side of his topic, and much of the information he gives us has an extreme psychological interest. His purpose, however, was to investigate communistic life from the point of view of an adversary to trades-unions, and to see whether in the United States, with their vast area for free experiments in this line, it might not offer a better promise to workingmen than mere coalitions to increase wages and shorten the hours of labor. Such experiments would be worth examining if they did nothing more for the workingman than change the prospect ahead of him into something better than a simple perpetuity of hire—a prospect at the best depressing and irritating. "Hitherto," says Mr. Nordhoff, "very little, indeed almost nothing definite and precise, has been made known concerning these societies; and Communism remains loudly but very vaguely spoken of, by friends as well as enemies, and is commonly either a word of terror or contempt in the public prints. . . I desired to discover how the successful Communists had met and overcome the difficulties of idleness, selfishness, and unthrift in individuals, which are commonly believed to make Communism impossible. . . . I wished to see what they had made of their lives; what was the effect of communal living upon the character of the individual man and woman; whether the life had broadened or narrowed them, and whether assured fortune and pecuniary independence had brought to them a desire for beauty of surroundings and broader intelligence; whether, in brief, the Communist had anywhere become more than a comfortable and independent day-laborer, and aspired to something higher than a mere bread-and-butter existence." As to some of these points, the author must have been satisfied at an early stage of his researches: beauty of surroundings and breadth of intelligence were nowhere striking features of communistic life. This life was everywhere, save at a very few points, nakedly practical; and at these exceptional points, as in the case of the "spiritualism" of the Shakers, their celibacy, in a measure, as well, and in that of the interchangeableness of husbands and wives in the Oneida Community, the ideal element is singularly grotesque and unlovely. The Shakers and the Perfectionists have certainly not been broadened; whether they have been narrowed or not is a different question. Mr. Nordhoff inclines to believe not, and he constantly reminds us that, in judging the people he describes, we must be careful that we do not compare them with a high ideal. They are for the most part common, uneducated, unaspiring, and the question is whether they are not, for the most part, more complete and independent than if they had struggled along in individual obscurity and toil. They are certainly more prosperous and more comfortable, and if their ignorance has often hardened into queer, stiff, sterile dogmas, the sacrifice of intelligence has not been considerable. Even the Shakers have, indeed, a sort of angular poetry of their own, and the human creature for whom it was a possibility to become a Shaker doubtless wears in that garb a grace which would otherwise have been wanting.

Mr. Nordhoff's field was extensive, stretching as it does from Maine to Oregon, and southward down to Kentucky. It contains some eight distinct communistic societies, but these are composed of a large number of subdivisions; the Shakers alone having no less than fifty-eight settlements. Mr. Nordhoff begins with the Amana Society, whose present abode, or cluster of abodes, is in the State of Iowa. Like most of its fellows, with the exception of the Perfectionists and Shakers, this commune is of German origin. It established itself in this country in 1842; it contains something less than fifteen hundred members; it possesses twenty-five thousand acres of land; it has a rigidly religious character; it allows marriage, but keeps the sexes as much as possible apart, and thinks rather poorly of women. It supports itself by farming and by the manufacture of woollen stuffs; "lives well after the hearty German fashion, and bakes excellent bread"; has, indeed, at some seasons of the year five meals a day; keeps its affairs in very prosperous order, and finds an eager market for its produce of all kinds. Religion here, as in most of the communities, is of a strictly ascetic sort; they seem generally to find it needful to be girded up by some tight doctrinal bond. "Inspiration" is the *cheval de bataille* at Amana; the ministers, male and female, are called "instruments"; "the hymns are printed as prose, only the verses being separated." This congregation seems to have produced upon the author a strong impression of easy thrift, of the "well-to-do." Even better in this respect are the Rappists or Harmonists at Economy, near Pittsburgh. "Passing Liverpool, you come to Freedom, Jethro (whose houses are both lighted and heated with gas from a natural spring near by), Industry, and Beaver." You must feel yourself to be on the native soil of social experimentalism, and have a sort of sense of living in a scornfully conservative parody or burlesque. The experiment of Father Rapp, however, who came to America in 1803, and to this region in 1825, has been a solid, palpable success. The Harmonists, who number one hundred and ten persons, hold property to the amount of between two and three million of dollars. Mr. Nordhoff makes a point of the importance, in communistic ventures, of a strong-headed, strong-handed leader; and this, indeed, with a very definite religious tendency, seems essential to success. The Harmonists had both; and Father Rapp, the Moses who led them out their house of bondage (the kingdom of Würtemberg), seems to have been a man of excellent sense and energy. He died in 1847, and, though he has had successors, the society is resting on its gains, making few recruits, and awaiting, in a sort of eventide tranquillity and security, the second coming of Christ. The Rappists are celibates; and that the institution has been successful with them may be inferred from Mr. Nordhoff's remark that he has "been assured by older members of the society, who have, as they say, often heard the period described by those who were actors in it, that this determination to refrain from marriage and from married life originated among the younger members."

One is struck, throughout Mr. Nordhoff's book, with the existence in human nature of lurking and unsuspected strata, as it were, of asceticism, of the capacity for taking a grim satisfaction in dreariness. One would have been curious to have a little personal observation of these "younger members" who were so in love with the idea of single blessedness. "The joys of the celibate life," says one of the author's Shaker informants, "are far greater than I can make you know. They are indescribable." The Shakers, on this point, go further than the Catholic monks and nuns, who profess merely to find celibacy holy, and salutary to the spirit—not positively agreeable in itself. Mr. Nordhoff found in a Shaker Community near Rochester several French Canadians of the Catholic faith, and in another in Ohio several more Catholics, one of whom was a Spaniard and an ex-priest. A French Canadian Shaker strikes one as the most amusing imbroglio of qualities conceivable until one encounters the Spanish priest. One wonders how ineffable *they* deemed the joys of celibacy. At the village of Zoar, in Ohio, the author found a community of three hundred persons, of German origin, calling themselves "Separatists," owning "over seven thousand acres of very fertile land," together with other property, representing more than a million of dollars. "The Zoar Communists belong to the peasant class of Southern Germany. They are, therefore, unintellectual, and they have not risen in culture beyond their original condition. . . . The Zoarites have achieved comfort—according to the German peasant's notion—and wealth. They are relieved from severe toil, and have driven the wolf permanently from their doors. More they might have accomplished; but they have not been taught the need of more. They are sober, quiet, and orderly, very industrious, economical, and the amount of ingenuity and business skill they have developed is quite remarkable. Comparing Zoar and Aurora with Economy, I saw the extreme importance and value in such an experiment of leaders with ideas at least a step higher than those of their people." The Zoarites disapprove of marriage, but they permit it, which seems rather an oddity. "Complete virginity," say their articles of faith, "is more commendable than marriage." It is also, of course, more economical, and, though the Communistic creeds generally do not say this, it is pretty generally what they mean. At Bethel and Aurora, however, two German Communes of four hundred members apiece, in Missouri and Oregon respectively, Mr. Nordhoff found marriage not discountenanced, and affairs in general fairly prosperous. Of Dr. Keil, a Prussian, the head of the society at Aurora, Mr. Nordhoff gives an interesting account. He had been a man-milliner in his own country, but his present character, in spite of these rather frivolous antecedents, is a very vigorous and sturdy one. Mr. Nordhoff stands with him beside the graves of his five children—all of whom he had lost between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one. "After a minute's silence he turned upon me with sombre eyes and said: 'To bear all that comes upon us in silence, in quiet, without noise, or outcry, or excitement, or useless repining—that is to be a man, and that we can only do with God's help.'" Mr. Nordhoff gives further some account of several smaller and more struggling Communes—the Icarians, a French society in Iowa; a Swedish settlement, at Bishop Hill, in Illinois; a cluster of seven hopeful Russians (one of them a "hygienic doctor") at Cedar Vale, in Kansas; and, lastly, of an experiment in Virginia, embodying as "full members" two women, one man, and three boys. The three boys have a great responsibility on their shoulders; we hope they are duly sensible of it. There is also a sketch of some colonies—

notably that of Mr. E. V. Boissière, of Bordeaux, in Kansas—not strictly communistic. Mr. Nordhoff thinks, with regard to this last settlement, that its members sacrifice too many of the advantages of private life without securing in a sufficient degree those of association.

The volume is largely occupied with a very complete and exhaustive report on the various Shaker settlements. Everything is told here about Shakerism that one could possibly desire to know. There are in the country eighteen societies, with something less than twenty-five hundred members, and possessing some fifty thousand acres of land. The Shakers seem to us by far the most perfect and consistent communists, and Mr. Nordhoff's account of them is very interesting. He explains everything indeed in the matter but one—how twenty-five hundred people, that is, can be found to embrace a life of such organized and theorized aridity. But to comprehend this one must reflect not only on what people take but on what they leave, and remember that there are in America many domestic circles in which, as compared with the dreariness of private life, the dreariness of Shakerism seems like boisterous gaiety. "It was announced," Mr. Nordhoff quotes from a Shaker record, "that the holy prophet Elisha was deputized to visit the Zion of God on earth. The time at length arrived. The people were grave, and concerned about their spiritual standing. Two female instruments from Canterbury, N. H., were at length ushered into the sanctuary. Their eyes were closed, and their faces moved in semi-gyrations. . . . One or two instances occurred in which a superhuman agency was indubitably obvious. One of the abnormal males lay in a building at some distance from the infirmary where the female instruments were confined." These few lines strike the note of Shaker civilization; and it requires no great penetration to perceive that it cannot be a very rich civilization. It proceeds, indeed, almost entirely by negatives. "The beautiful, as you call it," said Elder Frederick to Mr. Nordhoff, "is absurd and abnormal. It has no business with us." And he proceeded to relate how he had once been in a rich man's house in New York, where he had seen heavy picture-frames hung against the walls as "receptacles of dust." The great source of prosperity with the Shakers has evidently been their rigid, scientific economy, carried into minute details, and never contravened by the multiplication of children or non-producing members. Mr. Nordhoff says that they do not toil severely (this is his testimony as to most of the communes); but they work steadily, unremittingly, and, above all, carefully, and they spend nothing on luxury or pleasure. The author emphasizes strongly the excellent quality of their work and their produce (this, too, is a general rule), and the high esteem in which they are held as neighbors and fellow-citizens. They "avoid all speculative and hazardous enterprises. They are content with small gains, and in an old-fashioned way study rather to moderate their outlays than to increase their profits. . . . Their surplus capital they invest in land, or in the best securities, such as United States bonds." There is a kind of wholesome conservatism in the Shaker philosophy, as Mr. Nordhoff depicts it, which we confess rather takes our fancy. It is grotesque and perverted in many ways, but at its best points it is both the source and the fruit of a considerable personal self-respect. Mr. Nordhoff gives a number of long extracts from the publications of the Shakers expository of their religious views, from which it appears that they are "spiritualists" in the current sense of the term. But their manifestations and miracles strike us as rather feeble and third-rate. They ought to come up to town occasionally, and take a few lessons at some of the more enterprising repositories of the faith. They have, however, a sacrament of confession to their elders of evil thoughts and deeds which seems to us respectable from their own point of view. It is rigidly enforced, apparently, as far as is possible, and it is a testimony to their sense of the value of discipline. The more accomplished "spiritualists," we are afraid, don't confess. We think of the Shakers as sitting in their more brilliant moods "with their faces moving in semi-gyrations"; but we regret nevertheless to learn that their number is decidedly not increasing. That they do not continue to make recruits is perhaps a sign that family life among Americans at large is becoming more entertaining.

The most interesting, or at least the most curious, section of Mr. Nordhoff's book is his report on the Oneida Perfectionists:

> "We have built us a dome
> On our beautiful plantation,
> And we have all one home,
> *And one family relation.*"

If the lines we quoted just now gave the key-note of culture among the Shakers, this charming stanza gives the key-note of culture among the ladies and gentlemen at Oneida. The line we have italicized seems to us to have a delightful naïveté, shadowing forth as it does the fact that these ladies and gentlemen are all indifferently and interchangeably each other's husbands and wives. But Mr. Nordhoff chronicles many other facts beside this; as that the ladies wear short hair, and jackets and trowsers; that the community numbers nearly three hundred persons; that it is worth half a million of dollars; that it has "faith-cures"; and that it assembles of an evening in the parlor and devotes itself to "criticism" of a selected member. It is on a very prosperous footing, and it has in Mr. J. H. Noyes a very skilful and (as we suppose it would say) "magnetic" leader. Propagation is carefully limited, and there are, as may be imagined, many applications for admission. "If I should add," says Mr. Nordhoff, "that the predominant impression made upon me was that it was a commonplace company, I might give offence." Very likely; and the term is not the one we should select. Such a phenomenon as the Oneida Community suggests many more reflections than we have space for. Its industrial results are doubtless excellent; but morally and socially it strikes us as simply hideous. To appreciate our intention in so qualifying it the reader should glance at the account given by Mr. Nordhoff of the "criticism" he heard offered upon the young man Henry. In what was apparent here, and still more in what was implied, there seem to us to be fathomless depths of barbarism. The whole scene, and all that it rested on, is an attempt to organize and glorify the detestable tendency toward the complete effacement of privacy in life and thought everywhere so rampant with us nowadays. For "perfectionists" this is sadly amiss. But it is the worst fact chronicled in Mr. Nordhoff's volume, which, for the rest, seems to establish fairly that, under certain conditions and with strictly rational hopes, communism in America may be a paying experiment.

## DEMOCRACY AND MONARCHY IN FRANCE.*

PROFESSOR ADAMS says in his preface that he proposes to show in his book that "the present political character of the French people is the legitimate result of certain doctrines and habits that have been taking root in the nation during the past hundred years," and that "there is no more potent political truth than this, that the present has its roots running far back into the past, and that it draws its life from ideas and institutions that have gone before, just as certainly as the vegetation of to-day receives its nourishment from the decaying remains of preceding organic life"; that, in short, "while on the one hand the present is the child of the past, on the other it is in its turn to be the parent of the future." The failures of the French during the past century to establish any permanent form of government he ascribes to the growth and predominance of what he calls "the revolutionary spirit," and the revolutionary spirit he defines as "the claim of the ignorant and passionate multitude to sit in authoritative judgment on every act of the Government." He accordingly examines, under the guidance of this idea, the philosophy of the great Revolution, its politics, the rise of Napoleonism, the Restoration, the Ministry of Guizot, the Revolution of 1848, the Second Republic and Second Empire; and endeavors to prove that whatever was evil in the constitution of the Government during these periods, or whatever led to its overthrow and the trial of something else, was due in a greater or less degree to the assertion on the part of the ignorant and unthinking multitude of their right to solve summarily the fundamental problems of the national life. Mr. Adams works out his theory with abundant citation of authorities and illustration, in a style which is always clear and often impressive, and with a certain air of dogmatic dignity which is perhaps due to the fact that the book originated in a series of college lectures. To call it an historical study, would perhaps be misleading, for it makes no pretence to be impartial or tentative. The author produces at the outset a series of charges against the French nation, and proceeds to prove them, without any attempt to disguise the process. The result is perhaps not wholly satisfactory from the historical point of view, because the author naturally only adduces such facts and quotations as make for his own view, and naturally and inevitably passes over much which might weaken or blur his conclusions. But this fault, if it be a fault, is one inseparable from all attempts to expound what is called the philosophy of history. In the case of professed historians, like Mitford or Froude, who, besides preaching a certain political or social gospel, undertake to present a complete historical narrative, it becomes so serious as sometimes to call for the severest reprehension. But Mr. Adams does not place himself under the restraints of an ordinary historian, nor yet those of a simple historical student. What he offers is an essay to deal with perhaps the most remarkable phenomenon of contemporary politics from the historical standpoint; and those who will complain that he has colored his facts too highly or has sometimes seemed to arrange them to suit his argument, must bear in mind

* 'Democracy and Monarchy in France, from the Inception of the Great Revolution to the Overthrow of the Second Empire. By Charles Kendall Adams, Professor of History in the University of Michigan.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

that he is maintaining a thesis, and that if his book bears a strong resemblance to an historical narrative, it is due mainly to the fact that he draws his proofs from a whole century of extraordinary eventfulness.

In answer to the question, how has he succeeded? we should say that he has, even with the drawbacks above-mentioned—as doubtless some will call them, though we do not so consider them—produced a valuable example of the scientific mode of dealing with political problems, because his propositions with regard to the secrets of French disaster are really an induction from observed facts, whether from a sufficient or insufficient number of them, and are not—as so much of our philosophy of history is—a bundle of deductions from some *à priori* notion or prejudice evolved from the writer's social or religious training. It strikes a blow, which we heartily rejoice to see coming from a professor of history in a great university, at that common though widely-received newspaper explanation of political troubles in the Old World, and which the growth of both biological and sociological science has already made ridiculous to most educated men—that when a nation fails to attain the complete happiness which is supposed to result from popular government, it is due, not to anything wrong in the character of the citizens, but to the machinations of a small body of persons called "aristocrats" or "monarchists," who are supposed to exert the same malign influence on the fortunes of an ingenuous, well-meaning, but simple-minded person called "the people" that Satan used to exercise on the strivings after holiness of the mediæval monks. The extirpation of this remnant of Rousseauism, as Mr. Adams shows it to be, is absolutely necessary, not only to sound thinking about foreign politics, but about our own. That government is the true product of the society governed, is an axiom which lies at the basis of all sound political reasoning. Treating bad government as something outside the people who live under it, is like treating an ulcer as a fetish, which has settled on the human body with the malignant design of annoying it or exhausting it.

Mr. Adams, as it seems to us, has produced from recent French history a strong case in support of the theory that a nation is at any given period the product of its historical antecedents; whether he has produced an equally strong one in support of the theory that France has been during the last century the victim of "the revolutionary spirit" may, perhaps, be questioned. The revolutionary spirit, as Mr. Adams defines it—that is, the desire of the ignorant and unthinking multitude to sit in judgment on every act of the government—may be said to exist in all countries. Undoubtedly, it has been stimulated to an unusual degree in France by the philosophy of the Revolution, which presented the whole past of the country to this same multitude as a gigantic and hideous mistake, and preached the possibility of erecting a new social and political structure without any reference to this past. But then this revolutionary spirit, after the revolutionary cataclysm was past, and the political system of the country had been placed on a new basis, undoubtedly disappeared among the peasantry, who are to-day the most conservative population in Europe. It grew in the cities, and especially in the greatest of the cities—Paris; but it would there have been powerless as regarded the government, as it is in England or Prussia, but for the one feature of the old régime which the Revolution left standing—the centralization of the machinery of administration. It is this which both enables the Paris mob to exert the malign influence on the national fortunes which Mr. Adams has so well described, and tempts them to exert it. Given such centralization, such a mob, and such a destruction of political habits and of provincial centres of responsibility as the Revolution wrought, and the history of such a country may almost be predicted.

---

*Life and Labors of Mr. Brassey*, 1865–1870. By Sir Arthur Helps, K.C.B. With a preface to the American Edition by the author. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1874.)—In these days, when the methods of railway construction excite so much attention, the record of the life and labors of one of the greatest railway-builders of the century has special interest. With our recent experience fresh in mind, from the war down to the Crédit-Mobilier and the California Contract and Finance Company, there are some of the elements of romance in the story of a contractor who always performed his contract, profitable or unprofitable, and who in building for other people thousands of miles of railroad retained an average profit of only three per cent. on the money passing through his hands. It is not often that there comes to a man the felicity both of being a pioneer of new discovery in civilization, and of seeing the works he tended in infancy grow to complete development and spread to universal use within his lifetime. Yet Thomas Brassey, like Professor Morse in the case of the telegraph, had this rare fortune. He was engaged with George Stephenson in building the Newton and Birmingham line in 1834, one of the earliest railways constructed in England. When he died in 1870, the world had in operation one hundred and eighteen thousand miles of railway, and land transportation had been revolutionized. Mr. Brassey's personal share in this work may be appreciated from the statement that at different times he was engaged in building six thousand six hundred miles of railway, in England, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Austria, Denmark, India, Canada, and South America; that he disbursed in their construction nearly four hundred millions of dollars; and that he had at times in his employ, directly or indirectly, an army of eighty thousand laborers. His character as sketched by his biographer was most estimable. Honest, faithful, just, kind-hearted, modest, not greedy of gain, he seems to have been a type of contractor not often produced in any country.

This biography is an admirable bit of book-making. Mr. Brassey's private life was uneventful. His public career may be almost summed up by the enumeration of the railways he aided in building. The engineering and administrative triumphs won in constructing a railway excite as a rule very little public interest after the work is done. Yet Sir Arthur Helps—although, as he says, without special qualifications for the task, and relying almost exclusively upon material furnished by others—has so handled his subject as to give us a book which will interest those who never heard of Mr. Brassey and who care nothing for railroads or public works. The simple charm of his style makes even his most commonplace remarks pleasant reading. To be sure, one has a feeling sometimes that the gold is beaten about as thin as it will bear, as, for example, in the chapter on Mr. Brassey's wealth, when the solitary fact at its close reveals how very little there really was to say. But it is ungracious to criticise the poverty of fact when the compiler works up so faithfully all that he has. Perhaps the most instructive portion of the book is the careful comparison between the English, French, Italian, and German labor employed by Mr. Brassey; and some of the remarks on his experience in building the Grand Trunk line in Canada are also fresh and striking. What we miss altogether is those facts connected with Mr. Brassey's labors which at the present time in this country would have the most interest and the most value. In all the chapters devoted to railroads built in Europe and America, the financial arrangements for executing such great works are almost unmentioned. The life of Mr. Brassey ought to have special interest for business men, yet the part which business men would most like to know is passed over in silence. Here was a great contractor, of acknowledged integrity, actively interested in placing before governments and before the public schemes which required and sought co-operation, capital, and subscriptions far and near. On what basis financially were these various roads built? What was the public asked to do? How and in what form did the contractor get back his principal and receive his profits? We conclude from such knowledge as we have, and from hints dropped occasionally in the book, that the methods adopted by Mr. Brassey were not substantially different from some which in this country have excited much indignation and abuse, particularly in the West. We regret that the author was either unable or unwilling to treat of these points. We must add, too, that his closing chapter on Railways and Government Control contributes little or nothing to the discussion of a question which is confessedly among the weightiest of our time.

---

*History of England* from the year 1830–1874, by William Nassau Molesworth, M.A., Vicar of Spotland, Rochdale. New edition. Three volumes. (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1874.)—The first edition of this history appeared in 1871; the author, who is a clergyman, being already favorably known for his 'History of the Reform Bill of 1832.' An extract from a speech of Mr. John Bright's is printed on the fly-leaf, commending the work, in strong and justifiable terms, to such young Englishmen as wish to know "the history of their country nearest their own times," or, in other words, the period they are least acquainted with. There is probably nobody, whether writer for the press, or teacher, or merely political student, who has not experienced the inconvenience of being unable to lay his hands on a good compendium of recent political history. The last half century is usually the period which ambitious historians shirk, and it is apt to be left to be done piecemeal, by catchpenny writers or compilers, who dress up episodes to meet the immediate and passing demands of the popular market. Mr. Molesworth has endeavored, and very successfully, to supply this want as regards England, in the three volumes before us, in which the facts are, to use Mr. Bright's language, "plainly and truly stated." There is little or no attempt at philosophizing; the author maintains from first to last the steady pace of a veracious chronicler, in a simple, clear, and unadorned

style, and without any attempt at the "dignity of history." He treats no event, from an accession to the throne, or the public funeral of a hero, down to a murder or robbery which excited much public attention at the time, as beneath his notice, and they are all to be found in his book. His expressions of opinion are careful and restrained, and his opinions of course are those of a moderate Liberal. We can hardly point to any history of recent appearance which the political student will find better worthy of perusal, because it tells one of the most instructive stories in the annals of the human race—the conversion of a feudal society into a modern democratic one by the process of peaceful discussion. We do not know where to look for anything like it. The process by which the middle class in England got possession of the government in 1832, the use they have made of their power in the reform of the administrative machinery, of the system of taxation, of the municipal and colonial governments, of the administration of justice; in the provision of popular education and of relief for the poor; in the amelioration of the condition of the military and naval service, and in the final admission of the working-classes to the franchise, stands and must always stand among the most interesting and hopeful phenomena in the history of human progress.

---

*The Land of the White Elephant.* A Personal Narrative of Travel and Adventure in Farther India; embracing the countries of Burma, Siam, Cambodia, and Cochin-China (1871–72). By Frank Vincent, Jr. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—Mr. Vincent's journeying in Southeastern Asia lasted just a year, and but a small portion of it was off the common routes. The chief opportunity which he had of making novel observations was in travelling overland (if that can be said of a nearly all-water passage) from Bangkok to Saigon, when he was enabled to visit the wonderful ruins of Angkor, and to have an audience with the King of Cambodia, as previously with the Kings of Ava and Siam. While it may be doubted if this part or even the sum of his experience was worth a book of the dimensions of the present, it is still true that not so much has been written about the curious civilization of Farther India, and its architectural remains, as to make it difficult for the latest visitor to bring back an interesting tale. This Mr. Vincent has done without betraying any peculiar qualifications as a tourist or as an author; in a literary sense, indeed, his work is susceptible of great improvement, as we may see when he publishes, as perhaps he intends, a narrative of his other travels in the East. The title which he has chosen well enough embraces the countries which he skirted, but the "white elephant" hardly figures in his pages to the extent which might have been expected; in this respect recalling, but certainly not equalling, Mr. Pike's 'Land of the Aphanapteryx.' The King of Ava's elephant is thus described:

"The Mandalay animal I found to be a male of medium size, with *white eyes*, and a forehead and ears *spotted* white, appearing as if they had been rubbed with pumice-stone or sand-paper; but the remainder of the body was as 'black as a coal.' He was a vicious brute, chained by the fore-legs in the centre of a large shed, and was surrounded with the 'adjuncts of royalty'—gold and white cloth umbrellas, an embroidered canopy above, and some bundles of spears in the corners of the room. The attendants told me that a young one . . . was suckled by twelve women hired for the express purpose; these elephant 'wet-nurses' receiving 30 reals per measure, and thinking it a great honor to serve in such capacity."

This is suckling extraordinary, but the custom of the country in this respect is apt to excite comment from strangers. Mr. Vincent says: "I have frequently seen babes at their mother's breast alternating the nourishment of 'Nature's Nile' with pulls and puffs at their cheroots." So inseparable is their cheroot from the Burmese, from babyhood to manhood, that the men often utilize the holes made in their ears for ornaments, where these are wanting, by putting their cheroots in them; and so with "any small article in frequent use." The famous fruit called the *dorian* has been many times judged and generally condemned by the Western taste. Mr. Vincent reports that the smell of it "when first opened is like stale fish, and when eaten the flavor is like raw onions, leaving a nauseating garlic taste in the mouth. However, notwithstanding its rank odor, many European residents in the East profess to like the *dorian;* but we thought its primary, intervening, and final taste most unsavory—nay, even extremely disgusting."

The illustrations of 'The Land of the White Elephant' are numerous and good, being all from photographs. Cities, temples, idols, elephants, and natives of high and low degree are the principal subjects of them. The author has further done his duty by his readers in giving them serviceable maps and plans.

---

*XVIIIme Siècle:* Institutions, Usages et Costumes: France, 1700–1789. Par Paul Lacroix (Bibliophile Jacob). (Paris: Firmin-Didot Frères; New York: F. W. Christern.)—Pertaining to a kind of publication in which only a single nation of the world excels, this book is one of the series to which the author's 'Moyen-Age' and 'Renaissance' belonged, and like them presents the cream of the antiquarian's collections skilfully reproduced in popular form, and at a price not unreasonable, the inherent expensiveness of the method being considered. Here are a score of illuminated pages not greatly inferior to the tinted pages of rare vellums, or rather, in the present case, to the camaïeu and aquatint prints of the period—prints which the perfection of modern methods rather improves than spoils in the quotation; besides the colored plates, a luxury of cuts or *bois* amounting to some hundreds. One really need not be at the pains to collect rare prints of this kind when he can obtain thus the most curious of a professed collector's prizes, set forth in the happiest order and most illustrative way. The text supplied by M. Lacroix is best characterized by the publishers when they affirm that it is executed with the same care and the same tact as his previous works, and that it may be placed without danger "entre toutes les mains"—a concession to the "young person's" cheeks that is far from unnecessary when the period of Louis XV. is under consideration. The historic epoch thus committed to the hands of sensibility and the eye of taste begins, though, safely enough, in a period of piety mitigated by ennui; the Grand Monarch is pining under the velvet glove of Maintenon, and the arts which he had fostered have dwindled down to a few representations of the histories of Esther and Athaliah enacted by the young ladies of St. Cyr. A succeeding reign of profligacy, however, soon enough revenges this monotony, and, while rich bankers are allowed to ruin themselves in conducting the expensive theatricals of the court, we are permitted to see the costly and incredible dresses in which the great rôles of Voltaire were played by petted comedians. In that poet's 'Orphan of China,' the costume of Idamé comprises enormous hoops, undulating over Turkish trowsers, and a powdered head nodding with prodigious feathers; Mme. Vestris crowns the bust of Voltaire in a "shape" intended for Irene, her petticoat so prodigiously distended as to make her appear broader than she is long, and festooned around with wall-of-Troy borders; a Lekain plays Merope in a velvet turban heaped with white plumes, his fine eyes glancing over a shoulder covered with ermine; the silhouette of Juno is that of a dinner-bell; a male Zephyr has a skirt puffed into the shape of a dome; and, besides him, other male characters, demons, Neptunes, Eastern kings and African soldiers, have petticoats or kilts, short indeed, but expressing the widest imaginable angle in spherical trigonometry. The equally strange figures who form the audience for these artists—the abbés of the card-tables, "who never had any abbeys," the literary ladies who give audiences from the balustrades of their beds, the marquis who takes a needle-case from his pocket and completes the embroidery of a flower in a lady's tambour-frame, and the pert soldiers of Watteau's paintings, whose "gallantry" was altogether of a carpet sort—revolve through these pictorial pages like a world of marionettes. The coronation of Louis XV., from a work by D'Ullin, of the Royal Academy of Painting, shows similar masquerade figures in a moment of the most intense solemnity of which they were capable. The boyish king, then celebrated for his comeliness, wearing the crown of Charlemagne, clothed in purple with golden lilies, and carrying the sceptre and hand of justice; the Archbishop of Reims leading the king to the throne by his right hand, the six laic and six ecclesiastical peers variously robed in gold tissue—they are all graceful and decorous; but the permeating levity of the age gives the whole group the air of a troop of sylphs conducting some attenuated rites round the circumference of a fan. What is a great deal more human and pleasant is the bourgeois life of the day, the smart shoppers and promenaders in the Galerie du Bois du Palais, as seen in Gravelot's color-study, the chambermaids and happy burgher portraits of Chardin, and the family pieties, sincere if a little self-conscious, of Greuze. M. Lacroix is honest, and frequently turns the medal, following up the white-satin *bergerades* of Boucher with an old print representing a real peasant, enveloped to his heels so as to be a mere walking cloak, and no more idyllic than a saddle of mutton. We render the thanks of utter satiety after turning, without counting them, the innumerable illustrations of this work, a little rebellious, we must confess, at its appalling completeness, which does not spare us a fashionable curl of a wig or a bow of an "anglomane" bonnet. Surely, France reverences old times in a way that Carlyle would identify with worship of old clothes.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Almanach de Gotha, 1875 | (B. Westermann & Co.) |
| Cohn (G.), Streitfragen der Eisenbahnpolitik, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Capen (N.), The History of Democracy, Vol. I | (Am. Pub. Co.) |
| Channing (Rev. W. E.), Works | (Am. Unit. Ass.) $1 00 |
| Dana (Prof. J. D.), Text-book of Geology, 2d ed | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) |
| Estes (D.), Half-hour Recreations in Popular Science | (Estes & Lauriat) 2 50 |
| Fieber (Dr. F.), Treatment of Nervous Diseases by Electricity | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 75 |

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 21, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE President's Message in response to the resolution calling on him for information about the Louisiana matter, maintains that the United States Circuit Court had jurisdiction in the case of Kellogg *v.* Warmoth in 1872, and also in the case of Antoine, but admits that some of the orders made in both cases were illegal; that nevertheless the process of the Courts having been resisted (there is no proof of this) he felt it to be his duty to employ the troops to enforce it; that whether Kellogg was or was not fairly elected subsequently is doubtful, but that it seems clear that McEnery was not lawfully elected either; that during the troubles arising out of these disputes there was a fight at Colfax, at which there was a barbarous butchery of over thirty-seven negroes; that there were six young men, some of them Republicans and office-holders under Kellogg, also murdered at Coushatta; that "many murders of a like character" were committed in other parts of the State; that the White Leaguers, in answer to a proclamation from Penn, the *soi-disant* Lieutenant-Governor, rose and overpowered the Kellogg government in September, 1874; that troops were sent down in consequence to put down this insurrection; that there was "intimidation" of Republican voters at the ensuing election—in proof of which he cites a paper signed by certain merchants of Shreveport agreeing to employ nobody who voted the Radical ticket, a piece of "intimidation" which Senators Morton and Conkling must laugh over heartily, in their sleeves; that he does not know whether the Returning Board acted honestly or not—he suggests that the long delay in canvassing the votes was due to the arguments of lawyers; but that he knows that it had the legal power to do what it pleased; that he had no knowledge and no idea that the troops were going to interfere with the organization of the legislature, and does not think such interference justifiable, but holds that there were circumstances connected "with the legislative imbroglio in Louisiana which seem to exempt the military from any intentional wrong in the matter"; that if a mob or body of unauthorized persons seize and hold the legislative hall in a tumultuous and riotous manner, so as to prevent any organization by those legally returned as elected, it may become the duty of the State executive to interpose, if requested by a majority of the members-elect; that if the Governor in Louisiana had attempted to use the police for this purpose there would have been a bloody conflict with the "White League," so he had to use the troops. He then gives an account of what occurred in the hall—substantially the same as General Sheridan's; says that whether the Governor had the right to interfere under the circumstances is "perhaps a debatable question"; eulogizes General Sheridan; disclaims all desire to have troops interfere in the domestic concerns of any State; and maintains that troops sent down to preserve order in a disturbed district must act in emergencies on the judgment of the commanding officer, who, as soldiers are not lawyers, are liable to make mistakes. He concludes by calling on Congress once more to settle what his duty is in the Louisiana matter, and promises to carry out their enactment in spirit and letter.

---

He appends to the message various justificatory documents (mainly loud "calls" for troops from Kellogg and Packard and others, on the ground that there was going to be "intimidation" during the registration), and the confidential instructions of the War Department to General Sheridan, the gist of which is that he is to make a trip in the States of Mississippi and Louisiana, see what the true condition of affairs is there, and send such suggestions to the President as may seem "reasonable and judicious." There is also a report from General Sheridan on "murders" and "outrages," declaring that 3,500 persons—the majority colored—have been killed and wounded on account of their political opinions within the State since 1866. He acknowledges, however, that he has no proof of this, as since 1868 no official or judicial investigation has been made. He has, nevertheless, he says, "ample evidence" that there have been 1,200 murders on account of politics since 1868, but does not say what it is he considers "ample evidence"; nor does he say what is "the mass of evidence" which "lies before him" of 183 "isolated murders" in various parishes which he names. He must pardon us for saying that what passes as evidence with angry cavalry officers does not always pass with either lawyers or logicians, and that since Mr. Hayes's Alabama murders, we are somewhat incredulous about these appalling murders of negroes just before election.

---

It is not fair for the President to say that soldiers are not lawyers. General Sheridan, as we pointed out last week, is, on his own showing, one of the greatest lawyers in the country. He is not only, too, a great master of parliamentary and constitutional law, as appears from his reports, but he feels equal to the peculiarly delicate task of legislating for a region in which "the air is impregnated with assassination" and one-half the population ready to cut the throats of the other half. He is, however, by no means the only person whose legal attainments have been first revealed by this Louisiana affair. At the meeting in Boston recently held to protest against the military interference with the organization of the legislature in Louisiana, Mr. Wendell Phillips made a speech, in which he hurled defiance at all lawyers present and to come, and staked his great legal reputation on the soundness of the proposition, that if there be any unfairness in the election of the speaker of a legislative body, or if any persons, even five per cent. of those present and participating, have not been returned as elected by the canvassers, the assemblage becomes *ipso facto* illegal, or liable to dispersal as a mob by the executive. It does not seem to have occurred to this great thinker that if this were good law it would have become a settled usage of parliamentary bodies to assemble and organize either in secret recesses of the woods and mountains or in fortified buildings and behind locked doors, because in the warfare which lasted for so many years between parliament and the executive the latter would be sure to have found cause between the calling of the roll and the election of the speaker for the dispersal of the members. Either he would have put his creatures up to making a disturbance, or he would have got outsiders to smuggle themselves into the hall to take part in the proceedings, and so furnish him with a good reason for coming down with the troops. The fact is, however, that the doctrine is only about a month old. Parliaments had been in existence a thousand years before it was heard of. It has owed its origin to the effect of the Louisiana imbroglio on the sensorium of Mr. Phillips and some other wiser people who think that a government of men is better than a government of laws.

---

The Sub-Committee, composed of Messrs. Clarkson Potter of New York, Phelps of New Jersey, Foster of Ohio (one Democrat and two Republicans), which went down to New Orleans to investigate the state of things in Louisiana, and was luckily present when the late military interference occurred, have returned, and made a report, which has probably attracted more attention than any document of a similar character which has been laid before the country for a long time, first because it is unanimous, instead of, as is usual, giving a Republican and a Democratic version; and, secondly, because the story it tells is totally opposed to the one which the Administration and its friends have been for some time telling the public—opposed, let us add, to the version which is necessary to keep the Republican party on its legs. The

three members of the Sub-Committee, too, are men of high standing and character—two of them lawyers, and all of them men of acuteness and judgment. They only stayed in New Orleans eight days, but they took 1,500 printed pages of testimony, and tried to get at the facts in the matter of intimidation by asking the Radicals to select parishes as good examples of what was worst in Conservative doings, and confining the enquiry to them. In Rapides Parish, for instance, three Conservatives were returned to the legislature by an election which the United States Supervisor certified as fair and peaceable. But before the Returning Board reached its decision, it declared all the Republicans elected, on the strength of the affidavit of its president, a Mr. Wells, that there had been intimidation in the parish. This was not brought to the notice of the Democratic counsel before the Board, and they had no opportunity to contradict it. The Sub-Committee in vain invited Wells to appear before them. He declined to do so, or to appear personally before anybody, but offered to send them written depositions, and, to crown all, it turned out he was not himself in the parish on the day of the election.

In short, neither in Rapides Parish, nor in the other parishes which they examined, did the Sub-Committee discover any proof of the intimidation on which the Returning Board altered the vote; nor did they light on any traces of the alleged outrages, although they offered every inducement in their power for persons of all classes to come forward and prove them. They cite one remarkable illustration of the way in which stories of intimidation are got up. Mr. Riddle, the United States Commissioner, issued a large number of warrants against white persons, on the application of colored persons, shortly before the election, and required the persons arrested to find bail, secured by real estate within the parish. As this would have caused great delay or difficulty, the friends of the persons arrested went to him in a long procession, each member offering his bond; this the Commissioner treated not only as derisive of his proceedings, but as "intimidation." The Sub-Committee close by a general review of the state of things in Louisiana, as it appeared to them, which we wish we could extract bodily. It may best be summed up by saying that under the existing government the judges have been corrupted; a board of the Governor's appointees has absolute control over the elections; the mode of trying titles to office is extraordinary; the city police is an armed military force, maintained by the city, but commanded by the Governor; the constitution has been evaded by substitution of appointed for elective judges, by extraordinary burdens of taxation, and measures of unusual and unprecedented severity against persons in arrears. In short, there is a general want of confidence in the government; complete prostration of business, and depreciation of private property and of the public securities, which have fallen in two years from 70 and 80 to 25; an increase of taxation "almost literally to the extent of confiscation"; and, as a natural consequence of these things, a general resort on the part of the negroes of the rural districts to petty marauding as a means of livelihood.

Mr. E. W. Stoughton has written a letter to the *Times* on the occurrences in Louisiana which has given much comfort to the friends of the Administration, but very much more than a close examination of the letter will account for. Apart from expressions of confidence in the goodness of the President and General Sheridan's and General De Trobriand's intentions, and in the sagacity of the members of the Cabinet, and of a sense of the desirableness of waiting for full particulars before making up our minds, what Mr. Stoughton has to say is that the body which General De Trobriand interfered with was not a "lawful legislature, peaceably assembled," but "a lawless body, which had come into existence by violence and fraud." His version of the facts on which these conclusions are based is that one hundred and two persons lawfully elected members of the legislature entered the hall at the appointed hour, and their names were called over, according to law, by the clerk of the old House, and that immediately thereafter, by a hocus-pocus vote, in which five persons present whose names were not on the roll took part, Wiltz, the Conservative candidate, was elected Speaker, and sprang forward and took the chair, by force or surprise; and that thereupon, in the presence of the Radical members, the five persons above-named were declared duly returned as members of the Assembly. This is the whole of Mr. Stoughton's story. Now, if these occurrences—that is, the unfair or fraudulent election of the Speaker—converted the persons present into "a lawless body, forcibly assembled," and gave the Governor the right to interfere, it was his duty to have cleared the hall and made it ready for the lawful occupants. But, according to Mr. Stoughton, he did nothing of the kind. He simply sent soldiers in to remove the five persons who, as he thought, had not been properly returned. The rest of the "conspirators," as Mr. Stoughton calls them, he left in the hall, to continue their wicked work, whatever it was, and prevent the meeting of the lawful legislature, and there they remained, or might have remained, to this day.

We think, however, it is plain as a pikestaff, on Mr. Stoughton's own showing, that the body of persons who assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives were not, as he would have us believe, a lawless mob, but the materials of the lawful legislature. That they assembled peaceably and regularly is shown by the fact, which Mr. Stoughton acknowledges, that the clerk of the old House called the roll in proper form. That the body as it stood at this point did not possess the rights and privileges of a parliamentary body, because it had not yet elected its speaker, and might lawfully be set upon by troops and dispersed, is a doctrine for which, we say it with all deference, Mr. Stoughton is unable to produce a shadow of authority either in dictum, decision, or precedent. What happened afterwards was that this lawful parliamentary body, peaceably assembled, did not elect a speaker in a manner which an outsider named Kellogg thought proper. Certain persons were allowed to vote whom an outsider named Kellogg thought not qualified, and he therefore interfered, not to disperse a mob, as in Mr. Stoughton's theory he ought to have done, but to arrest five persons sitting in the House in the presence of a lawful quorum of the House. In short, if Mr. Stoughton's law were good, any governor might go down with troops when a legislature was about to elect a speaker, and break the body up, on the ground that there were outsiders in the House or that the proceedings were not fair; whereas the immemorial usage of parliament is that, a quorum of legally returned members being present, they are sole judges and arbiters of the rightfulness and wrongfulness of everything that occurs subsequently, and, even if a quorum be not present, they have the right to adjourn from day to day, and arrest and compel the attendance of the absentees, and nobody has the shadow of authority to interfere with them.

Congress is getting on very slowly with its work, and it looks as if very little would be done by the 4th of March beyond the passage of the Appropriation Bills. The debate on the Louisiana interference has recently occupied much of the time, and the reimposition of taxation promises to occupy much more. Last week, Mr. Kasson introduced a supplementary specie-payment bill in the House, to provide for the destruction of retired legal-tenders; and the House passed a bill, reported from the Banking and Currency Committee, removing the limitation on the circulation of gold banks. On Wednesday the President's message on Louisiana was received in the Senate, and a long debate took place in the House on the report of the Secretary of the Treasury as to the changes made in the tariff by the revised statutes. Many complaints have been made in some of the newspapers that the committee which had in charge the codification of the statutes had made material alterations in the laws; but the fact seems to be more probably that there arose in the revision of the statutes great difficulty of determining exactly what the tariff laws actually were in particular cases, owing to the multiplicity

of opinions, often conflicting, delivered by Government officials. This matter was referred, after some debate, to the Committee on the Revision of the Laws. On the same day an attack was made by the Democrats on the Indian Department, and particularly on the appointment of Orville Grant, the President's brother, as trader at one of the Indian agencies, which Mr. Beck declared to be in contravention of the Intercourse Law of June 30, 1834. On the same day, Mr. George H. Boker of Philadelphia was confirmed by the Senate as Minister to Russia. On Friday, the bill for the sale of the Japanese indemnity bonds and the distribution of the proceeds was rejected, and the report of the Louisiana Investigating Committee was presented. The Senate on Monday rejected a proposition to reduce the salary of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, and discussed the proposed Bureau of Commerce and Statistics. The House passed a bill to pay $25,000 for Kalakaua's visit, and the Committee on the District of Columbia made a report, showing gross mismanagement under Shepherd.

The President has approved the Finance Bill recently passed, and accompanied his approval with a message which, in one respect at least, is very remarkable, and illustrates the extraordinary way in which the majority in Congress attends to some of the most important business of the country. The Currency Bill, we need hardly say, was intended to be one of the most important pieces of legislation since the war, being neither more nor less than an attempt to rescue the currency of a great commercial nation from the disorder of fourteen years of war and turmoil. If ever there was a bill, therefore, which called for careful debate, it was this. In any other civilized legislature, it is safe to say, it would have been discussed for a couple of weeks in each House, and light thrown on it from every quarter, and it would probably have been prepared after a careful enquiry by a committee. As a matter of fact, however, it was not debated at all, and was concocted in a caucus. In the Senate, it passed almost on a brief statement from Mr. Sherman. In the House, it was not even referred to a committee at all, and was put through without comment under the previous question.

The result is that the President, who, in company with the *Evening Post*, looks on it as a *bonâ-fide* financial scheme, or else pretends that he does, has now produced in a message, in the simplest way, the various considerations which members of the legislature should have produced in debate. He points out that if we are going to resume specie payments in 1879, as the bill provides, we must make some provision by increased taxation both for the requisite annual contribution—about $30,000,000—to the sinking fund, and for the redemption of the $80,000,000 of greenbacks of which the bill contemplates the withdrawal whenever $100,000,000 are issued in national-bank notes; and for this purpose he suggests the restoration of the duty on tea and coffee, and the repeal of the ten per cent. reduction made on certain articles on the tariff in June, 1872. He is apparently much more enlightened about the laws of a silver currency than he was in 1873, and mentions, as somebody ought to have mentioned in the House, that the provision of the bill for the substitution of silver coins for the fractional currency cannot be carried out while the premium on gold is over ten per cent., inasmuch as the silver would at this rate be exported as fast as coined. He perceives now clearly that you cannot keep coin afloat in company with a legal-tender of lower value, even with the aid of "the previous question." By way of preparing for resumption in gold, he suggests that the Secretary should be in the meantime empowered to redeem legal-tender notes, in sums not less than $100, at the rate of 110, less interest at the rate of two and a half per cent. per annum from the 1st of January, 1875, and diminishing the premium from time to time until 1879. He fixes the rate at which the greenbacks should be redeemed at ten per cent. because, at this rate, silver would stay afloat; and he calls for a new mint, in order to produce the amount of silver coin which the execution of the law will require. But Congress, to be consistent, ought to lay the message on the table without allowing it to be read.

The Pacific Mail enquiry is still going on, and at one time during the week promised to lead to valuable results, in the discovery of some half-a-dozen members who, at the time of the passage of the subsidy, were seen going about with suspicious thousand-dollar bills in their possession. These bills, according to the testimony of one Dillon, clerk of the Sergeant-at-arms, were either "broken up" or deposited with this officer, but an examination of the latter's books seems to show no traces of them, and the conclusion is that they were simply broken up. Irwin has got himself taken before a judge on *habeas corpus*, and still declines to make any disclosures, though it seems he holds private audiences, now and then, in which he makes dark insinuations as to knowledge of the subsidy corruption possessed by various persons. On Monday, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, the editor of the *Tribune*, appeared before the Committee, and was asked to explain some remarks of the *Tribune* on the scandal. He mentioned one or two persons whom he thought, without knowing anything of his own knowledge, might aid the Committee in their enquiries; but the chief interest of his examination turned on a paragraph or article referring to two members of Congress as being currently reported to be implicated. The Committee very foolishly asked Mr. Reid who these Congressmen were, when they had the pleasure of learning that they were Messrs. Dawes and Wood. Mr. Reid, however, stated that he only mentioned the rumor as one which was current, and it apparently came from "well-informed" circles in Wall Street.

On Monday, the 18th, Major George E. Head entered the Vicksburg sheriff's office with a squad of troops, and drove out the sheriff, Mr. J. A. Flanagan. Flanagan is Crosby's successor, he having been elected sheriff on the Conservative ticket towards the end of last month after Crosby's ejection, and was in full legal possession of the office, there not having been even a case at law on the subject. Major Head, having driven Flanagan out, retired for a brief consultation, not with the General commanding the Department, or even the Governor of the State, but with "Chancellor Hill," who we should suppose from his title had merely an equitable jurisdiction, but who by some process best known to himself immediately appointed one William H. McGhee sheriff *pro tem.*, McGhee having been deputy under Crosby. These proceedings are so monstrous and unprecedented, even in the South, that we must confess our inability to characterize them properly. They are, on the facts now stated, worse than anything done in Louisiana, for not even a pretence of law is made, but the military, in collusion with a judge, arrange the government as they please on the Mexican plan. It will, no doubt, be defended on the ground that two months ago some negroes were unjustly and cruelly killed by the Vicksburg whites, but we believe that the public understand this kind of argument now pretty well.

The only news from Europe of much moment is that Mr. Gladstone has formally resigned the leadership of the Liberal party in the House of Commons. This was foreshadowed in the letter of our correspondent weeks ago, and in the same place will be found some useful speculation as to his probable successor. The publication of the pamphlet on the Papacy was one more added to the causes which had before his late defeat done much to unfit him for the place. There is now a fair prospect that the Conservatives will stay in power, in the absence of any sudden cataclysm, for five or ten years, and they will be kept there by the thoroughly lethargic temper of the public. This period would undoubtedly bring Mr. Gladstone to the close of his working career, and he is by no means very able in opposition. He has a singularly fertile and acute mind, and shines most of all in suggestion and origination. His somewhat morbid conscientiousness, on the other hand, makes him a poor critic or assailant, and he therefore probably does wisely in seeking well-won repose. The appearance of another article from his pen in the *Edinburgh Review* on the Papal question makes it seem as if he were going to make this a specialty. The successor most talked of at this moment is Mr. Forster, who has undoubtedly the requisite wei ght for the place, but would as a debater fill it only indifferently.

## TRICKS OF INTERPRETATION.

THE *Evening Post* had the other day some excellent observations on what Mr. Sumner called "the sleeping giant of the Constitution," or, in plain English, that clause of the Constitution which directs the United States Government to "guarantee a republican form of government" to the various States. The *Post* pointed out that the modern interpretation of this clause is "wholly a modern discovery"; that "the adjective 'sleeping' was applied to the clause because no one had ever previously thought of using it for its present purpose, and the substantive 'giant' was applied to it because it was thought to yield an ample constitutional power, authorizing the nation to do what at that time it felt disposed to do." They who flattered themselves that, after the war was over and the work of Reconstruction completed, "the giant" would be allowed to sleep, are evidently mistaken; for the proposal to interfere again in Louisiana by ordering a new election, which is now before Congress, and the proposal to interfere in Arkansas by overturning the present State constitution, which a powerful carpet-bag lobby is now urging on Congress, are both plans for waking "the giant" up and setting him to work, and, more than this, for keeping him awake and active as long as the Government lasts. The pretext, and the sole one, on which Congress talks of interfering in Louisiana is that, inasmuch as the last election was unfair, the State does not possess a "republican form of government"; the pretext, and the sole one, on which Congress is asked to interfere in Arkansas, is that the constitution, though confessedly adopted by a large majority of the people, was not submitted to them in the manner prescribed by the previous constitution, or, in other words, was adopted in an irregular manner. It is an easy inference, and an inevitable one, that if the construction of the Constitution on which these schemes are based should prevail, the States would be reduced to the level of municipalities, and the State constitutions to that of city charters. If Congress has power to "order a new election" in Louisiana, it has exactly the same power in Massachusetts; if it has the power to set aside the Arkansas constitution, it has the power to set aside the late amendments to the constitution of this State. In fact, as is now, we are glad to say, becoming obvious to people at the North ever since the readmission of the Southern States to the Union, whatever affects the relations of the General Government to those States affects its relations to all the States; and whatever the majority in Congress may be allowed to do when composed of virtuous and well-meaning men, it must be allowed to do when composed of wicked and designing men.

We are not disposed to find fault with the various expedients resorted to by the anti-slavery men at the North both to carry on the war and to procure through the war the destruction of slavery, just as we have never been disposed to find fault with Mr. Chase for issuing the legal-tenders. There are some crises in which a struggle for the strict construction of constitutions and statutes is very like the race, with the mob at his heels, of the Master of the Ceremonies at Versailles after Lafayette towards the royal apartments, shouting to him, in order to save the court etiquette from a total overthrow, that the King permitted him the "grandes entrées." When men are dying for a certain object by the ten thousand, to tell them their views are unconstitutional has an air of ghastly absurdity about it. Things that are done in war are hardly more likely to be drawn into precedent in time of peace than an officer who makes requisitions on the march is likely to rob on the highway after he returns home. The danger to free government from war begins after the hostilities are over, and lies in the desire and attempt of those who have been carrying on the war to keep up its doctrines and methods in quiet times and convert them into political usages. Therefore, although it made very little difference on what constitutional theory the slaves were freed or Southern cities occupied and governed between 1861 and 1866, it makes a great deal of difference on what constitutional theory the President sends troops down to New Orleans in 1875. Mr. Sumner's sleeping giant was a very harmless monster while the cannon were roaring, and he could be put to some work suited to his capacity in the field, and when he could comfort Mr. Sumner without injuring anybody else. But now that we are settling down on the principles and practices on which the nation means to live during a thousand years of peace, it is proper to say that the giant is not, as one might suppose, a creature of enormous power, but a common trickster or "confidence man," who ought not to be allowed to open his lips in any assembly of honest people.

It is plain to be seen by the proposals made with regard to Louisiana, that the purpose of the majority in Congress is to give the phrase "republican form of government" not only a wider meaning than that in which the framers of the Constitution used it, or than the civilized world now attaches to it, but a meaning which will cover almost unlimited Federal interference in State affairs. What the majority in Congress now mean by a "republican form of government" is a government satisfactory to them, or a government set up in a way satisfactory to them, no matter how carefully the marks of a republic may be preserved in the Constitution. For instance, if there has been fraud or intimidation at the election of the governor or legislature, they are disposed not only to treat fraud or intimidation as depriving the Government of its republican character, but to decide themselves how much fraud or intimidation is necessary for the purpose. But they will not specify how many votes must be falsely cast, or how many voters "intimidated," in order to warrant Congress in "ordering a new election" and the President in sending down troops; and, as far as appears now, any number of fraudulent votes, or any amount of intimidation which deprives the party in power of a working majority, would suffice. "Intimidation," too, is a word of course of the vaguest kind, of which there exists no legal definition. Anything which frightens a man, or which he says frightens him, will come under that head in the estimation of the present and last Congress. As one can only know from the man himself whether he was frightened or not, all that is necessary under the ruling theory to warrant Congress in setting aside an election is that one or more persons shall say that they were prevented from voting through fear. For instance, the Government, as Mr. Schurz pointed out in the happiest way in his late speech, is the greatest intimidator of voters in existence—the "champion intimidator," as he termed it. At every election it "intimidates" all persons in its service—about 60,000 in all—by threatening them with the loss of their places in case they vote against the party to which the President belongs; and it carries out this threat. Nevertheless, under the Enforcement Acts a private citizen who does this with his employés is liable to criminal prosecution, and large numbers of persons in Louisiana and Alabama were at the late elections arrested for this offence and dragged from their homes to find bail at great distances; and Congress claims the right on such charges not only to have persons guilty of them punished, but to overturn the State government. We need hardly say that no election ever occurs either at the North or South in which there is not some intimidation and some fraud; and if we allow the majority in Congress to decide that any fraud or intimidation destroys the republican character of the State government, and rouses "the sleeping giant," of course the State government becomes an expensive and useless mockery, and the best thing to be done is to attach a bureau of State Administration to the custom-houses or post-offices, and turn the collectors or postmasters into prefects.

The truth is, and it is a very melancholy truth, that in the efforts to cover not only what has been done at the South, but what in the estimation of every good Republican had to be done in order to make the colored people a true part of the body politic, a large portion of the party (and in some respects the best portion of it) has worked itself into what may be called a thoroughly dishonest frame of mind, in which it is ready for any trick, whether of interpretation or policy, which may seem necessary to the great end in view. The plan of interpreting and construing the Constitution so as to get out of it, not what the framers meant, or what any generation since the framers understood it to mean, but what it would now be convenient to one party or the other to have it mean, was originated in the heat

of the anti-slavery struggle. To say that it is thoroughly dishonest is only passing on it a portion of the condemnation which it deserves. It must also be said that the work of forced construction for any purpose, however high or holy, is one of the basest and most debasing in which the human mind can engage. It has produced in past times some of the very worst and most mischievous examples of moral as well as intellectual degradation. The man who introduces it as one of the weapons of political warfare into a country like this is the agent of a worse corruption than any of the "Bosses" have been guilty of. That Mr. Sumner should have rejoiced in being the discoverer of one of its devices, and should have prided himself on the use of it, is simply a dismal reminiscence, of which his friends ought to be ashamed. His "giant" was a wretched impostor. He (Mr. Sumner) knew that the Constitution, when made, did not mean that a republican form of government must necessarily be based on universal suffrage. He knew that the present generation did not so understand it. He knew that no one ever dreamed of supposing that a government ceases to be republican if an election is marked by frauds or disorders. He knew, too, that for the party in power to attach new meanings to certain terms in the Constitution was simply to amend the Constitution, not in the regular and honest way, but by a trick, by which the minority, for whose protection the Constitution was made, was defrauded of its just rights. The consolation honest men have in witnessing these dodges on the part of men pluming themselves on their morality, is that they cannot succeed except for a brief period. Unscrupulousness on one side produces counter-unscrupulousness on the other, and excess begets reaction. The reckless course which the Republican party is now pursuing will undoubtedly before long bring the Democrats into power, and when in power they will undoubtedly arm themselves with weapons from the Republican arsenal. The "giant" will be waked up, and forced to do dirty work for the Democrats as he did it for the Republicans. For the outrageous legislation of the Republican party for the protection of the colored voters will be substituted, not moderate, reasonable, and legal protection, but the absence of all protection. For the reckless use of the troops at the South will be substituted the total withdrawal of the troops; and we feel sure that the shameless effrontery recently displayed in the manufacture of "outrages" will be succeeded by indifference regarding all negro disabilities or sufferings. If anybody doubts these predictions, let him read the justifications of Sheridan's interference with the Louisiana Legislature which one now finds in many Republican papers, on the ground that Pierce and the Democrats committed and applauded the same violence when committed against the Legislature of Kansas, and that General De Trobriand was first called in at New Orleans by the Democratic side.

## THE PROPOSED LEGISLATION FOR LOUISIANA.

ALTHOUGH the government headed by Kellogg is conceded by all except a comparatively few bitter and blind partisans to be an impudent usurpation, sustained in place by the United States soldiery alone; although an election has just been held in which the wishes of the people were unmistakably made known; and although the special report of a committee, composed of three as honest, fair-minded, and judicious men as could have been selected from the whole House of Representatives, shows that this election was conducted without the slightest wrong on the part of the actual majority, and that the interference and "intimidation," if any, were from the other side, yet in the face of these facts—facts which are undeniable, and which cannot be covered up by the most vigorous expedients of diligent partisanship—the President advises Congress to order a new election; and the current of opinion among those more moderate Republicans who are unwilling to deliver over the State completely into the hands of Kellogg, Casey, and their associates, seems to be tending towards the adoption of his plan. A bill has already been introduced into the House by Mr. Butler, and will, it is said, be reported by the Judiciary Committee, which authorizes such an election and provides for carrying this purpose into effect. Although the proposed bill may receive some modifications in its course through the Committee and the two Houses, yet if passed it will necessarily include all the substantial features which are found in it at present. In all the provisions involving matters of principle —the powers of the national legislature, the relations of the Federal and the State governments, and the constitutional rights of the States themselves — any statute which should be enacted by Congress purporting to carry into effect the objects of this bill, could not differ from it in essential particulars. The criticisms upon Mr. Butler's method will therefore apply to any other plan for accomplishing the same design, because they will be directed not to the mere forms, the incidents, but to the very object itself which is sought to be attained. The important provisions of this proposed act—and of any other one which may be substituted in its place—are the following: the President appoints two chief commissioners, one from each party, who are to have exclusive control of the election; these chiefs in turn appoint subordinate officials, in pairs, for every election district throughout the State; within a specified time these local officers are to cause a new registration to be made of all the legal voters according to the requirements of the State laws, ample authority being conferred upon them for that purpose; on a certain day named an election is to be held under the control of the chief commissioners and their subordinates for all the State officers who are elective, including members of the legislature, minute provisions being made for the conduct of the election, the canvass of the votes, and the announcement of the result; all the ordinary violations of election laws are guarded against by heavy penalties, and in addition to these the vague offence of "intimidation" is expressly named; persons who shall claim any of the offices by virtue or under color of other elections or modes of choice are to be severely punished; exclusive jurisdiction is given to the United States Circuit Court over all criminal prosecutions arising out of a violation of the penal clauses of the statute; finally, the United States military forces may be used to aid in all such criminal proceedings, both in the service of process and in the enforcement of the judgments, and may also be used to repress violence or intimidation, and to preserve order during the election and during the preliminary process of registration. The persons who are found to have been chosen at this election for the various offices shall become the lawful holders of such offices, anything in the State constitution and laws to the contrary notwithstanding. The title of this bill is noteworthy: "An Act to provide for a general election in the State of Louisiana and to secure a republican form of government in such State."

Granting that there exists a very serious crisis in the political affairs of Louisiana, from which it is difficult to escape and to preserve the peace by any ordinary modes of administration—granting even that the immediate, direct, and practical result of the statute would be a fair, orderly, and quiet election, in which the will of the people would find a true expression, and that the persons chosen through its means would be the representatives of a majority of the electors and would thenceforward conduct the local administration in a proper manner, respecting and protecting the private and public rights of all classes of citizens—granting, in short, that all the immediate benefits to the State which its warmest friends could anticipate or hope would be fully obtained, there are still grave objections to such a mode of procedure in a constitutional government which must far outweigh all the advantages, however certain and sudden. The evils to be apprehended from wrong political precedents in a country like our own, in which the whole law, private and public, is developed from and built upon precedents, are so enormous that their disastrous consequences should be ever kept present in the sight of the legislators who make, and of the people who approve, them. Notwithstanding the extraordinary power possessed by the United States Supreme Court in the last resort to pass upon the validity of a statute of Congress and to pronounce it unconstitutional and void, this power is limited in its action and

comparatively weak in its efficiency, because it can only be invoked to determine private rights by the decision of private controversies; it cannot invade the domain of purely political administration or legislation. The limitations imposed upon Congress by the Constitution in respect of all matters political in their nature, which create political relations rather than private rights and duties, cannot be enforced by the judgments of courts. Their only sanction is a moral one—the restraining force of popular opinion. The interpretation of the grants of power made to the legislature must be primarily established by itself and finally by the people which it represents.

The language of the Constitution which confers a power upon the Federal Government to interfere under certain circumstances in the local affairs of a State, is so simple and plain that there is no room for construction. Louisiana is in all respects a State; its relations with the Union are normal; it stands in exactly the same position as that occupied by New York or any other of the commonwealths. As the legal status is thus defined, neither the President nor Congress can deal with it in an exceptional manner. The only portion of the Constitution which furnishes any appearance of authority for the measure under discussion is Section IV. of the IVth Article: "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive when the Legislature cannot be convened, against domestic violence." The case of an invasion may, of course, be laid out of view. Whatever may have been the facts during the two years preceding the last fall, there can be no shadow of pretence, in the face of the report just made to Congress by Messrs. Foster, Phelps, and Potter, that any domestic violence existed during the recent election or the registration preliminary thereto, or at the time when the legislature convened, which would have justified a demand upon the President for aid, or a compliance on his part if the demand were made. But even if such domestic violence had existed, the remedy contemplated by the Constitution is simply the repression of the unlawful resistance by the military arm of the nation. No authority can be found in the particular provision for Congress to interfere by its statute and to order and conduct a new election. All that the clause calls for in any event is Executive action, directed to the single end of subduing the internal violence. The author of the bill shows by the title which he gave it that he does not claim any authority for the measure in the grant of power to protect a State against domestic violence; he rests it alone upon the other clause respecting a republican form of government. A vast meaning and import were given to these simple words by Mr. Sumner and a few others, who even found in them a sufficient authority for Congress to regulate the right of suffrage in the States, but their wild vagaries are hardly worthy of sober argument.

The precise language of the provision is noteworthy: The United States shall guarantee to every State a republican *form* of government. There would seem to be, therefore, but one case in which the power here conferred can be made efficient; but this interpretation may be regarded as too refined, and we will concede that the language covers two distinct cases, and these certainly exhaust all its possible meanings. First: If the people of a State should adopt a constitution and scheme of government which was not republican in form, the United States may interfere, and, under its obligations to the minority of the citizens of that commonwealth as well as to the citizens of all the other States, who have an interest in what concerns the whole country, may set aside the attempted government, and in some manner may establish, or permit to be established, another in its place which shall be republican in form. There is, of course, no pretence that this condition of affairs exists, or has existed, in Louisiana. Its constitution and governmental system are confessedly without fault, and were expressly approved and ratified by Congress. Secondly: The only other possible case would arise when a State constitution and government had been already adopted, republican in form, but by means of an organized and forcible resistance of sufficient magnitude to the lawful officers—a domestic insurrection, in fact—this government was prevented from administering the public affairs, and was either actually overthrown or was in imminent danger of being thus overthrown. Under such circumstances, the interference of the United States to repress the violence, to overpower the armed array, to quell the insurrection, and to restore and uphold the lawful authorities, might be considered as a mode of guaranteeing to the State a republican form of government. But this is also the very case provided for in the clause of the Constitution first quoted, which authorizes protection against domestic violence; and, plainly, neither the President nor the Congress has any authority, as a step in the suppression of the domestic violence, to sweep away the State laws and order and conduct an election. It is enough to say, however, in reference to this second case, that such a condition of affairs does not exist in Louisiana. There is no resistance, no attempt to overthrow the constitution or to abolish the government. The only controversy is between persons claiming to have been elected to certain offices, and this dispute is not different in kind from similar ones which have occurred in every State. No argument can add anything to the force of this simple and self-evident interpretation of the Constitution. The proposed action of Congress, the election ordered by it and conducted by national officials, would be a palpable, defiant violation of its spirit and letter. If accomplished and acquiesced in by the people, it would be a virtual declaration that our boasted organic law, with all its limitations and restraints, was a mere form of words, to be disregarded and treated with contempt upon every occasion when the necessities of party require it.

# Correspondence.

## "AN ALLEGED DICTUM OF COPERNICUS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must plead guilty to the charge of inaccurate citation alleged by "J. B. S.," and am much obliged to him for pointing out the error. It is hardly proper, however, to speak of Mr. Lewes as erring with me in attributing the dictum in question to Copernicus. In his 'Aristotle,' p. 92, it is true, Mr. Lewes appears to have regarded Copernicus as the author of the preface in which the dictum occurs, and he evidently cites it at second-hand, for he tells us that he does not remember where he found it. But in the 'Problems of Life and Mind,' p. 317, where he again alludes to the dictum, Mr. Lewes adds: "From Gassendi's work, 'Nicolai Copernici Vita,' 1655, p. 319, I find that the remark . . . was perhaps only due to Copernicus in the sense that he countenanced its publication, for it was not written by him, but by his disciple Osiander in the preface which he added when he gave the work of Copernicus to the public. It may therefore have been simply *une précaution oratoire* to render the heretical doctrine of the earth's movement less offensive." Possibly there may have been some covert sarcasm in the remark; *i.e.*, "It is not necessary, my theological friends, for our hypotheses to be true, in the absolute sense in which your dogmas are held to be true, for it is quite enough for us if we can reconcile theory with observation." The distinction here indicated is at least closely akin to the distinction between the scientific and the metaphysical points of view which I have taken pains to elucidate. But whatever Copernicus or Osiander may have had in mind, it is plainly myself only, and not Mr. Lewes, who is responsible for the inaccurate shape which my quotation assumed. Perhaps I should add that at just the time when in London I revised this part of my book or the press, I did not have either of Mr. Lewes's works at hand, and depended upon a pencil-note in my memorandum-book.—Very truly yours,

John Fiske.

Harvard College Library, January 15, 1875.

## A POLICY FOR LOUISIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The leading article of the last *Nation* on "The Law and the Facts in Louisiana" closes with these unsatisfactory words: "As regards the proper mode of dealing with this question on the part of the public, it is difficult to know what to say." In this respect you seem to concur with the various speakers and public characters who have recently addressed the country on the subject. Have we not now had quite enough of "the law and the facts" in the case? Is not the one question the very question you

avoid? Here is a practical difficulty, and it calls pressingly for a practical solution.

My voice will not reach far amid the turmoil; but will you let me offer a suggestion? There are three parties, and three only, to this complication—the existing legislative and executive departments of the United States, constituting in fact the National Government; the people of the United States; and the people of Louisiana. The National Government now is, as the recent election shows, administered by those representing a minority of the people—the rump, in fact, of the once great Republican party. These men have apparently become bewildered by defeat, have lost their heads, and, seeking to settle everything through the decision of the caucus enforced by party discipline, are rushing as fast as they can upon their destruction. It is for the people to see that they do not carry the country there with them.

No calm and observing man can to-day doubt that a vast majority of the people are utterly opposed, on the Louisiana issue, to the existing Government. The adverse majorities of last autumn have quadrupled since the year 1875 began. One thing, and one thing only, can save the faction now in control of the Government—that one thing is a renewal of a fierce war spirit in the North, resulting from the violence of despair in the South. The relief of Louisiana is certain if no such reaction intervenes. At the outside, two years of patience only are necessary to bring the majority of the people of the country to the side of the people of Louisiana. Submission and patience are hard things; but for two years submission and patience it must be, or the result is in danger.

But what is to be done to-day? One thing that I can see, and only one, can be done. Let the Conservative Legislature of Louisiana give solemn notice to the whole world that they are now subjected by force to a usurpation, every act of which is null and void, and shall be so treated hereafter. Let them publicly declare that so surely as the day of relief comes, every debt contracted by the usurping government shall be repudiated, every tax-title issued set aside. Let them in one word publish to the world the existing administration of the State as a fraud, by no act of which will the people of Louisiana be bound, so soon as they are restored to the control of their own affairs.

This one solemn notice given, let the Conservative Legislature hold up its hands in submission, and disperse; the rest may be safely left to the people of the whole country. Two years is a short time, when at the expiration of it relief is sure. During that brief time let no Conservative of Louisiana go to the polls or enter a legislative hall; the worse their oppression, the better. Let them simply submit. They need not fear that a day of reckoning will not come; and then the Government of the United States and all public opinion will justify them in treating their present rulers as criminals, and each and every of their official acts as absolutely and *ab initio* null and void.—I am, etc.,

C. F. Adams, Jr.

Quincy, Mass., January 16, 1875.

## THE "ACADEMY" AND THE "CARDIFF GIANT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to an article in the London *Academy* of December 5, which deserves wider circulation among American scholars than it is likely to receive in the columns of that journal.

The *Nation* of November 12 (p. 318), in a report of the American Oriental Society's meeting in New York, mentioned the "lively and amusing debate" that followed my review of "some recent discussions of the evidence of Phœnician colonization in America," and remarked that much astonishment was expressed by members of the society at Dr. Schlottmann's "accepting as genuine that exploded humbug, the 'Cardiff Giant,' . . . a false antique which was completely exposed years ago, and of which the true character is known to all well-informed persons in this country." This notice seems to have given offence to Mr. Alexander MacWhorter, of New Haven—who professes still to believe in the giant and in the "Phœnician inscription" of which he was the discoverer—and drew from him a letter to the New Haven *Palladium*, which was printed in that journal November 16. The *Academy* copies part of this letter, and gives an abstract of the rest, as evidence that "the statue of Adonis, discovered in America"—meaning the Cardiff Giant aforesaid—"still continues an apple of discord among American scholars." Mr. MacWhorter wrote that Prof. White, of Yale College, pronounced certain "stories of the recent manufacture of the statue, in plain Saxon, *lies*." The *Academy* makes this expression apply to "*all* the stories of the recent manufacture of the statue," and remarks: "This is the language which professors of the same university use towards each other in America." The final comment on the whole matter—which the *Academy* chooses to regard as "by no means settled"—is in the tone which some correspondents of that journal seem privileged to assume when dealing with "American scholars" generally:

"When will American scholars learn to speak gently? We read in the same number of the *Palladium* of a 'Lacerated Actress attempting to Cowhide an Editor': do the members of the American Oriental and Philological Societies behave much better?"

I take no exception to the largeness of the figure which presents the gypsum colossus as "an apple of discord," though I cannot but wonder how Flaxman would have treated it in outline. Fancy the good Dr. Schlottmann figuring—in the attitude of Persico's Columbus—as "Discordia tetra," poising in air the ponderous *malum* (the Latin word is convenient here), to bowl it back over the Atlantic, to the discomfiture of American scholars! But, as I have said, I do not object to the figure. To the statement—which Mr. MacWhorter's letter does *not* authorize—that, at the meeting of the Oriental Society, I "declared the Onondaga statue 'to be a false antique,'" etc., I have a right to object. The words quoted by the *Academy* are from the *Nation's* comment, not from my paper. I would as soon have "declared" my want of confidence in Barnum's "Mermaid" or Mark Twain's reported discovery of the grave of Adam.

No member of either the Oriental or the Philological Society has, so far as appears, spoken otherwise than "gently" of the giant, the inscription, or the discoverer. The language which Mr. MacWhorter attributes to Prof. White was, as the context most clearly shows, not used towards another professor in the same university, or in any other. The suggestions of the *Academy* on the points are, to say the least, uncalled for.

It is but justice to Dr. White to add that, far from using hard language towards all who pronounce the Cardiff Giant a "sham antique," he has not yet announced to the public his own *decided* belief in its antiquity. His first and last utterance, so far as I can learn, was by a letter he addressed to Mr. MacWhorter in 1871, before the true history of the statue was generally known. He then wrote: "I cannot say that it was *not* made (as some claim it was) within two or three years; but I could not be *satisfied* [the italics are his] with any such view." Again, "I am not, on the other hand, *certain* that it is a work of ancient art"; and finally, "Though not fully *decided*, *I incline* to the opinion that the statue is of ancient origin."

"Nothing would seem to be more natural," the *Academy* suggests, "than to wait till the matter has been fully investigated." Would it have been an excess of courtesy to assume that it *had* been investigated, and, to quote again from the *Nation*, "completely exposed, years ago"? Among the members of the Oriental Society present at the New York meeting were some "who were personally conversant of the main facts in the history [of the statue], who had seen and talked with the workmen in the Chicago shops where it was produced, who had examined the dim lines asserted to be an inscription, and found them mere scratches or water-marks," and so on. Mr. MacWhorter suggests, it is true, a doubt whether the "well-meaning citizens" who make up the Oriental Society are qualified to judge whether the inscription was Phœnician or not; but this consideration does not affect the real issue—to try which, any jury of well-meaning citizens of average intelligence is as competent as a full congress of German Orientalists, or the most valued correspondent of the *Academy*. Admitting that Professors Salisbury and Whitney, Dr. Woolsey, Dr. Hayes Ward, Mr. S. Salisbury, and their associates were none of them so "well informed, according to the German standard," as is Mr. MacWhorter, they may yet be qualified to pass judgment on the age of the statue, on evidence quite independent of the "inscription," real or imaginary. If they knew that the block of gypsum from which the *Adonis* was carved was taken a few years ago from a quarry near Fort Dodge, Iowa, and that it was fashioned in the workshop of Mr. Burckhardt, a well-known marble-worker of Chicago, it would be hardly worth their while to proceed to the "investigation" of the Phœnician inscription. To be "well informed" on these points, one has only to look through the files of any respectable journal of three or four years ago. In July, 1871, the editors of the *American Journal of Science* (Third Series, vol. ii., p. 73) "thought it worth while to record very briefly the real history of this sham, that it may find its place in the already large catalogue of popular delusions." The main facts of this record were "ascertained from an intelligent witness, who was cognizant of the origin and progress of the statue," and whose statement the editor "had taken pains to verify." I cannot learn that this statement has been controverted or its general accuracy seriously questioned by American scientists or scholars, Mr. MacWhorter excepted. But if further evidence were needed, it could be had in abundance. I have before me memoranda supplied by one who knew some of the parties to the fraud, and who was at the pains of

tracking the giant's progress, stage by stage, from the Iowa quarry to the exhumation at Newell's farm in Cardiff; showing the mode, cost, and date of transportation, and giving ample details of the process of manufacture. The complete gypsography may be worth printing for foreign circulation, now that Dr. Schlottmann has introduced "the exploded humbug" to German scholars, and the *Academy* elects to stand as one of the godfathers of "*the statue of Adonis discovered in America.*" For *this* side of the water the matter is already "fully investigated." The Adonis received its death-blow when Prof. O. C. Marsh, the palæontologist, of Yale College, who saw it before its exhumation, called attention to one fact which other visitors had overlooked—the fact that gypsum is soluble in water. The statue was found in wet ground, near the bank of Onondaga River. It was uninjured by the water in which it lay; *therefore*, its interment was recent. Such additional evidence as was offered by the *straw* which Prof. Marsh found mixed with the earth taken from the pit was not needed to assure him that the work was post-Phœnician.

So far from "continuing an apple of discord," the Phœnician Adonis is not likely to provoke any body of American scholars to other than a "lively and amusing debate," if that can be called debate in which all the speakers are of one opinion. Let me repeat what the *Nation* has said, in the article to which reference has been made: "If German scholars have been incautious enough to have been taken in by so gross a cheat, they have no one but themselves to blame for it."

J. Hammond Trumbull.

Hartford, Conn., Jan. 14.

# Notes.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will publish in the course of the next few weeks an 'Elementary Philosophy,' by James M. Wilcox, Ph.D.; 'Social Science and National Economy,' by Prof. Robert E. Thompson; and Augustus J. C. Hare's 'Days near Rome.'——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have begun publishing, under the direction of the trustees of the Rotch bequest, a new edition of Swedenborg's theological writings. 'The Apocalypse Revealed,' in two volumes, is now issued.——The American Unitarian Association celebrate their half-century by publishing Channing's works in one volume of 931 pages at the low price of one dollar. A passage which we have chanced upon in the letter on the slavery question, p. 817, contains a tribute to the late Gerrit Smith which might well furnish an inscription for his tombstone: "A man worthy of all honor for his overflowing munificence, for his calm yet invincible moral courage, for his Christian liberality, embracing men of every sect and name, and for his deep, active, inexhaustible sympathy with the sinful, suffering, and oppressed."——The "monumental edition," as it is called, of Mr. John Carroll Power's 'Life of Abraham Lincoln' (Springfield, Ill.: E. A. Wilson & Co.), two-thirds of which is given up to an account of "the great funeral cortége," has a curious map "showing the birthplace and course of life" of Lincoln, and also the route of the cortége. The restricted area in which he acted out his part in the history of the country recalls the outcry of "sectionalism" brought against him as a candidate for the Presidency. Many of his predecessors, however, were no better travellers than Lincoln; and few, if any, personally inspected so large a portion (relatively) of the United States as had Washington before his election. ——The San Francisco *News-Letter*, in its pursuit of quacks, is preparing a complete medical directory, giving the names and qualifications of every doctor in the city. Those without diplomas, or with forged or purchased ones, are pilloried every week in the paper, under the heading: "Gentlemen, you call yourselves Doctors. Have you a Diploma?" A list of names and addresses follows.

—The annual report of the Librarian of Congress shows a total of 274,157 volumes, including duplicates, which, under the working of the copyright law, tend steadily to increase. They offer, however, this advantage in the proposed removal of the library from the Capitol, that a sufficient collection can be left behind for the immediate use of Congressmen. Mr. Spofford makes it clear, we think, that a separate building is a necessity, and that for public use and convenience it should be erected in a part of the city somewhat removed from the Capitol. Already more than "fifty thousand volumes are piled upon the floors, without space for shelving or arrangement," and a great number of maps and engravings are kept out of sight for the same reason. The librarian and his assistants are engaged on an abridgment of the titles of the card catalogue, preparatory to printing an exhaustive but condensed catalogue. A still more considerable work has also been undertaken, being no less than a complete index to the documents and debates of Congress. The search for materials for this purpose revealed the fact that "of the early documents up to the Fourteenth Congress, or from 1789 to 1815 inclusive, no two sets are alike, nor is there in any one place in Washington a perfect file of documents printed by order of Congress." After the last-mentioned date, the Library of Congress lacks only about one hundred and fifty volumes of having two copies of every document.

—The pamphlets in the Library are estimated at 53,000. How they are catalogued or kept does not appear, but as the subject is one of some importance, no less in private than in public collections, we append here an extract from the recent report by Mr. Julius Dexter, librarian of the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio in Cincinnati. The card system is used, he says, for bound volumes:

"The pamphlets are similarly catalogued, and their cards are consecutively numbered in red ink, while those of bound volumes are numbered in black ink. A glance at a card thus tells whether the title belongs to a volume or to a pamphlet. Each pamphlet is numbered to correspond with its card, and the pamphlets are then arranged, without regard to subject, numerically in pasteboard boxes, a little larger than the ordinary 8vo size, and about two and a half inches deep, with a common cover. When the box is filled, it is numbered on the outside end with the numbers of the first and last pamphlet within it, and placed flat upon the shelf. The next box filled continues the series of numbers, and goes on to the first box, and so on the pile is built up. Shelves break the pile at every fourth box, and thus in no case can more than three boxes require to be moved to get at any pamphlet. If any pamphlet is demanded, the card catalogue, arranged alphabetically according to author and subject, shows whether the library has a copy, and likewise the number of the pamphlet, which can then be obtained from the numerically arranged boxes without trouble. This arrangement of pamphlets keeps them clean and uncreased, and likewise makes them as accessible as bound volumes. There is also great economy of space in it. A series of reports may be scattered through a dozen boxes, widely separated, but the cards come together in the catalogue drawer, and readily indicate the place of each report."

—Part I. of Gen. F. A. Walker's Statistical Atlas of the United States (New York: J. Bien) relates to the physical features of the country, and is in artistic execution decidedly the finest of the series. The double map XIII.-XIV., for instance, showing the geological formation, is printed in nine colors, and is really beautiful to look at. Plate I.-II. of the river systems has a political significance given to it by the addition of statistics, in each case, of area, population, products, steam and water power, etc. What we may call the North Atlantic watershed, from Maine to the confluents of the Potomac, appears to have the largest population and the greatest amount of steam and water power. The South Atlantic watershed is the chief rice-producing district. The Gulf watershed east of the Mississippi is the cotton district *par excellence*. The Ohio basin takes the lead in tobacco and corn. The Mississippi Valley above St. Louis is the wheat granary of the continent; the same Valley below is the sugar-producing district. In area, the Missouri basin of course is foremost, with more than half a million of square miles. Those of the Colorado and Columbia, and the Great Basin, are nearly equal with each other and with the Ohio—from 200,000 to 300,000 square miles. The Ohio stands second in population. The Lake systems (E. and W.), the Arkansas, Gulf (W.), Rio Grande, San Francisco and Vancouver Bays, are some of the other subdivisions of this remarkable map, over which we must not tarry longer, though it would be easy to do so. Plate III.-IV. shows extent of woodland, emphasizing the lumber supplies of Northern Michigan and Wisconsin, the Adirondacks, Northern Maine, the pine forests of North Carolina, the Gulf forest belt from Florida to the Pascagoula River, the timbered regions of Oregon, California, and the head-waters of the Missouri and the Columbia rivers. The treeless Plains and Great Basin are conspicuous here, as on the following map for lack of rain (Plate V.) Plate VI. shows the frequency with which storm centres pass over given tracts E. of the 100th meridian. Here the stormy character of the Lakes and the St. Lawrence watershed is markedly portrayed, with the 46th parallel as the height of turbulence. Quite isolated is a stormy area in Nebraska including Fort Randall, Yankton, etc., of the fifth degree of intensity—the highest but one. Plate VII. is a chart of mean temperature, indicated by isothermal lines—36° at Pembina, against 76° at Matamoras. Plate VIII. shows mean temperature in the hottest and coldest weeks of 1872, by isothermal curves; the three hottest tracts being about Wilmington, N. C., the border line of Florida and Georgia, and the junction of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi. Chart IX.-X. exhibits curves of annual means of the barometer; Chart X.*a*, the curves of elevation of the United States. Especially interesting is the map of coal-fields east of the 100th meridian (XI.-XII.) The restricted area of the anthracite—in Pennsylvania and Rhode Island and

Massachusetts—is in broad contrast with that of the bituminous coal, which stretches from Pennsylvania to Alabama, and from Iowa to Texas, with connecting fields in Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and Kentucky. These are still better shown together on Plate XIII.-XIV. before alluded to. With the present Part the Atlas is completed, so far as the graphic features of it are concerned. In preparing it Gen. Walker has had the co-operation of recognized authorities on the several subjects delineated, as he duly acknowledges. The text to illustrate the entire work is all that is now wanting to this admirable enterprise.

—Prof. Wilibald Grimm, of Jena, well-known to students of German theology, has published as one of Von Holtzendorff and Oncken's 'Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen' a valuable lecture originally delivered before his Jena students on 'Luther's Bible and the Textual Revision of it' (New York: L. W. Schmidt). He gives very interesting information about the German translation that preceded Luther's and Luther's execution of his work, describes the great effect his translation had at the time and continues to have upon his country's speech, and quotes, in conclusion, with criticisms, various changes made by the revisers. Numerous notes give copious references to the literature relating to Luther's translation, considered in its history and in its effect upon the German language. We are surprised and disappointed at the treatment this body of New Testament revisers has thought proper for the notorious text, 1 John v. 7: "For there are three that bear record in heaven, the Father, the Word, and the Holy Ghost: and these three are one." They have enclosed it in brackets with this note merely, that the "words in brackets are wanting in Luther's translation, and were added to it afterwards." Prof. Grimm says the revisers ought to have remarked that the words are wanting in the Greek also. Accuracy would have required them to say that there is not the slightest ground for supposing the words to be of apostolic authority; that there is no record of them before the fifth century; and that they occur in only three Greek MSS., the oldest of which, on good authority, cannot be referred to an earlier date than the eleventh century. Even Mr. Spurgeon can here teach the Germans boldness in accepting the sure results of criticism. He instructs his people from the pulpit that the text cannot be considered an integral part of the Bible.

—A remark by Prof. Grimm upon the Vulgate's choice of *supersubstantialem* as the rendering of *epiousion* (ἐπιούσιον) in Matt. vi. 11, suggests the curious reflection that in the petition in the Lord's Prayer, "give us this day our daily bread," the real authors of the petition in the mouth of English-speaking Christians are King James's translators, and we have no assurance that their word "daily" conveys the precise qualification intended to be applied in this petition for bread by the original author of it, nor is there a hope of our ever coming any nearer to the thought which at the time of making this prayer was in the mind of the Founder of Christianity. Any one may convince himself that this is true by looking into the commentaries. The word *epiousion* is practically a *hapax legomenon*, occurring elsewhere only in the parallel passage in Luke. Origen considers the word as invented by the Evangelist, but gives no etymology of it. If he is correct, and if Professor Hadley's dictum is also true, that the writers of the Gospels were men by no means scholars in Greek, it appears to be a justifiable conclusion that we must remain standing between the two etymologies proposed for the word, one of which derives it from the noun *ousia*, and the other from the participle *iousa*, "bread necessary for our subsistence," and "bread for the coming day." The latter rendering we should judge to have the weight of ancient testimony, as it occurs in the Arabic and Ethiopic versions, and especially Jerome says that in the *Evang. sec. Hebræos* the Hebrew word signifiying "to-morrow", stood here. On the other hand, there are objections to this interpretation, the commentators tell us, arising from the use of the phrase "this day" previously in the verse, and from Christ's command to take no thought for the morrow, although the argument against "to-morrow" from the last consideration may, as is clear, be pressed too far. There remains, then, the conclusion that in the Lord's Prayer, which we suppose we may say is for childhood at least Christianity, and whose different petitions are in general as familiar as anything in the New Testament, we are unable to say whether, when we use this special petition, our thoughts are at one with the thoughts that inspired the teacher of it. As specimens of the carelessness and the dogmatism with which commentaries may be written, we may perhaps point out here that Lange *ad locum* says it would be "of course a mistake to apply the passage with Olshausen and some of the Fathers to spiritual nourishment exclusively, or even to the Eucharist," whereas Olshausen actually says: "The reference to bodily nourishment, on which the existence of the whole man depends, should not be excluded—nay, it may even be regarded as the immediate one." A strange way Prof. Lange has of treating his neighbor. Olshausen, on the other hand, goes on immediately to make a remark which is one of a kind that tends to bring theology into disrepute with thinkers trained to observe after scientific methods: "But the spiritual food must be looked upon as included, since otherwise the important petition for the spirit of God would be entirely wanting in the prayer." The thing to know, the scientific thinker would reply, *pace* Prof. Olshausen, is not what the prayer ought to say, but what it does say.

—Father Augustine Theiner, Protestant-born (at Breslau, 1804), was by profession a Prussian cavalry officer, when he became a convert to Catholicism in 1831, and shortly afterwards took orders. Through various degrees he reached the post of archivist of the secret Vatican archives, and enjoyed the full confidence of the present Pope, and even, in the early days when Pius IX.'s leanings were notoriously liberal, his sympathy as against the Jesuits. These gentry, among their other misrepresentations, had studiously disguised the true character of the proceedings at the Council of Trent, to which the church mainly owes its organization and discipline and exact doctrine, and that tendency toward centralization to which the Œcumenical Council gave the finishing touch. The Jesuit Pallavicini, for example, in his history of the Council of Trent, took pains to conceal or falsify the speeches which many learned and prominent bishops made in opposition to the tendency just referred to. When Theiner obtained the Pope's permission to publish the original pieces relating to the Council, every obstacle was thrown in his way. He had gone so far as to set up a printing-office of his own in Rome with the aid of the Pope and of the Emperor of Austria, and had begun printing, when the Jesuits persuaded the former to revoke his permission, and the work was indefinitely postponed. Towards the close of his life, which ended only last year, Father Theiner renewed his labors in this direction, and having carried his manuscript to Agram, in Croatia, was superintending its passage through the press when death overtook him. Learned friends of his in that place resumed the work where he left it, and the report of the Council has now been published in two large quarto volumes.

## BROOKE'S THEOLOGY IN THE ENGLISH POETS.*

UNDER this title, Mr. Stopford Brooke publishes a series of lectures upon Cowper, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Burns—lectures delivered to his London congregation on Sunday afternoons. The greater part of the volume is devoted to Wordsworth, who is treated of in eight out of the fifteen chapters. Mr. Brooke enjoys much reputation as an eloquent preacher of the extremely liberal school, and these discourses afford evidence both of his eloquence and of his liberality. They strike us as rather too fluent and redundant—the common fault of clerical writing; but they contain a good deal of sensible criticism and of suggestive moral analysis. Mr. Brooke does not always clinch his argument very sharply, but the sentiment of his remarks is usually excellent. His moral perceptions are, indeed, more acute than his literary, and he rather too readily forgives a poor verse on the plea of a fine thought. He gives us a great many passages from Wordsworth—the most prosaic of poets as well as the most poetic—in which the moral flavor has apparently reconciled him to the flatness of the form more effectually than it will do most readers. The author's aim has been to construct the religious belief of the poets from their works; but this aim, as he advances, rather loses itself. His "theology" merges itself in general morality—in any considerations not merely literary. With the exception of Cowper, indeed, we should say that none of the poets we have named had, properly, a theology; their principal dogma was that it is the privilege of poets to be vague. Coleridge, indeed, as a philosopher, "went in," as the phrase is, for the supreme sanctity of the Church of England; but Coleridge as a poet, in so far as he is now read or remembered, had little to say about creeds and churches. In a poet so vast and suggestive as Wordsworth we may find a hint of almost any view of the origin and destiny of mankind that one is disposed to look for; and we think that the author has made the stages and subdivisions of the poet's intellectual history rather too rigid and definite. Of course, Wordsworth was, on the whole, a Deist; but he was a Deist with such far-reaching side-lights into the realms of nature and of human feeling that one fancies that readers of the most adverse spiritual tempers must have often obtained an equal inspiration from him. Burns, as Mr. Brooke admits, was no positive believer at all, and he rests his interest in him on the fact that he was so manly and so human—so perfect a subject for redemption and salvation. Of Burns Mr. Brooke writes very well, and probably as few clergy-

* 'Theology in the English Poets. By the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke, M.A.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875.

men—apart from certain Scottish divines, whose patriotism has anticipated their morality—have written of him. "He was always—like the Prodigal Son," says the author, "coming to himself and saying, 'I will arise and go to my Father'; but he never got more than half-way in this world."

Mr. Brooke glances first at the theological element in English poetry before Cowper. "The devotional element which belonged to Donne, Herbert, Vaughan, and some of the Puritan poets, died away in the critical school which began with Dryden and ended with Pope. The 'Religio Laici' of Dryden is partly a reproduction of the scholastic theology, partly an attack on the Deists, and it does not contain one single touch of personal feeling towards God." The author recognizes Pope's devoutness of heart; but he illustrates this same absence of the personal accent in his verse. To that of Cowper three things belonged: "Passion, the personal element, and the expression of doctrine." It is puzzling, at first, to be called upon to attribute "passion" to Cowper. Theological he was—terribly, fatally theological—but of how admirably he humanized his theology these lines, quoted by Mr. Brooke, are an example. Mr. Brooke contrasts them, for passion and personal feeling, with one of those familiar fine passages from Pope, in which the rhythm is that of the pendulum, and the philosophy so bent on keeping on terms with the epigram, that one loses half one's faith in its consistency. They seem to us extremely touching:

"I was a stricken deer that left the herd
Long since—with many an arrow deep infixed
My panting side was charged when I withdrew
To seek a tranquil death in distant shades.
There was I found by one who had Himself
Been hurt by the archers. In His side He bore
And in His hands and feet the cruel scars.
With gentle force soliciting the darts
He drew them forth, and healed and bade me live."

Mr. Brooke writes at some length on the poetry of Man and the poetry of Nature as the later poets of the last century handled them, and makes several very good points. They underwent a very similar development—a transition from the abstract to the concrete, from the conventional to the real, the general to the individual; except that Man, at the poet's hands, rather anticipated Nature. What the French would call "intimate" human poetry was fairly established by Goldsmith, with the help, later, of Crabbe; but Nature, as we look at her nowadays, did not really receive anything like her dues until Wordsworth began to set the chords a-murmuring. If the history of that movement toward a passionate scrutiny of Nature, which has culminated in England, in our day, with Tennyson and Browning, could be scientifically written, we imagine it would be found to throw a great deal of light on the processes of the human mind. It has at least drawn into its service an incalculable amount of ingenuity, of imagination, of intellectual force. There are descriptive phrases and touches in Tennyson and Browning which represent, on this subject, an extraordinary accumulation of sentiment, a perfect entanglement of emotion, which give the key, as it were, to a civilization. Mr. Brooke quotes from "The Ancient Mariner" several examples of Coleridge's subtlety of observation of natural phenomena, which are peculiarly striking in a writer of his loosely reflective cast. But, what with Wordsworth and Shelley and Keats, subtlety of observation was then in the air; and Wordsworth himself, moreover, is a proof that observation feeding on Nature, and meditation feeding on itself, are processes which may very well go forward in company. Mr. Brooke gives us as the last word of Coleridge's theology, after many vagaries:

"Oh! sweeter than the marriage feast,
'Tis sweeter far to me
To walk together to the kirk
In a goodly company!"

Of Wordsworth, Mr. Brooke writes diffusely—too diffusely, we think, for discretion; for there are reasons in the nature of things why a prolonged commentary on the author of the "Prelude" and the "Excursion" should have an air of superfluity. He is himself so inordinately diffuse that to elaborate his meaning and lead it through further developments is to double the liability to irritation in the reader. He ought to be treated like a vast enclosed section of landscape, into which the reader may be turned to ramble at his pleasure. The critic may give us a few hints—he may hand us the key; but we should advise his making his bow at the gate. In the fine places we wish to be alone for solemnity's sake; and in the dull ones, for mortification's. Mr. Brooke, who is evidently a most zealous and familiar student of the poet, undertakes to relate the complete history of his poetical development on the moral side. It is, of course, an interesting story, though it rather drags at times, and though its conclusion is, as Mr. Brooke admits, an anti-climax. The conservatism into which Wordsworth stiffened in the latter half of his career was essentially prosaic, and the "Sonnets to Order" read really like sonnets to order in another sense. But one is thankful for the opportunity of dipping into him again on any terms; for the sake of a few scattered lines of Wordsworth at his best, one would make one's way through a more importunate commentary than Mr. Brooke's. For Wordsworth at his best certainly soars at an altitude which the imagination nowhere else so serenely and naturally reaches. There could surely be no better example of the moral sublime than the lines to Toussaint L'Ouverture:

"Thou hast left behind
Powers that will work for thee,—air, earth, and skies;
There's not a breathing of the common wind
That will forget thee; thou hast great allies:
Thy friends are exultations, agonies,
And love, and man's unconquerable mind."

This is very simple, but it is magnificently strong, and the verses, beyond their intrinsic beauty, have for us now the value of carrying an assurance that they have played a part and rendered service—been a stimulus and an inspiration—to many readers. The author has, of course, much to say on Wordsworth's almost fathomless intimacy with Nature, and he quotes these lines in illustration of that imaginative force which had expanded, through years of open-air brooding and musing, to its amplest reach. Wordsworth is speaking of London and its vast human interest, which, to his mind, seemed filled

"With impregnations like the Wilds
In which my early feelings had been nursed—
Bare hills and valleys, full of caverns, rocks,
And audible seclusions, dashing lakes,
Echoes and waterfalls and pointed crags,
That into music touch the passing wind."

The author mentions elsewhere, among Wordsworth's inimitable descriptive touches, his saying of a lonely mountain lake:

"There sometimes doth a leaping fish
Send through the tarn a lonely cheer."

That alone seems to us, in trivial parlance, worth the price of the volume. It is fair to Mr. Brooke to transcribe a specimen of his criticism; the following seems to us a favorable one:

"Our greatest poet since Milton was as religious as Milton, and in both I cannot but think the element of grandeur of style, which belongs so pre-eminently to them, flowed largely from the solemn simplicity and the strength which a dignified and unbigoted faith in great realities beyond this world gave to the order of their thoughts. Coleridge was flying from one speculation to another all his life. Scott had no vital joy in his belief, and it did not interpenetrate his poetry. Byron believed in fate more than in God. Shelley floated in an ideal world which had not the advantage of being generalized from any realities; and not one of them possesses, though Byron comes near it now and then, the grand style. Wordsworth alone, combining fine artistic powers with profound religion, walks when he chooses, though he limps wretchedly at times, with nearly as stately a step as Milton. He had the two qualities which always go with the grand style in poetry—he lived intensely in the present, and he had the roots of his being fixed in a great centre of power—faith in the eternal love and righteousness of God."

Mr. Brooke intends, apparently, to take up the other poets in turn. Tennyson and Browning, as he says, are full of theology; and in the many-colored transcendental fumes and vapors of Shelley the theological incense mounts with varying density. But with Byron and Keats it will take some shrewdness to discover it. In treating of the theology of Byron, indeed, Mr. Brooke would have a subject worthy of all his ingenuity.

## PREHISTORIC MAN IN EUROPE.*

IN this volume of four hundred and fifty pages, Mr. Dawkins gives the results of his "researches on the evidence of caves respecting the early inhabitants of Europe." As was to be expected by those familiar with the author's previous publications, the present volume is a careful digest of the subject, containing not only his personal researches in caves and in bone deposits, which were many and thorough, but also an examination of the writings of other investigators both in Great Britain and on the Continent. The work is thus made a complete and critical review of the evidence of the antiquity of man in Europe; it being conclusively shown that in the old time of the palæolithic man the British Islands were connected with the continent of Europe, and formed a part of the great tract over which roamed the many animals since extinct or driven by change of climate to other quarters. The subject is a vast one, and needed just such critical treatment on geological and historical grounds as our author has given it, and certainly no one was better prepared by long and thorough research than he. After careful scrutiny of every fact that can be sustained on purely scientific principles, he has proved that man lived in Europe during the pleistocene age and hunted the mammoth, the woolly rhinoceros, the stag, the reindeer, and many forms of animals now extinct

* 'Cave Hunting. By W. Boyd Dawkins.' Illustrated by colored plate and wood-cuts. 8vo, cloth. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

or only existing in remote regions ; and, so far as can be judged from the stone and bone implements and the engravings upon them, that this earliest race of men in Europe was akin to, if not the same as, the Eskimo of Arctic America.

Mr. Dawkins designates the several periods of time during which the caves have been occupied by man and beast as the historic, prehistoric, and pleistocene. He then considers the changes that have taken placé in the wild animals of the country from the time of Julius Cæsar, and the introduction of animals by man at various periods ; and these are referred to as forming most important data in determining the age of the deposits in the several caves containing their remains, associated with those of man. Along with this a very interesting table is given, showing the date at which each species was exterminated or introduced, as the case may be. The thorough examination of the Victoria Cave, and the way in which Mr. Dawkins relates the story in his work, form a most interesting chapter, covering the border-line of history and geology. We are here told how the caves were used as places of refuge by the defenceless people on the withdrawal of the Romans from Britain and the overrunning of the country by the Picts and Scots; and how, at last, when driven to despair, the inhabitants succeeded, in turn, in repulsing their Pictish and Scottish enemies, only to be conquered anew by the invasion of the English. All this time the caves were as important as places of retreat and shelter as they had been in the far earlier days before history gave names to the races who occupied them. The occupation of the caves during the historical period is thus summed up : "The relics must have been accumulated in the two centuries which elapsed between the recall of the legions in the days of Honorius and the English Conquest. They are traces of the anarchy which existed in those times, and they tell a tale of woe wrought on the Brit-Welsh by Pict, Scot, or Englishman, as eloquently as the lament of Gildas or the mournful verses of Taliesin. They complete the picture of the desolation of those times revealed by the ashes of the villas and cities which were burned by the invaders."

The historic period, during which the caves were occupied by known races of men, is but as a day in their vast history. Before this period many of them were inhabited, or used as places of burial, by the neolithic men, and previous to their time by a still earlier race, the first of which we have any record in Europe. While treating of the prehistoric period, or the second division in time in a backward series, the contents not only of the caves are considered, but those of the chambered tombs as well, and a thorough, critical essay on the characters of the skull and other parts of the skeleton is introduced, written by Professor Busk. This is illustrated by cuts, exhibiting the forms of the skulls and the peculiar flattening of the shin-bones, or platycnemism, which is now believed to be of less value as a race-character, and one more indicative of habits, than was supposed when its extreme form was first noticed in the skeleton of the now famous old man of Cro-magnon.

The relations of the two races of this period, the dolicho-cephali and the brachy-cephali, are thus summed up by Mr. Dawkins :

"From the examples given in the preceding pages it is evident that, in ancient times, long-headed men of small stature inhabited the whole of Britain and Ireland, burying their dead in caves, but more generally in chambered tombs. They were farmers and shepherds, and in this country in the neolithic stage of culture."

"No human remains of the brachy-cephali, or broad type, have been obtained from the caves in Britain. The evidence, however, is decisive that, in the bronze age, a tall, round-headed, rugged-featured race occupied all those parts of Britain and Ireland that were worth conquering, and drove away to the west or absorbed the smaller neolithic inhabitants. And the identity of their skull form, in the series of interments in the round and bowl-shaped barrows extending from the bronze age down to the date of the Roman occupation of Britain, shows that, both in the North and the South, this large-sized, coarse-featured people was in possession at the time of the Roman Conquest."

We cannot here follow in detail the contents of the sixth chapter of the work, in which the range of these two races of people is traced by a review of the evidence furnished from all parts of Europe, and therefore we give only the following conclusion of the chapter :

"In this outline of the ethnology of Gaul and Britain, it will be seen that two out of the three ethnical elements (if the Belgic be classed with the Celtic) of which the present population is composed, can be recognized in the neolithic users of caves and builders of chambered tombs. A non-Aryan race either identical or cognate with the Basque is the earliest traceable in these areas in the neolithic age, and it probably arrived in Europe by the same route as the Celtic and Germanic, passing westwards from the plains of Central Asia. There is no evidence of Spain having been peopled from Northern Africa, the identity of the Berber and Kabyle with the Basque being due to their being descended from the same non-Aryan stock in possession of Southern and Western Europe and Northern Africa. They are to be looked upon as cousins rather than as connected by descent in a right line. The Basque race was probably in possession of Europe for a long series of ages before hordes, either identical or cognate with the Celts, gradually crept westward over Germany into Gaul, Spain, and Britain, driving away, or absorbing, the inhabitants of the regions which they conquered."

In the next chapter, under the heading of "Caves containing human remains of doubtful age," in which group is classed those of Cro-Magnon, Engis, Neanderthal, Mentone, and others not so familiarly known, a careful consideration of the statements that have been made is given, and Mr. Dawkins is forced to believe that the interments in them do not indicate a greater antiquity than the neolithic time of the prehistoric period. Cannibalism is also alluded to in this chapter ; and from the evidence given by a cave on the Island of Palmaria its occasional occurrence at least cannot be considered as a "mere idle tale or poetical dream," though all the caves of Europe yet explored afford only "some three or four examples in the neolithic and bronze ages," while in still earlier times there is no well-substantiated evidence of the practice. The rest of this important volume is devoted to the evidence furnished of the earliest race of man in Europe, and here the author brings the great resources of geology and palæontology, which he has so well at command, into the most thorough service. The immense interval of time which elapsed between the pleistocene man and his successor of the neolithic age is discussed and made fully apparent ; the glacial period has also to be treated, in showing that this pleistocene race was unquestionably so closely connected with that period as hardly to leave a doubt that it was both a pre- and post-glacial race. Then the geological evidence of the submergence and elevation of certain districts is treated in full, and the effect that such changes have produced is vividly pictured, as in the following instance:

"The discovery of mammoth, rhinoceros, horse, Irish elk, bison, wolf, lion, and bear on so small an island as Caldy, indicates that a considerable change has taken place in the relation of the land to the sea in that district since those animals were alive. It would have been impossible for so many and so large animals to have obtained food on so small an island. It may, therefore, be reasonably concluded that when they perished in the fissures Caldy was not an island, but a precipitous hill, overlooking the broad valley now covered by the waters of the Bristol Channel, but then affording abundant pasture. The same inference may also be drawn from the vast numbers of animals found in the Gower caves, which could not have been supported by the scant herbage of the limestone hills of that district. We must, therefore, picture to ourselves a fertile plain occupying the whole of the Bristol Channel, and supporting herds of reindeer, horses, and bisons, many elephants and rhinoceroses, and now and then being traversed by a stray hippopotamus, which would afford abundant prey to the lions, bears, and hyænas inhabiting all the accessible caves, as well as to their great enemy and destroyer, man. We shall see in the ninth chapter that the elevation of the whole district above its present level is part of the general elevation of Northwestern Europe, and no mere small or local phenomenon."

The evidence of man in other regions at this early time is also given, as, for instance, in India and Palestine; and after a description, with figures, of many of the works of art, the implements of bone and stone, of this early race in Europe, and the character of the animals of the time, the comparison with the Eskimo is made resulting in the almost conclusive evidence that the Eskimos of North America are the same people as this oldest known race of Europe. To review this part of the work would almost be to copy it in full, and we must terminate an altogether too hasty notice with the following quotations from its concluding pages :

"No remains have been discovered up to the present time in any part of Europe which can be referred with certainty to a higher antiquity than the pleistocene age. The palæolithic people or peoples arrived in Europe along with the peculiar fauna of that age, and after dwelling here for a length of time which is to be measured by the vast physical and climatal changes described in the last three chapters, finally disappeared, leaving behind as their representatives the Eskimo tribes of Arctic America. There is no evidence that they were inferior in intellectual capacity to many of the lower races of the present time, or more closely linked to the lower animals. The traces which they have left behind tell us nothing as to the truth or falsehood of the doctrine of evolution ; for if it be maintained, on the one hand, that the first appearance of man as a man, and not as a man-like brute, is inconsistent with that doctrine, it may be answered that the lapse of time between his appearance in the pleistocene age and the present day is too small to have produced appreciable physical or intellectual change. Also, it must not be forgotten that we have merely investigated the antiquity of the sojourn of man in Europe, and not the general question of his first appearance on the earth, with which it is very generally confounded. Dr. Falconer well remarked that the *origines* of mankind are to be sought, not in Europe, but in the tropical regions, probably of Asia. To these we have no clue in the present stage of the enquiry. The higher apes are represented in the European meiocene and pleiocene strata by extinct forms, uniting in some cases the characters of different living species, but they do not show any tendency to assume human characters. It must indeed be

allowed that the study of fossil remains throws as little light as the documents of history on the relation of man to the lower animals. The historian commences his labors with the high civilization of Assyria and Egypt, and can merely guess at the steps by which it was achieved; the palæontologist meets with the traces of man in the pleistocene strata, and he, too, can merely guess at the antecedent steps by which man arrived even at that culture which is implied by the implements. The latter has proved that the antiquity of man is greater than the former had supposed. Neither has contributed anything towards the solution of the problem of his origin."

"The study of the remains which the caves contain has led to the recognition of the fact that the climate and geography of Europe in ancient times were altogether different from those of the present day. It has also made large additions to the history of the sojourn of man in Europe. We find a hunting and fishing race of cave-dwellers, in the remote pleistocene age, in possession of France, Belgium, Germany, and Britain, probably of the same stock as the Eskimos, living and forming part of a fauna in which northern and southern, living and extinct, species are strangely mingled with those now living in Europe. In the neolithic age caves were inhabited and used for tombs by men of the Iberian or Basque race, which is still represented by the small, dark-haired peoples of Western Europe. They were rarely used in the bronze age. When we arrive within the borders of history in Britain, we find them offering shelter to the Brit-Welsh, flying from their enemies after the ruin of the Roman Empire, and throwing great light on the fragmentary records of those obscure times. In treating of these questions, it has been necessary to discuss problems of deep and varied interest to the ethnologist, physicist, and historian, some of which have been partially solved, while others await the light of the higher knowledge which will be the fruit of a wider experience."

## RECENT NOVELS.*

THE reader of Mrs. Ames's voluminous story called 'His Two Wives' will not want for fine names. Cyril King and Ethelinda Kane, Vida, Circe Sutherland, and the Rev. Athel Dane, taken in connection with the places they frequent, viz., Ulm, Lotusport, and Tarnstone, ought to satisfy the most exacting demand for romantic nomenclature. The title and persons given, one easily divines the nature of the book, which is in fact a superfluously sentimental narrative of disastrous marriage, divorce, the husband's second wedding, and final reconciliation. The heroine, Agnes Darcy, is opportunely gifted with a talent for apprehending trouble with her husband; and, by consequence, she finds herself incompetent to ward it off when it comes. The tendency of her nose to become red when she is distressed, is represented as increasing the obstacles to a good understanding. Her husband, a gifted young lawyer, comes into notice as a politician, and is sent to Washington as a representative. Circe Sutherland stands for the siren who lures him from his wife's side; and Ethelinda Kane, being in love with him, but at the same time a trusted member of the household, acts the part of a "serpent in Eden" to increase the breach between them. When this breach has been duly widened, she discovers that she has only been assisting Circe to the hold upon his heart which she herself had coveted, and is finally turned out of doors by her. Meanwhile, Agnes has gone off with her "selfhood" and a reticule into the country, where she at once makes a hit in the millinery line, and follows it up by writing books—among them an extraordinarily good novel, which, if it were all it is here painted, we should vastly like to have had given to us by way of compensation. In this solitude she engages the affections of an intellectually proud young clergyman of the Episcopal Church, whom she cures of his previous arrogance toward women, though this does not, indeed, seem to have been very difficult of accomplishment. Here also she begins to feel a prescient dread of something about to happen, one winter's night; and immediately Ethelinda drives up in a sleigh, dying of consumption and anxious to make a confession of all her wiles. After this the husband has a stroke of paralysis, is neglected by his new wife, and Agnes returns to the house, thrusting her daughter into the sick man's room to take care of him, and then flying into the night again, despite their endeavors to make her stay. She embarks for Europe, and contrives on the way to witness the loss of a French steamer with Circe on board. Once across, she wonders why she does not hear from her daughter, who promptly appears, with her crippled and repentant father. They then go home, settle down, and talk over the whole matter good-humoredly; the clergyman concludes to marry the daughter, instead of Agnes, whose returned husband playfully pretends to be jealous of him. We must credit Mrs. Ames with a certain energy of delineation, but it is a desperate and gasping energy, which has suppressed all sense of humor, and has consequently admitted absurdities of which she appears to be unconscious. Her absorption in her work is doubtless a good sign, but we should hail it more hopefully were it not true that her story is very poorly constructed and the development of character clumsily managed. Her literalness of representation (in one place descending to a conversation on soothing syrup) is frequently dreary; and the book is distinguished by the fault common to the most of such accounts of commonplace domestic quarrelling, that of taking what we may call the bedroom view of life. On the whole, therefore, we do not see in this first effort any promise of satisfactory artistic achievement in what the writer herself would describe as "the ultimate."

Of 'The Lost Model' it is quite impossible to give any coherent account. It is written in a sort of "talented-young-man" style, and runs glibly through a maze of ordinariness and vulgarity difficult to describe. Among the numerous and insignificant personages introduced is the wife of an unscrupulous newspaper editor. She has previously had an amour with one Redwood, and has allowed the editor to buy her for his wife, with an understanding that she is to remain disloyal to him; and this is the way in which she talks to Redwood:

"Do you know what I was thinking of, Albert? Listen. I wish in my heart that Leonard would lose every cent he owned in the world, and then, my dear boy, he would sell me to you for a hundred dollars."

The first part of the book leads up to the murder of this lover by the husband. Not that this has anything to do with the story; but nothing which occurs in the course of it has, so far as we can discover. A girl called Renata seems to be intended for the heroine; and a mysterious creature, Parthee by name—whether Indian or Spaniard is not made clear—floats before us as the "lost model." He acts as model to a sculptor (who also has nothing to do with the story), and is "lost" in this way: toward the end of the novel he is depicted as going away for a year or two, leaving Renata in love with him, and promising to come back; after which he—or his ghost—returns abruptly on the eve of her wedding with another man, and vanishes in a thunder-storm, leaving her dead. The entire production is marked by a saturnine dissatisfaction which makes it extremely profitless reading. Its realism is of a kind that would recognize in cigar-ends and bar-room sawdust matter highly congenial to the novelist's purposes. Twice or thrice in the space of nearly four hundred pages the writer strikes out a brief spark of fancy, and we suppose a bit of symbolism to be intended in Parthee, who is perhaps conceived as a model of some finer race, lost to the worthless beings about him. But so little of this is conveyed that we feel in some danger, through attributing it to the author, of diverting from ourselves the credit of what has really been a stout effort of the imagination, viz., the apprehension of this symbolism. Whatever he may have intended, he has not had the skill to render it distinctly visible. As it stands, the book is the most bewilderingly imbecile imitation of a novel which we have for some time past encountered: yet it may chance to be of use to aspirants for distinction as American novelists, emphasizing as it does through its errors the necessity of great æsthetic stability in the American writer of local and realistic fiction, to enable him to resist the confusing haste, impermanence, and vulgarity of some of those phases of life he is to deal with.

In turning from this volume to Norman Macleod's posthumous 'Starling,' one sees by the light of sharp contrast how much it is in a novelist's favor to have settled social custom to rest upon; for we fancy it is largely from that source that the little story draws its wholesome quietness and solidity. To this is added a fair measure of literary skill, however, which is by no means so unimportant a factor of success as many of our indigenous geniuses would seem to consider it. Thus it happens that a careful, educated writer, not confused by the notion that with him alone rests the duty of revealing to the world the real nature of an entire national life, is able to make a credible and sufficiently entertaining story out of the love of an old soldier and his wife for a bird which excited some Scotch children to noisy merriment on the Sabbath, and which the parish minister held should be put to death. The disgrace and anxiety which for a time overshadowed them, and the circumstances that brought all right again, are detailed with a good deal of obviousness of edification and some padding, it is true, yet with the ease and completeness that come of a good school. We cannot, of course, countenance the appropriation of Sheridan's *bon mot* about drinking "like beasts" (p. 346) as original wit in the comedy man of the story; but in respect of construction and simplicity of key 'The Starling' is commendable, and will doubtless be read by many young people and some older ones who do not expect more than they can get from Dr. Macleod's tales.

A short novelette "from the German" closes our list, which bears the rather wandering name of 'Memories.' It relates in reminiscent form the love of a young man for an invalid princess, who, after much hesitation, consented to marry him. The stress of emotion, however, put an end to

*'His Two Wives. By Mary Clemmer Ames.' New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1875.
'The Lost Model. A Romance. By Henry Hooper.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.
'The Starling. By Norman Macleod, D.D.' New York: Dodd & Mead.
'Memories: A Story of German Love. Translated from the German by George P. Upton.' Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1875.

her existence. There is little art and little life in the book; but it has that distant prettiness which belongs by birth, one would say, to German writers of idyllic prose.

## THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR JANUARY.

GENERAL W. B. HAZEN contributes to the current number of the *North American* an article on the "Great Middle Region of the United States," in which he incidentally discusses the land-grant of the Northern Pacific Railroad. It is an article which the creditors of the Company will hardly find agreeable reading, or feel inclined, during the present session of Congress, to distribute as a broadside or tract for the dissemination of useful knowledge. Nor will the leading journalists, Congressmen, or prominent men who a few years ago were transported over the line of the road, be much pleased with General Hazen's way of speaking of them; for, while he disclaims all intention of accusing them of dishonesty, he does this at the expense of their brains—the two horns of the Congressman's dilemma being, in this case as in so many others, knavery or ignorance. Most of our readers remember probably the great official excursion over the Northern Pacific line, which brought back accounts of a wonderful region, variously called the "Northern tropical belt," "the continental wheat-garden," or, with vulgar and contumelious exaggeration, since the bankruptcy of the road, "Jay Cooke's banana belt." It was, indeed, according to the maps distributed by the road, and the glowing accounts published from time to time, a pleasant land, with its summer isothermal line of 70° Fahrenheit, its fertile soil, its equable climate, and its prospective fields of waving grain. General Hazen, however, happened to be stationed at Fort Buford, on the Missouri, some two years ago, a post which is in the midst of the region in question, and his description of what he saw and felt makes it clear that considerable violence has been done to the isothermal lines and to the truth of science by those who have had in charge the preparation of reports. The hay-contractor, he says, in order to gather nine hundred tons of hay for the post, found that some twelve hundred square miles of the tropical belt was needed to furnish the supply, or, in other words, that one square mile of the continental garden produced three-quarters of a ton of hay. Besides this, the isothermal line of 70° Fahrenheit, the happy effect of which on the climate has been so often mentioned, and which, according to the railroad statistics, touches 51° N. lat., in reality passes through the post on the same meridian at 48° N. lat., or 180 miles further south. The spring, autumn, and winter isothermals, too, have not been generally furnished to emigrants, nor is any reference usually made on the railroad maps to the summer extremes (104° in the shade) or to the frosts which occur "nearly every month." The mean annual temperature is, according to General Hazen, 45°, and he speaks of having winter weather of 37° to 40° below zero, and terrific winter storms. These wide divergences between fact and representation General Hazen explains in this way:

"It has been common to make up excursion parties of newspaper-men, members of the Government, and citizens of large influence (always in the green months of May and June), to visit these sections. The roads all lie along the valleys of streams, and at that season give the idea of fruitfulness. These persons are never taken on transverse routes, where they would invariably find sterility, nor are they practical agriculturists. After an excursion of this kind, where every human want is anticipated, the press would be unnatural not to applaud, and the members of the Government mean, not to encourage, the enterprise. An obligation has been laid upon them all, and they have only seen the country at its best points and in its holiday dress. Men in high places have been employed, and paid for their services, in writing and speaking for these enterprises, and their writings and speeches used as advertisements in disseminating this deception. Their names are synonymes of honor and truth, but they, too, are deceived, and are made to deceive others innocently."

All this is very true, and General Hazen's indignation at the misrepresentations practised on the public with regard to that road will be shared by most people who read the article. At the same time, we confess to being left in considerable doubt as to the value of the grant even now, for General Hazen admits that some of it is good, and the principal German expert, whose official report was unearthed last year, did not question the value of the property, but denied the possibility of developing it rapidly enough to carry the enormous debt. The facts given in the rest of the article are worth attention, showing as they do that the occupation of the arable land in the "great middle region" between the Mississippi Valley and California has gone so far that the time has come, or is rapidly coming, when good land is no longer to be had for the settlement.

The "Reign of the Ring" is the title of the second of the series of papers called "An Episode in Municipal Government" which Mr. Charles F. Wingate, with the advice, consent, and assistance of Mr. Charles F. Adams, jr., is contributing to the *Review*. If all the members of the "old New Yorkers," "Knickerbockers," and "Dutch families" who, for the fifty years down to the time of the war, neglected their political duties and shirked all responsibilities except that of becoming richer than they had previously been, would read these articles with care, they would probably get some adequate idea of the utter scorn and contempt and loathing with which the municipal government of this city during the Ring period will be looked back to by the older New Yorkers and Knickerbockers and Dutch families of a generation hence, when the excitement evolved by the actual struggles of the thieves over the plunder and the public with the thieves has passed entirely away, and nothing is left but foulness and stench. The plain fact about Tweed and his fellows was that they were a gang of land thieves, gathered together from all quarters of the globe to plunder a rich corporation; that they plundered it with the aid and connivance of the respectable classes in the city, the chartered organs of public opinion, judges of the courts, and philanthropic reformers, whose support they got partly by bribes and partly by themselves promising to reform as soon as they secured money enough; and that this went on glaringly and publicly until one of their own members, not satisfied with his share of the spoils, "peached." It is on this account that we object—and it is almost the only thing in these articles with which we are inclined to find any fault—to the tendency to propitiate the national vanity, at the expense of the national good-sense, by magnifying the thieving and perjury and murder of the gang into something historically grand, picturesque, and "imperial." "No corruption was too direct and brutal for them; nor was any finesse too delicate"—"His [Tweed's] associates paled into insignificance in the glare of his splendid activity"—"He had now fairly entered upon the full career of success, and was at the climax of his glory." The satire seems to be here a little too grandiose for gentlemen who were familiarly known among themselves as "Mike," "Hank," "Prince Harry," "Thunderbolt," and "Crow," not to speak of aliases used for legal ends—a motley congregation of pimps, thieves, murderers, jail-birds, blacklegs, fences, and ruffians.

In an article on the "wage-fund theory" Mr. F. A. Walker makes a lively attack on some of the received doctrines of political economy. The theory as generally stated is that there is always a portion of the capital of any given country which is needed and set apart for the payment of wages; that this fund is divided among the total laboring population applying for employment; and, therefore, if the supply of labor increases without a corresponding increase of capital, the rate of wages (the amount received by each laborer) will fall; if the conditions are reversed, the rate will increase. Mr. Walker wishes to have the term wage-fund discarded from political economy, for reasons which he explains at considerable length. As we understand him, he objects to the wage-fund theory that it is false because

"It excludes altogether the contribution which the new-comer, the additional laborer, makes to the production of the community in which he is so unwelcome an arrival. The wage-fund doctrine regards him as a pure addition to the divisor, without recognizing the fact that his labor must also add something to the dividend. He no longer contributes more, far more to production than the cost of his own subsistence, as in an advancing state of industry, before natural agents are fully occupied and employed. He no longer contributes as much as he requires. But he still contributes something, and that something, however small it may be, helps to swell the amount that can be paid in wages"—

and because "in all new countries, excepting only gold-producing regions, the wages of labor are paid in a small degree only out of capital, the results of previous industry, but mainly out of the product of current industry." He appears to believe that the theory of the wage-fund is the direct product of some special conditions of English industry, and is not to be regarded as an economical law at all in the sense that it was originally propounded. To any one who supposes that the "wage-fund," as it is generally understood, means a quantity of money "already existing," "definite in extent," and "dedicated to a specific use," and that the capitalists of a country pay labor by first counting this up, then counting the number of men applying for work, and dividing one sum by the other, Mr. Walker's article would be likely to contain much salutary information; and the same thing might be said of any one who deduces, as a consequence of the wage-fund theory, that strikes and trades-unions can never under any circumstances affect the rate of wages paid in particular trades; but there are probably few people nowadays who believe this. Not even the most cold-blooded economist would advise a laboring-man who thought himself underpaid that the true way to find out what his wages must be would be to ascertain the amount of capital in the country, and the number of laborers, and then divide the one by the other.

He would no more do this than he would say that because of the general law that profits tend to equalize themselves in various industries, therefore no one could ever expect to get more than seven per cent.

The number also contains an interesting account of Mr. H. H. Bancroft's great work on the native races of the Pacific States, by Mr. Francis Parkman; a review of Henry Wilson's 'Slave-Power,' by Mr. James Freeman Clarke; and some book-notices, among which is an interesting review of Cairnes's 'Principles of Political Economy.'

*What I Did with My Fifty Millions.* By Moses Adams. Edited from the posthumous MS. by Cæsar Maurice, Esq., of the Richmond (Va.) *Whig.* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—Criticism of this production from north of Mason and Dixon's line is disarmed by the heading of the title-page—"For Virginians Only." It is but proper, therefore, to defer to Southern and particularly Old Dominion opinion of the author and his work; and fortunately this is furnished us in advance of the text. Dr. G. W. Bagby, according to the Bristol *News*, "is the Mark Twain of Virginia"; according to the Norfolk *Virginian*, his "genius is akin to Lamb's," and he "stands pre-eminent as *the* essayist of Virginia, the pen-painter of Virginians, their life and manners, their foibles and their virtues." As for the purpose of the present work, the preface tells us that "those who read between the lines (as the French say) detect in all Moses's phantasies a lurking satire on the disposition made by poor old Virginia of her 'fifty millions' on internal improvements." With the light thus afforded us we have read the fifteen "instalments" of Dr. Bagby's serial (originally published in the *Whig*). We cannot say that we have found it as amusing as the 'Innocents Abroad,' or that we were loth to lay it down so long as any instalment remained unread. Virginians only, we were soon convinced, were capable of being enchained or convulsed by it; in other words, that the humor of "Moses Adams" was dependent on local scenes, personages, and events which non-native or non-resident readers could not possibly appreciate. The latter must be interested in it, if at all, chiefly as a study of provincialism (we borrow the word from the Norfolk *Landmark*, for we would not go a step beyond our Southern guides). It represents, in fact, a state of society in Virginia in which everybody, his history and affairs, are known to everybody else in the community. As such, it has a certain value, and its value will increase as this transient condition vanishes. Dr. Bagby's "pen-pictures" of the already obsolete or obsolescent manners and customs of Virginia are spirited and faithful, and here and there, as "local color," one detects words and phrases which the student of Americanisms has learned to associate with the Southern portion of the thirteen colonies. The Doctor's sentiment can be commended without labelling it Elia, and his invention of the automaton of Commodore Porter may justify his reputation as a humorist. More than this we hesitate to say, for the reason stated in the beginning.

*Literaturgeschichtliches Lesebuch* für deutsch-amerikanische Schulen, von Karl Petermann. (New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—A reading-book of German literature, designed for German-American schools, might easily show a bias more *doctrinaire* than literary. This is not the case with Herr Petermann's compilation. Naturally, his selections and brief biographical notices—especially in the second part, from Uhland to the present day—are in sympathy with the liberal sentiment and patriotic revival in Germany during the last half-century, and of course during the past few years. Thus we have Rückert's "Geharnischte Sonetten" and Freiligrath's "Hamlet," along with Becker's "Der deutsche Rhein," Strass's "Lied von Schleswig-Holstein," and Schneckenburger's "Die Wacht am Rhein," representing so many stages in the progress towards German unity. A certain number of authors are mentioned whose lives as well as writings are particularly associated with the United States, such as Karl Postel ("Charles Sealsfield"), and Friedrich Gerstäcker. Among these it would have been pleasant to meet with the name of Dr. Friedrich Kapp; but historical works are not reckoned part of the "Literatur" in which Louisa Mühlbach's productions are included. Dr. J. G. Kohl, another temporary sojourner in this country, and an antiquarian who was employed by the State of Maine on the history of its early discovery and colonization, finds a place in this reading-book, and on the faith of Herr Petermann we must conclude that he died in 1873, though his death has been more than once announced only to be contradicted. A pretty full sketch is given of Bodenstedt, whose 'Songs of Mirza-Schaffy' has occasioned a pleasant literary mystification (see the *Nation*, No. 300). The poetical print of this reading-book is too fine for even German eyes, let alone German-American. We have remarked a few typographical errors which need correction, the worst instance being 1772 instead of 1792 as the date of Gustav Schwab's birth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* |
|---|---|
| Goldammer (H.), Der Kindergarten, 2 vols., swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Gallenkamp (W.), Reform der höheren Lehranstalten, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Holtzendorff (Dr. F. von), Das Verbrechen des Mordes und die Todesstrafe, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Littell's Living Age, Vol. CXXIII | (Littell & Gay) |
| Lyman (Capt. L.), Tactical Studies | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Martens (Dr. E. von), Purpur und Perlen, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Macdonell (Mrs. A.), For the King's Dues: a Tale, swd | (Macmillan & Co.) $1 00 |
| Mahaffy (Rev. J. P.), Social Life in Greece from Homer to Menander | (Macmillan & Co.) 1 50 |
| Power (J. C.), Life of Abraham Lincoln | (E. A. Wilson & Co.) 2 50 |
| Root (F. W.), School of Singing | (Geo. F. Root & Sons) |
| Roosevelt (R. B.), Progressive Petticoats: a Tale | (G. W. Carleton & Co.) |
| Theory of Spencerian Penmanship | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) |
| Tyndall (Prof. J.), Address before the British Association at Belfast, swd | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Workshop, No. 12, swd | (E. Steiger) 0 50 |
| Wernher (Dr. A.), Die Armen und Krankenpflege, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Weicker (Prof. W. T.), Military Lessons | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) |
| Wiener (Dr. C.), Die ersten Sätze der Erkenntniss, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Zschokke (H.), History of Switzerland | (Albert Mason) |


RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE* Madding Crowd. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*MILL'S THREE ESSAYS ON RE*ligion. By John Stuart Mill. Uniform with the Library edition of his Autobiography and Miscellaneous Works. 8vo, $2 50. (Miscellaneous Works, 11 vols., cloth, $26 50; half calf, $51.)

*ADAMS'S DEMOCRACY AND* Monarchy in France. From the inception of the Great Revolution to the overthrow of the Second Empire. By Charles Kendall Adams. 8vo, $2 50.

*GAUTIER'S A WINTER IN* Russia. By Theophile Gautier. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*SUMNER'S HISTORY OF AME*rican Currency. Large 12mo, cloth, with diagrams, $3.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Established in 1843.

*R. H. ALLEN & CO.*

FOR

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS, MACHINES, SEEDS, AND FERTILIZERS,

address the above at 189 and 191 Water Street, or P. O. Box 376, NEW YORK CITY.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*DETERMINATIVE MINERALO*gy and Blowpipe Analysis.

JOHN WILEY & SON,

15 Astor Place, New York,

Have now ready:

*MANUAL OF DETERMINATIVE* Mineralogy, with an Introduction on Blowpipe Analysis. By Geo. J. Brush, Professor of Mineralogy in the Sheffield Scientific School.

"This constitutes, in accordance with the original plan of Prof. Dana and myself, the Determinative Part of his System of Mineralogy."

1 vol. 8vo, cloth, price $3.

☞ Copies for examination, with reference to introduction, will be sent to Professors and Teachers free by mail, on the receipt of $2.

*Supernatural Religion:*

An Inquiry into the Reality of Divine Revelation. Fifth London Edition, published in conjunction with Messrs. Longman & Co. 2 vols. 8vo, price $8.

From the *Fortnightly Review.*

"Hence the remarkable importance of the two volumes before us, of which it is not too much to say, and this may be admitted by believers as well as unbelievers, that they are by far the most decisive, trenchant, and far-reaching of the direct contributions to theological controversy that have been made in this generation."

From the *Spectator.*

"We give a hearty welcome to this learned and able work. So far as we know, it is an unparalleled specimen in the English language."

From the *Pall Mall Gazette.*

"The vast erudition alone which the author displays would be sufficient to place the work beyond power of imitation by all who have not devoted years to the close study of theological literature.

The publishers invite attention to the most remarkable religious work which has appeared since the publication of 'Ecce Homo.'

Sold by all booksellers, and when not to be found, remit the amount direct to the publishers, who will send it post-paid.

ROBERTS BROTHERS,

143 Washington Street, Boston.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1875.*

## The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN has written a very remarkable letter to the *Financier*, replying to the criticisms of that journal on his finance bill recently passed. In it he says that "neither the fractional currency nor the eighty-two millions redeemed can be reissued, and that he stated so when the bill was pending under debate, and no lawyer could put a different construction on the bill." Now, if the report of the *Congressional Record* be correct, Mr. Sherman, on being pressed by Mr. Schurz and Mr. Bayard on this very point, fenced with the question; he did not say that the eighty-two millions "could not be reissued"; he said "frankly that he did not propose to decide that question in this bill"; "that the question would be met" when "the time arrived." On the contrary, he left "every senator to decide for himself what the law was," *i.e.*, whether the notes could be reissued under the term "redeemed," and "if there was a doubt about it," he said, "it was not wise, as practical men dealing with practical affairs, seeking to accomplish a result, to introduce into the bill a controversy which would prevent the unity necessary to carry out the good that is contained in the bill." Now, we think this fully justifies the application of the term "evasion" to the bill, of which Mr. Sherman complains. He says now that no lawyer could put a different construction on the phraseology of the bill on this point, which is a very singular assertion. We must remind him that this very question arose under the act of 1866, on the interpretation of the word "retire," and that Mr. Boutwell put his own meaning on it, and began issuing old greenbacks as fast as he pleased; that the Finance Committee of the Senate reported, by five to two, that he was wrong in his construction of the law; but that he, thinking himself as good a lawyer as any of them, paid no attention to them, and his political son, Mr. Richardson, followed his example. We can understand why Mr. Sherman drew the bill as he did, and defended it as he did; but why he should have written this letter to the *Financier* puzzles us greatly. He also says that last session "the press scolded Congress for their long and fruitless debates on finance, so this session they resolved they would pass a bill without much debate." It is difficult to understand the state of mind in which this was written. The press scolded last year because months were occupied in debating whether we would ever return to specie payments at all; this year the press demands debate on the best mode of returning to specie payments. The two questions may be covered by the general term "finance," which is what has evidently imposed on Mr. Sherman; but they have no real connection. If a man were to pass months studying astrology and casting nativities, would any newspaper which found fault with this mode of passing his time be estopped from asking him to acquaint himself with the Copernican system of astronomy, on his proposing to take charge of the Naval Observatory?

In view of the revelation, both by the wording of the act and Mr. Sherman's language in the debate, of a loophole through which some future Boutwell or Richardson may pour out the "redeemed" greenbacks whenever it seems desirable to "ease the market" or "move the crops," and in view of the upward tendency of gold, we would once more call the attention of persons lending money payable at distant dates to the desirableness of doing business on a gold basis. If the community are not ready to contract in gold, as in California, it is very easy to draw a contract limiting the depreciation of legal-tender notes, and to give the holder of the security the option of placing his obligation upon a gold basis at the present price of currency. Payment of mortgages can be extended by an agreement on the part of the mortgagor "that at all time and times hereafter whenever any instalment of principal or interest now due or hereafter to become due may be tendered or demanded, the mortgagee may elect to receive payment in the gold coin of the United States of America of the standard in weight and quality designated in the Act of Congress of the United States, known as the Coinage Act of 1873, at the rate of eighty-eight gold dollars for one hundred dollars in United States notes, commonly called legal-tenders." Leases, promissory notes, and all obligations can be drawn on the same principle, which would be prudent and expedient when payable at a distant period of time, or in the apprehension of great fluctuation in the value of paper-money from commercial causes or unwise legislation. Our savings-banks hold very large investments in matured bonds and mortgages which now could be secured against any very serious depreciation. It is a sacred duty which the trustees of those institutions owe to the community to protect the savings of the poor from even the remote and possible bankruptcy of the future. The plan has already been adopted by many persons, and is working successfully. We have before us at this moment a form of agreement used (by a gentleman who holds a large number of trusts) in all extensions of mortgages now made by him, from which we have quoted the above phraseology.

Among the remarkable results thus far of the senatorial contests pending in various States has been the election of Mr. Cockrell, formerly a Confederate general, to succeed Mr. Schurz. Mr. Cockrell has of course no pretensions to Mr. Schurz's knowledge, ability, and experience, and enters the Senate solely as "a simple-minded, sagacious man," and a good fellow, who is liked by his old comrades. He made a plain speech after his election repudiating all love of extreme courses. General Burnside has succeeded after a prolonged contest in Rhode Island, and is personally unexceptionable. One struggle which was very fierce, that in Tennessee, has had a comical conclusion in the election of our old friend Andrew Johnson. Most people will smile on hearing this, and "the greatest criminal of the age" will probably for the next six years perform the harmless duty of amusing the people whose liberties he was supposed six years ago to be on the point of destroying. Mr. Dawes has obtained Mr. Sumner's seat, somewhat unexpectedly, partly owing to the mistake of the Democrats in losing time over a complimentary vote. If they had done at first what they showed a willingness to do at last, Mr. Adams would probably have been elected. Mr. Dawes was guilty last fall of the worst offence of which an American politician can at this juncture be guilty, and it came on the heels of several other offences of the same character, though less in degree. The support of him, therefore, by such papers as the Boston *Advertiser*, is another illustration of the hopelessness of what is called "reform within the party." Mr. Kernan, who goes to the Senate from this State, is an able and honest gentleman, a Catholic of Irish descent, and a lawyer by profession. Mr. Randolph is a good selection in New Jersey, though he took part in the Greeley movement, and made some odd speeches in it.

In Congress, a great many speeches have been made, and more are still making, on the Louisiana question. The Senate has resolved to confine speeches on the Appropriation Bills to five minutes; has killed the measure for creating a new Bureau of Statistics and Commerce, and passed the bill making Patchogue, L. I., a port of entry; and discussed Senator Morton's bill providing for a constitutional amendment to popularize Presidential elections. In the House, on Judge Hoar's motion, a committee of enquiry was appointed to report on the arrest of witnesses subpœnaed before Congressional Committees. The House has passed the "Little Tariff" Bill, and also a bill for the relief of the *Polaris* survivors; has agreed to the repeal of the Pacific Mail subsidy; and voted down a one-term resolution. Both Houses

received a message from the President recommending appropriations for heavy guns for sea-coast fortifications.

---

The reckless and carpet-bag element in the Republican party got up some strange plans in caucus last week, and proposed to modify the rules so as to cut off all dilatory motions during the remainder of the session, and thus give the control of the House to the majority, and enable it to push through in hot haste a series of somewhat audacious measures, such as bills upsetting the State governments, authorizing the President to suspend the habeas corpus, and making a combination of any two persons to commit an unlawful act a case of "invasion" or "insurrection" calling for the use of the army and navy, and making appropriations for two years, so as to deprive the next Congress of the control of the public expenditures. These schemes were rendered all the more outrageous by the fact that the present Congress is a genuine Rump—that is, a legislative assembly from which the voters have formally withdrawn their confidence. Whether this is to be regretted or not, it is a fact which members of Congress, like other citizens, are bound to respect, and all legislation therefore of the "snap" kind performed before March 4, and intended to settle leading questions of the day which were before the country at the last election, so as to deprive the new Congress of the control of them, is morally fraudulent. The desperadoes introduced their resolution to alter the rules in due course, Mr. Cessna characteristically moving it, but, as it required a two-thirds vote, they were defeated by the aid of sane Republicans, by 98 to 150—a narrow escape.

---

The official correspondence on Louisiana sent to the Senate by the President contains some very startling documents. It opens with a telegram from General Emory, dated December 16, to the following effect: "Since my despatch of yesterday, information comes which I think justifies the conclusion that personal violence and armed conflict will not be used by the contending parties to settle the pending political troubles in this city"; while on December 24, Lieutenant-Colonel Morrow, specially detailed to proceed to the Red River country and make a thorough examination of the condition of affairs, having returned to New Orleans, and maturely considered the subject, reported that there was no need of more troops in that neighborhood. His words are:

"The present State government cannot maintain itself in power a single hour without the protection of the Federal troops, and even with this protection they will not be able to collect taxes and perform the functions of government. The State government has not the confidence or respect of any portion of the community." Further on, he says: "If the expressions of the people are to be believed—and I do believe them—there is a very sincere desire to live quietly under the protection of the Constitution of the United States, and to enjoy the blessings of the national Government; but there is no disguising the fact that the protection afforded by the Federal Administration to the government of the present State Executive, is the cause of bitter personal and political feeling in the breasts of nineteen-twentieths of the white inhabitants of the State."

---

This report was forwarded to General Sherman, and by him to Washington, with the following endorsement:

"This paper is most respectfully forwarded to the Secretary of War, with a request that he submit it for the personal perusal of the President. I know of no officer of Colonel Morrow's rank who is better qualified to speak and write of matters like this, and his opinions are entitled to great consideration. I profess to have some knowledge of the people of that section, both white and black, from a long residence among them before the war and several visits since, but I shall not intrude my opinion in the confusion in which the subject is now enveloped."

On this same day General Sheridan assumed command at New Orleans; that is to say, he was sent there with general liberty to do what he chose at the very time that the Government, through the General of the Department, was investigating the disorders. So hurriedly and unexpectedly was this done that the act amounts to a direct insult to Sherman, but we can understand the whole thing when we reflect that, unless the Legislature had been dispersed on the day it was, there would be now a peacefully organized government in the State—but it would not have been Kellogg's.

---

Irwin has at last testified as to what he did with the Pacific Mail money entrusted to his care for the purpose of corrupting Congress, and it turns out that he has paid most of it in large sums to Schumacker, King, and a man named Whiting, without instructions as to what they were to do with it or whom they were to corrupt with it, or calling upon them for any account. In fact, he gave them *carte blanche* to corrupt anybody they could, relying on their reputation as skilled workmen. Schumacker, who seems to be one of the most unblushing corruptionists in public life, received $300,000 instead of $275,000, the sum which was traced into his hands, and positively declines to tell anybody what he did with the money. King has disappeared, and Whiting not been heard from. The investigation has resulted thus far in disclosing in great detail the nature of the operations usually carried on by the lobby, and, looked at from that point of view, it is instructive. Besides the disclosures of Irwin, the principal event of the week has been a statement made at the bar of the House by another recusant witness, Wetmore, a newspaper correspondent who had managed to make himself into a martyr by refusing to tell the name of a certain imaginary person referred to by him as the author of some scandalous tales about the corruption of Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, which he was busily engaged in disseminating by means of his newspaper. This witness, on being brought before the House, made a speech in which he admitted that he could not now give the name of the author of the story, but intimated that he thought he might be able to do so with the assistance of Mr. Beck, and expressed the hope that the latter would help, "so that he [Beck] and all honest men might be found innocent in the maelstrom of overwhelming charges; so that the goats might be selected from the sheep, and so that the sheep might be selected from among themselves by the Darwinian process of investigation—then they would all grow purer and purer until they became angels of virtue." On this Mr. Wetmore was sent to jail again for contempt, and it is said that there was a pretty general feeling in the House that he was insane—a conclusion reached chiefly through reflection upon the peroration we have just quoted. This is a cheering indication of the intellectual progress of the members, for most people who have, for their sins, to read the proceedings of Congress would probably find it difficult to distinguish between the rhetoric of Mr. Wetmore and that which adorns the orations of many a senator and representative.

---

The failure of Mr. Henry Clews, lately one of the brokers of the United States Government in London, throws some melancholy light on the management of the Treasury in the days of Messrs. Boutwell and Richardson. The Government funds had been in the hands of the Barings from the foundation of the Government, and a house of the standing of the Barings was undoubtedly the proper custodian of them, even if they had no traditional claim to confidence. But, on pretence of wishing to put them in the hands of a thoroughly "American" firm, they were handed over to a new firm, composed of Mr. Clews, an Englishman, who was just becoming known as a dealer in money in this city, and had a very moderate capital, and Mr. Habicht, a Swede, who had never dealt in money and had no capital at all. The real explanation was that Mr. Clews was an active politician of the Custom-house school, who contributed largely to campaign funds and figured very prominently in the newspapers. The new house had been taking care of the Government money for about a year when the panic came, and then it went to pieces, and after a feeble attempt to rally has gone into bankruptcy, and the published schedule of its assets has astonished a generation which has had considerable experience of worthless stocks and bonds and unpaid

coupons. It is thought the estate will pay from ten to twenty cents on the dollar. How much the Government loses we do not exactly know. Taking the affair in connection with the Treasury relations to Jay Cooke & Co., it must be pronounced a bad attempt to use one of the most sacred public trusts—the care of money—to reward party "workers" of a low order.

---

The war between the German Government and the Church rages with undiminished fury, but there is not the smallest sign of practical popular adhesion to the cause of the clergy. There are plenty of addresses of sympathy to the "persecuted" priests and bishops, but not the least tendency to aid them in any more substantial way. The middle-class Liberals cheer Bismarck on; the peasantry look on passively; and the state officials, Catholic as well as Protestant, execute the law with remorseless vigor. The Bishop of Paderborn, who was the only German bishop who supported the dogma of infallibility at the Council, has now at last been deposed from his office, as far as the temporal power can do it, and will probably be expelled from the kingdom. The sentence found him in prison, where he was expiating several other offences, such as refusal to allow his clerical schools to be visited by Government inspectors, and appointing parish priests without the approval of the authorities, and publishing vituperative pastorals against the Government, and excommunicating priests for obeying the law. To what lengths of absurdity the Papal party in Germany are ready to go, and how richly they need the discipline they are receiving, may be conjectured from the fact that one of their leading organs, the *Schlesische Volks-Zeitung*, declares that "the Pope has the right to depose sovereigns even now, and is likely to exercise this right in future," and then goes on to explain in what contingencies. The present German sovereign, having been "baptized in the name of God," he is not likely to interfere with, but if any one of them was to become a Turk, or a Unitarian, or licentious like the Elector of Hesse or like Queen Elizabeth, "the great female assassin," there would be "no reason why the Pope should not use his power, and send such princes to the right-about. . . . If a Pope finds that a dynastic firm has become bankrupt and lost the favor of heaven, he is perfectly justified in sequestrating the business, and forbidding all whom it may concern to have any further dealings with the insolvent potentate." It must be admitted that Christians like these will be none the worse of an occasional visit from the police.

---

Bismarck has made a fresh contribution to the controversy by publishing a confidential circular-despatch which he sent to the German diplomatic agents in May, 1872, touching the next Papal election. It is to this event that the minds of the combatants are really now secretly turned, because there is a general expectation that it will bring about a total change in the relations of the Papacy both to Italy and other Continental powers. The despatch calls attention to the fact that even under the old régime, when the bishops were independent, the Great Powers really interfered in the election, and the Roman Emperor and Kings of France and Spain had the right of ruling out candidates who were specially obnoxious. Now that the bishops have been converted into the mere tools or agents of the Pope, this interference is doubly necessary. "For these reasons," he says, "those governments concerned in the election of a Pope, for the ecclesiastical interests of their Catholic subjects, and the position of the Catholic Church in their countries, should approach the question in time, and if possible agree upon a common attitude and the conditions on which they will recognize the next Pope. Could an agreement upon this head be effected between the European governments, this would be of immense importance, and perhaps might obviate serious complications." In England, the Bishop of Salford has directed his priests to refuse the sacraments to Mr. Petre, a distinguished Catholic gentleman, on account of a letter written by him in the *Times* repudiating the dogma of infallibility, and Dr. Newman has written a pamphlet on the relations of his Church to the state which shows plainly that he does not accept the dogma in the sense in which its more ardent advocates affirm it, and that he disapproves of the Pope's surroundings and of the influences under which the old man acts.

---

The result of Marshal MacMahon's Message to the Assembly of the 6th inst., of which we spoke a fortnight ago, urging the passage of a constitutional bill providing for the transmission of his own powers in case of his death, is that the demands of the *ad interim* ministry for the discussion of the bills on Friday last was met by a vote setting them down for Thursday last; and on that day the bill known as M. Ventavon's, creating a Second Chamber and making the ministry responsible to the Assembly, giving the President the power of dissolution, and providing that at the close of his term the two Chambers then sitting should in joint Convention decide definitively on the form of the government, was brought up. On Friday, after a sharp debate, the Right apparently fighting hard, the bill was read a second time by 557 to 146—or, in other words, passed. On Monday, the bill creating the Senate also was read a first time by 512 to 188. All this differs from the programme originally proposed, and in which the ministry was defeated, simply or mainly in the fact that the Government desired to have a Second Chamber created in advance of everything else. The main objection of the Left to the present bills is that they contain no formal recognition of the Republic, and the Legitimists are opposed to them for the reason that though they leave the form of the government still an open question, they provide a tribunal to settle it. The majority is mainly the result of a series of conferences between the Marshal and the members of the Assembly of all parties, in which he showed that he was willing to accept support from any quarter in putting an end in some degree at least to the provisional state of things. He has thus probably got as much certainty about the future as can possibly be extracted from the present Assembly. The next step must be dissolution.

---

The details of the last revolution in Spain have come out by mail, and they present a somewhat ludicrous picture of the conversion of a republic into a monarchy. Indeed, there is something farcical in all Spanish revolutions, because the revolutionists on neither side seem to care much about the matter, and change their government apparently much like boys, who pass in weariness from one game to another. When the first news of what was impending reached the ministry in Madrid, they telegraphed to Serrano to come back, but he, like a wag that he is, replied that he was first going to fight a desperate battle with the Carlists, and couldn't. Of course, he had not the smallest intention of fighting. When all was over, he went over the frontier into France, not because he was displeased at what had occurred, but because, as he says, his presence at Madrid might just at this moment embarrass the new government. The ministry, as a last resource, issued a vigorous denunciation of the Alfonsists in the *Gazette*, and then abandoned their posts. What precipitated their abdication was, not a canvass of the people, but an examination of the state of feeling in the various barracks of Madrid. It was found on enquiry that the troops had no intention of doing any fighting on this particular occasion, on learning which the ministers resigned, or rather disappeared from the public gaze. In fact, the public seems to have had nothing to do with this revolution whatever. The Madrid people seem pleased with the decision of the army, and even the Red and turbulent Barcelona takes it quietly. Campos, the general who got it up, appears to be a thorough adventurer, always on the lookout for some happy stroke, who was living under a cloud in Madrid when he planned the restoration, and he did not hesitate to begin the great work with two battalions, before whom he waved his hat and hurrahed for Alfonso. Probably the feeling of all the other generals now is—what a lucky dog he was to have thought of this first. The Spanish funds have risen under the change to about fourteen cents on the dollar, congratulations are pouring in on the Prince from the other crowned heads, and there is talk of peace with the Carlists.

## THE SENATORIAL ELECTIONS.

THE chief thing which the people of this country have been for some time asking of the two political parties which control its various governmental affairs, is that official power be confided only to men of fair intelligence and unquestionable integrity. The request is reasonable—so reasonable that an inhabitant of any other civilized country might suppose it to be needless. Yet there is no other request of the people which has been so flagrantly and defiantly refused; and the refusal extends through our executive departments, post-offices, and custom-houses, through our city and county offices, through our State and National legislatures, until at last it reaches as high as the Senate of the United States. Our senators are singularly limited in number; they are peculiarly chosen by a supposed double process of selection; they combine functions which are legislative in making our laws, with functions which are executive in restraining the President; and their term of office is longer than that of any other of our elective officers, exceeding even that of the President himself. Under such conditions, it would seem as if an office of such responsibility must be always carefully guarded and honorably filled.

The extreme lowness into which our political matters have sunk at the present time cannot be more clearly stated than by saying that, to-day, the highest principle which can actuate the conscientious citizen leads him to cast his vote almost exclusively with reference to the selection of men. In other words, our political management has gone down so far that the thoughtful and conscientious perceive it to be a vital matter of principle merely to get upright and competent men into office. The maxim of voting for principles, not men, still holds its place, but the cardinal principle for which all others must be postponed consists in getting honor and integrity and intelligence to accept the trust of government. The last election unmistakably demonstrated that a considerable portion of our people have gradually adopted these views, and that they are resolved that the public safety at last requires that this country shall be governed not by Democrats so much as by better men. No Republican stayed at home or went over to the other side because of confidence in previous Democratic management. The change was made to check existing maladministration, to restore a wholesome doctrine of party accountability, and to bring into public life the best class of candidates that we possess. If forty such men as Messrs. Foster and Potter and Phelps, taken equally from the two parties, could be sent to-morrow to the United States Senate, the better half of the American people would give a sigh of relief, and devoutly thank heaven for the mercy, without casting one regretful thought at the subject of political gains or losses.

The United States Senate, considered as a political field, has two peculiar attributes. First, it is the field from which party management can most easily keep out bad material—for but a single senator is chosen at a time; he represents an entire State; the machinery for choosing him is that which party management most completely controls; and the position is still accounted one of great honor, being in popular estimation only below the offices of President and Vice-President. Secondly, the Senate is the political field in which bad material lasts the longest, and in which good material can effect the greatest good; for it is invested with the double power of correcting the eccentricities of the Executive and of curbing the stampedes of the House. If only the Senate were made up of high-minded, courageous, and intelligent men really devoted to the work of good government, we might lay aside solicitude, and feel assured that though our government might not go forward very fast, yet still that it would not go very far astray. Conversely, let any one conceive of our foreign relations being controlled by such men as Butler and Chandler, and Logan and Pinchback; some of whom would think it a fine piece of patriotic bluster to break off friendly relations with a foreign power, while the others would deem it a "smart" thing to step into Wall Street betimes and make fortunes out of the fall of stocks. If the capabilities of the Senate for conservative action or profitable mischief were fully appreciated, it would be the chief subject of contest between anxious citizens on the one side, and unscrupulous managers on the other; and it is not unlikely that the future rise or fall of our Government will hinge upon its improvement or decline.

Into this Government of ours there has been slowly eating its way a disease or dry-rot, consisting of a low standard of character, which believes in avoiding indictable offences, and the taking of specific bribes for specific acts, and such crimes as theft and perjury; but which allows men in public office to make money from their offices by indirect methods so long as they are not guilty of direct embezzlement, and to equivocate provided they avoid a downright lie, and to wink at the crimes of their political associates upon condition that they keep the stolen money out of their own pockets. In studying this disease, let us consider in connection with our highest legislative body such cases as Mr. Harlan becoming the voluntary tool of a few unscrupulous, unprincipled stock-jobbers; Mr. Cole, through the influence of $100,000 paid to his brother-in-law, becoming the chief manager of the opposing set, the same senator suspiciously smuggling the Sanborn amendment through the Senate without debate (conduct which has increased significance since the Pacific Mail exposure); Mr. Conkling listening, to say the least, in the New York Custom-house while his appointees were planning the plunder of New York merchants; Mr. Carpenter, unrebuked, deriding every one who tried to prevent the back-salary embezzlement, or elevate the degraded civil service of the Government; Mr. Stewart colluding with the American Minister to defraud unsuspecting foreigners who foolishly believed that the honor of American dignitaries was of as high a caste as their own; and finally, though the list of cases might be indefinitely prolonged, men of as good previous reputation as Mr. Patterson and Mr. Dawes allowing a shrewd man like Oakes Ames to entangle them in his toils. From the examination of such cases every reflecting person must turn away with the conviction that the standard of character in a public body where such things can exist must be low. It is not to be inferred that every man there is necessarily bad. We all know that Oakes Ames never had his hand on Mr. Sumner. We also know that for him to have put his money in Mr. Sumner's pocket would have been to put it where it would do the most harm. And we take these to be the three types of men that make up such a body as the present Senate of the United States—the bad, the weak, and the morally courageous. For some time past the selection of senators by party managers has resulted necessarily in sending up a large proportion of the weak element; for party managers cautiously recede from putting the downright bad in too responsible stations, and cannot from the nature of things make terms with the morally robust. Fortunately for the country, however, it begins to be perceived that, apart from ignorance and incapacity, there are two dangerous classes of politicians in public life—the bad and the weak—and that these in all moments of difficulty are practically united. It may be said that the former are few, but what matters that if at critical times they are sure to be reinforced from the full ranks of the latter? The constant recurrence of combinations between the bad elements and the weak elements of public management is the alarming fact which rouses people to demand the selection of better men.

To cut out this disease, it is by no means necessary that we have demigods in Congress, nor even great men like Clay and Calhoun. It will be amply effective to fill Congress with such members as Mr. Willard of Vermont or Mr. Foster of Ohio, and to keep them there. Mr. Willard, for some outspoken words against the President, it will be recollected, was promptly "beaten in convention" by the party management in Vermont; but Mr. Foster will have the opportunity of laying the country under renewed obligations. Now, what are the chief obligations which Mr. Foster has laid upon us? for he is not a striking orator like General Logan, nor a dispenser of offices like Mr. Conkling, nor a leader of the party like General Butler, nor even the Father of the House like Mr. Dawes. When Mr. Foster, in company with Mr. Beck, stumbled upon the Sanborn

contracts, he walked courageously forward with his rough-spoken political opponent, and in a quiet, unpretentious way did in Congress the honest work of an honest man unflinchingly against his party. In this recent New Orleans business he has again elected to walk in the same straightforward course, and has preferred to throw the moral weight of a unanimous report in support of an unfortunate community to bolstering up his party by raising a quantity of false issues and bringing in irrelevant matters. The severity with which he has been treated by his political associates in Congress and the abuse and ridicule thrown at him by some of the newspaper organs for not "standing by his party," show pretty conclusively that if it were before election instead of after, the party management would endeavor to get rid of Mr. Foster as effectually as it got rid of Mr. Willard. Certainly, every State has men enough of this stamp to change the character of Congress and effect all needed reforms, if party management would permit them to undertake the work.

Such being the necessities and possibilities of the case, what grounds of public confidence have been laid by party management since November in the senatorial elections? On the Republican side, party management has struggled to retain the very worst men in the Senate, and has in no instance attempted to effect a change for the better, and has, in every instance where two Republicans were in the field, selected him who possessed the least of public confidence. On the Democratic side, the good and bad elements are mixed; there is a great falling short of good professions, but there is not the invariable defiance of public opinion which characterizes the Republicans. In Indiana, Mr Voorhees has certainly been set aside. In Ohio and Delaware, the two ablest Democratic senators have been re-elected. In New York, we see the benefit of having party management in respectable hands, for, while there has been a strict party choice, the choice has fallen upon a gentleman of excellent character and unquestionable ability. In New Jersey, the selection is probably the best that the party could have made. But on the other hand, it is unfortunately equally true that in the two States which have been most anxiously watched, Missouri and Pennsylvania, Democratic management has rejected the man who of all in the country ought to have been elected, and has chosen the politician who of all in the State ought to have been rejected. To one Democratic caucus, however, the country ought to be thoroughly grateful, for it allowed its members to be led by their common-sense, and they were rewarded with the success which generally attends common-sense. In Michigan, they have struck down one of that class who combine ignorance, audacity, bad habits, official patronage, and unscrupulous wealth, and have secured for the Senate one of that class through whom, if the American Government is to be saved, its elevation will be accomplished. No party management can do more than this, and when such management becomes the rule, this country, though it may have much to be divided upon, will have very little to regret.

## THE FARMERS AND THE SUPREME COURT.

WITHIN the last few weeks the newspapers have been full of despatches and predictions from Wisconsin to the effect that the present session of the legislature of that State will repeal or substantially modify the Potter Railroad Law. We have ourselves very good reason to believe that these anticipations are well grounded, inasmuch as we understand that a loan needed in Wisconsin for public improvements has been refused by English capitalists solely because of the existence of the Potter Law, and that the only hope of effecting it now lies in an alteration of the law. It seems to be generally believed, too, that if this particular measure is struck off the rolls the trouble will be over, that the capitalists will be satisfied and happy, and money will flow freely as of old from the plethoric coffers of London, Boston, and New York into the Northwest. So far as the repeal or modification of the Potter Law goes, every one must be rejoiced to hear of this proof of returning wisdom, and our readers will bear us witness that we have never expressed a belief in the permanence of this notorious piece of legislation. But we expect and demand a great deal more than this, and every one, either in Europe or America, who is interested in the stock or bonds of any Western railroad, will recognize the justice of the demand. What is needed now, in the interest of every one who either has property or the hope of acquiring property, is an authoritative exposition by the highest and final tribunal of the country of the rights of people who invest their earnings in the securities of railroads, on the faith of charters granted them by States or the United States. The withdrawal of the suits now pending in the Supreme Court at Washington, in consideration of the repeal or modification of the Potter Law, would really leave the matter exactly where it now is—would give the bond and share holders no more guarantees than they have now, would abridge no right now alleged to exist on the part of the State, and would leave the whole matter to be reopened as soon as the next era of railroad speculation and extravagant town-bonding should give the farmers reason to believe that they were not making money fast enough.

Let no one suppose for a moment that this is a forced statement of the motives which have guided the Grangers in their assault upon railroad property. They maintain, indeed, that they have a legal theory of the relation of corporations and the state at the bottom of their demands, but this is a sheer fabrication. Their theory now is that railroads are public highways, and therefore the tolls taken on them must be such as the public deems reasonable. It is not more than half-a-dozen years, however, since throughout the West there was a great farmers' movement directed to the sole end of getting the courts to declare the direct opposite of this—that a railroad was a purely private enterprise, and had no public character whatever. The explanation of this inconsistency is simple enough. It is that in the first instance the farmers wanted the courts to declare that bonds, issued by themselves in their corporate capacity of towns and counties in aid of railroads, were illegal, and on that account they need not pay the interest. To do this it was necessary that the roads should be decided to be private companies, in aid of which of course public taxation or loans were unlawful. Now, however, what the Grangers want is to make the roads carry grain at such prices as will make farming remunerative when it does not pay to farm, and therefore they have gone into court to procure decisions to the effect that railroads are public highways. This is not a mere technical inconsistency which it is for lawyers to explain and dissipate; it is in reality a glaring and insolent assertion on the part of the Grangers that they do not care what the law is, or what justice is, but that they propose to frame, whenever they either wish to stop payments of their own debts to railroads, or wring some money out of the railroads, some legal theory to fit the occasion.

We maintain, as we have maintained all along, that the principle of the Potter Law (which is, of course, in no way abrogated by change or repeal of particular measures devised to give expression to it) is either confiscation, or, if another phrase be more agreeable, the change of railroads from pieces of private property, owned and managed for the benefit of those who have invested their money in them, into eleemosynary or charitable corporations, managed not for the profit of the owners, but for the benefit of a particular class of applicants for outdoor relief—the farmers; and, more than this, such farmers only as happen to live along the line. There is no reason, either, why this new principle should be applied only to railroads. If true of them, it is equally true of all corporations incorporated by private capital for ends of anything like a public character—such as newspapers, hotels, telegraph companies, and all factories for the manufacture of necessary articles, particularly those dedicated by law to public uses by protection against foreign competition. That this is the principle which the Grangers wish to have embedded in the structure of the law of the country, we deduce from several considerations: first, from the inevitable nature of the legal arguments used; second, from the inevitable analogy between the property attacked and those other kinds we have just enumerated; third, from the temper and general tone of the arguments by which the Grangers support their claim; and, fourth, by the

only example of what they demand and are satisfied with in the way of judicial support—the opinion of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin on the constitutionality of the Potter Law—an opinion vastly more important and dangerous than the law itself, since the law might be considered the effect of a mere gust of passion, while the opinion was put forth as a calm and dispassionate statement of legal duties and liabilities.

With regard to the use of the word "confiscation," which many people seem to think so unnecessarily harsh and unjust, we must say that the common notion that people who make an attack on other people's property begin their movement by crying "Go to, let us rob, and plunder, and destroy," is incorrect. Almost all schemes of spoliation in modern times make a pretence to morality of some kind, as we may see now in the South, where property is taxed into the pockets of men like Casey, Kellogg, and Moses in order that "the negro may be protected," or in the Paris Commune, where a great deal of the most valuable property was destroyed, and all private owners threatened with confiscation, and general anarchy introduced, in order to bring in an era of liberty, fraternity, and equality. So, too, the repudiation of the five-twenty bonds is demanded by large bodies of people on the ground that speculators have made too much money out of their issue, or because justice requires that we should abide by the "letter of the law." Therefore, in saying that the decision of the Wisconsin Supreme Court is a decision in favor of confiscation, we do not mean that Chief-Justice Ryan and his associates are in the habit, when not holding court, of robbing on the highway, or even mean to encourage robbery, but to call the attention of investors and property-owners to the fact that the highest court of that State has solemnly decided, on the demand of the State Attorney-General, that the right to confiscate for the benefit of a class is part of the fundamental law of the country. A railroad charter, they say, is certainly a contract, but the State of Wisconsin has reserved the right to alter it at pleasure, and of the expediency and justice of the alteration they are sole judges. Railroads may, it is true, issue bonds guaranteed by all their property and vested rights, but the purchasers of these bonds take them at their peril, and subject to the right of the legislature to deprive them of all their value. To say that the legislature would be incapable of such folly is no answer; because, if we may judge by experience, there is no folly of which legislatures are incapable.

In saying that such legislation as the Potter law converts a private company into a charitable society for the benefit of a particular class, we are really understating the case. A charity is as a general thing supported by funds raised by taxation, and thus contributed by the whole community, or it is supported by private funds voluntarily given by the founder or the associates. But railroads, if their earnings are to be determined by the legislature, are made into involuntary charities. They become charities which are supported by forced contributions levied upon the owners of the stock and bonds. A railroad becomes a sort of God's highway, on which everybody has a natural as well as constitutional right to travel and to transport goods, at the expense of the kind-hearted people who built it. This is charity with a vengeance. It is, indeed, exactly the way in which an invading army uses railroads in time of war.

Such being the legal foundation on which the movement rests, what is the temper in which it is advocated? Is their demand a calm and manly appeal to the public for the redress of proved grievances, or is it a petulant, noisy, and confused clamor for no one knows exactly what? We have before us a number of the *Journal of Social Science*, published six months ago, containing what purports to be a temperate statement of the farmer's grievances by Mr. Willard C. Flagg, president of the Illinois State Farmers' Association. We have looked through it in vain for any discussion of the cost of transportation—a question which of course is the hinge on which any reform must turn; but what we do find, on the first page, is a sort of historical parallel between the post-mediæval peasantry of France and the agricultural capitalists of the grain-producing States of the Northwest:

"One sees," says Mr. Flagg, quoting La Bruyère, "certain wild animals, both male and female, scattered about the country, livid, and roasted by the sun, bent over the soil, which they scratch and dig up with invincible persistence; and when they stand upright they display a human face, for in truth they are men and women. At night they retire to their dens, where they feed on black bread, water, and roots. They spare other people the trouble of digging and sowing and reaping; they deserve not to be deprived of the bread they have produced." "So," continues Mr. Flagg, "allowing for differences in civilization, it has been in all ages. The robber baron, the mediæval merchant, the despotic tax-gatherer, reappear in merchant princes, 'protected' manufacturers, 'national' bankers, and railway 'magnates.'"

And this is what is considered a temperate and scientific way of approaching the subject. Turning to the proceedings of the Illinois State Farmers' Association itself, held six months before this (a report which persons are reminded in the introductory remarks is an "*educational* document"), we find in turning over the first few pages, among other educational material, a resolution introduced for the reconstruction of the courts on "principles of common sense"—the only principle mentioned being that people ought to argue their own cases as far as possible without aid from lawyers or any resort to appeals; second, a resolution to the effect that property "should bring a reasonable per cent. of profit," and that "the owner has the right to fix such reasonable per cent."; third, a resolution that the existing doctrine of "vested rights" of railroads "belongs to a past age," and "has no legitimate place in the jurisprudence of a free people"; besides any number of denunciations of specie payments, and among these a long paper by Mr. H. H. Day, of New York, in the course of which he refers to Mr. John Sherman, chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, as one of a gang of "banditti," and declares that "the first act signed by Ulysses S. Grant swept a thousand millions into the pocket of the specie-basis usurers, and added just so much to the shoulders of the toiling people, and laid the foundation for national decay." In short, we find in these temperate sociological and educational tracts the same sort of violent and irrational language with which the public is more familiar in such reports as that of Mr. Osborn, the Wisconsin Commissioner, who talks of the owners and managers of railroad securities as "these buccaneers of the nineteenth century."

We feel it to be our duty to warn all investors that they will be very foolish to trust any of their money to legislatures which pass such laws as the Potter Act, to judges who decide such laws constitutional, or to communities which produce such contributions to social science and popular education as those from which we have quoted, without the guarantee which an authoritative decision of the United States Supreme Court alone can give. We want to know, and to know finally when we buy one, what a railroad bond or share of stock actually is. Is it, as we are accustomed to consider, property, just as much as houses and furniture, or is it, as Chief-Justice Ryan assures us, a contract between two persons having a value to be determined at the pleasure of a third, to be increased or enhanced as the changing majority of an agricultural legislature happens to view with favor or dislike the railroad system of the country? It is one of the marks of a civilized, as distinguished from a barbarous state of society, that in the former what we call property is protected equally, whether it consists of lands and houses, or of mere evidences of value—paper credits, or bonded debt. If in the era of progress to which the farmers' movement proposes to introduce us, we are going back to a condition of society in which the only sort of property which we can call our own is that which we can make our own by physical possession, it is certainly important to every one to know it, and the only body which can really tell us is the Supreme Court at Washington.

## THE VIRGINIA SCHOOLS.

DR. RUFFNER, the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Virginia, has forwarded us the correspondence arising out of Miss Putnam's charges against the administration of the school system in that State. It will be remembered that this lady asserted in a private letter (published in

the *Nation* of November 12), that at Heathsville, the county-seat of Northumberland County, although the number of colored and white children was the same, of five hundred dollars of the public money appropriated for educational purposes, only fifty dollars was allotted to the colored children; and that in the town of Wicomico Church, in the same county, "while hundreds of dollars," for which the colored people were taxed, were used to maintain the white schools, there was no colored school at all down to the date of her letter—July 26, 1874—or "the last account she had." It is impossible for us to print the letters, owing to want of space. We must content ourselves with a summary of their contents.

Dr. Ruffner, in the first place, sent General Lewis, the County Superintendent of Schools, the extract from Miss Putnam's letter published in the *Nation*, and directed him to give Miss Putnam notice, and to investigate the matter thoroughly, warning her that if dissatisfied with the result she might appeal to Dr. Ruffner himself. The hearing came off in due course, and General Lewis reported that Miss Putnam appeared, but had no proof to offer of the charge about the school funds in the Heathsville District, and referred to a Mr. Nash in Washington as her authority; that, as regarded the schools in Wicomico, she did not know whether there were any there then or not, but at the period to which she now specifically assigned her charge—the term of office of Mr. Cralle, General Lewis's predecessor—there were no schools, but two had been established two years ago, though under the school law the system was not expected to be in full operation before 1876; that at the hearing there was much recrimination between the school trustees and Miss Putnam about extraneous matters, showing that she and those gentlemen were not on good terms. There was then an adjournment of two weeks to enable Miss Putnam to produce proof if she could.

At the expiration of that period she again appeared, but declined to be put on oath, and all she was able to produce by way of proof was a letter from Mr. Nash in Washington, who referred her to a negro named Nickens, in whose house the teacher of the colored schools had lived, but who did not seem to be forthcoming. The school trustees of the Lottsburgh School District, and also those of the Wicomico District, were then sworn, and the affidavits of the former say that Miss Putnam refused to be put on oath and failed to bring forward any proof of her charges; those of the latter, that during the years 1870–71 the colored children of Wicomico had the benefit of the schools of the adjoining townships of Lancaster and Heathsville, and that schools were not established in Wicomico until 1872, because no house could be found for the purpose; but that since that year two colored schools had been "in vigorous operation."

Miss Putnam writes to Dr. Ruffner corroborating the above as to the evidence at her command, and asking for an inspection of the county treasury-books, to see what came of the school money; rejoicing to hear that there are now two colored schools in Wicomico County, and deploring the fact that there were none sooner; and charging the school trustees with "using their influence, position, and money apparently with the main purpose of destroying" her school, and also charging a negro preacher named Pyramus Nutt—whom she styles a "treacherous minister"—with having seized the school-house erected for colored children by the Freedmen's Bureau, and, by force of arms, with the aid of his deacons and church-members, converted it into a Baptist church, in defiance of the protests of a good negro named Nelson Digges. In fact, her letter is mainly filled with wholly irrelevant matter, and shows simply that she and the town school trustees and some of the colored people in the neighborhood do not get on very well together. The correspondence closes with a letter from Dr. Ruffner, pointing out to Miss Putnam that her charges were based on imperfect information, both as to law and facts. The capitation tax of one dollar, which is all that the negroes, with very few exceptions, pay, goes into the State treasury along with the proceeds of all other taxation; and of this the amount distributed among the counties is about $450,000, of which about $162,000 is from the capitation tax on white and black—the blacks paying about $60,000 in the whole State. Add the local school taxes to the State taxes, and there is a total of about $1,000,000 devoted to educational purposes, of which the blacks pay only one-sixteenth; and yet they already receive one-third of the benefits, as there are 52,086 colored children enrolled in the schools, against 121,789 white. The colored population of the State in 1870 was two-fifths of the white; it is now less. In fact, as well as we can judge, the school system of Virginia seems to be coming into operation fairly and impartially, as rapidly as we can expect, and even more rapidly than the law requires. We may add that we think that a little of the old American presumption, on the part of the North, that people mean well, would do much to help the matter on.

## PROFESSOR KELLER ON THE PROBABLE SITE OF TROY.

NOT long ago, in speaking of Horace, we had occasion to mention Professor Keller of Freiburg and his services in Horatian criticism. Last spring Professor Keller visited Greece, Italy, and Asia Minor. The object of his journey was purely *cognoscendae antiquitatis*—to look over the classical ground in general for himself, and particularly to satisfy himself about Troy. A part of what he saw he has written to an American correspondent, who kindly allows us, with Professor Keller's sanction, to make some extracts from his letter for the *Nation*.

Fresh complications in the Homeric and Trojan questions have arisen from Schliemann's discoveries. Perhaps the smoke and dust of another ten years' war must drift away before we can make out all the points clearly, and say with the confident precision of the old campaigner:

> "Hac ibat Simois, hac est Sigeïa tellus,
> Hic steterat Priami regia celsa senis:
> Illic Aeacides, illic tendebat Ulixes:
> Hic alacer missos terruit Hector equos.

Meanwhile, we are very glad to present the views of so distinguished a scholar as Professor Keller on two important points: the archæological value of Schliemann's collection, and the probable site of Troy; particularly as so much has been said and written on the other side.

Of the collection Professor Keller writes thus:

"At Athens I was most cordially received by Schliemann, and had every opportunity to study up his treasures at my leisure. I was struck at once with two things: first with the marked contrast between Schliemann's collection and the familiar creations of Hellenic art, and secondly with its strong resemblance to the objects found in the oldest sepulchral mounds, caves, and pile buildings of Europe and Asia. I could not resist the conviction that Schliemann had struck a remarkable vein of prehellenic or nonhellenic civilization. Then, again, his 'Treasure of Priam,' with its golden vessels and ornaments, was not in keeping with that development of art which we find in the Homeric shield of Achilles, but harmonized admirably with that prehellenic civilization which might naturally be looked for among the vanquished Trojans. The owl-faced vases bear a close resemblance to the vases found in such quantities in those parts of Europe that were formerly Slavic—notably in Silesia and Pomerellen. The golden ornaments are suggestive in their richness of the neighboring Lydia and the golden Pactolus; in their form, of the golden pendants worn by the priests of Asia Minor. The idols are like those of Cyprus and the other islands along the coast of Asia Minor. And, last of all, the written characters on some of the shards bear the closest resemblance to the 'Cyprian character'—a character probably used in other islands besides Cyprus, and even in Asia Minor, before the introduction of the Phœnician alphabet. In short, everything points back to a time of hoary eld, to a primitive, genuine old Asiatic civilization. In sharp contrast with this is the upper and later layer of the Greek type, of which I will say nothing now."

So much for Athens and what Professor Keller saw in Schliemann's own house. Some weeks later, after tarrying at Magnesia, Sardis, Ephesus, and Tralles in Phrygia, Professor Keller found himself on the Plain of Troy. Of this he writes:

"Here I was firmly convinced that Schliemann had dug in the right spot, and not, as most modern scholars maintain, in the wrong spot; and my conviction has been confirmed in the fullest degree on a renewed and careful examination of all the passages in the ancients bearing on the subject. Schliemann's excavations were made, as everybody knows, at Hissarlik. His opponents maintain that Troy lay some hours' journey farther to the south, more inland, in the upper valley of the Scamander, on and by the side of a mountain called Balidagh, near the village of Bunarbashi. This view, which puts Troy in all modern maps at Bunarbashi, is *entirely untenable*. Both Schliemann and Hahn, the Austrian consul, have dug repeatedly, and for weeks at a time, about Bunarbashi, but without finding anything to confirm the hypothesis. Hahn was so firmly wedded to his Bunarbashi-Troy theory that he finally denied the existence of Troy altogether; and about all that he succeeded in grubbing up at Bunarbashi was one (1) insignificant terra-cotta figure, four (4) pieces of earthen pipe, and one (1) earthen watercrock. What a contrast to the thousands of interesting prehellenic antiquities from Hissarlik! And to dig deeper at Bunarbashi would be of no avail, for the natural, virgin soil is reached everywhere at the depth of a foot or two. The crags back of Bunarbashi were occupied only by a transient, *very unimportant settlement*. But Hissarlik, with her layer of deposit and ashes fifty feet deep, with her colossal wealth of venerable antiquities—Hissarlik is none other than the capital of

Priam's kingdom, none other than the seat of Ilion, the rich, the puissant, the proud.

"Furthermore, the united tradition of antiquity is decidedly in favor of Hissarlik, decidedly against Bunarbashi. The Homeric poems of which the Iliad is made up are notoriously of various origin. Only one of the twenty-four books, and that a book essentially different from the others, shows a personal familiarity of the author with the Trojan land. This book—the twentieth—says distinctly that sacred Ilios lay not on the spurs of many-fountained Ida, but *in the plain*. Then, again, the mythographer Apollodorus says that Ilios stood on a *hill*. This designation also applies admirably to Hissarlik, but not to Bunarbashi. It was at Hissarlik that Xerxes sacrificed, at Hissarlik the Spartan general Mindarus watched the sea-fight in the Hellespont, and so on. Only three scholars in all antiquity doubted the identity of Hissarlik and Troy; they maintained that Troy lay not at Hissarlik, but at the 'Village of the Ilians'—Ἰλιέων κώμη—probably from sheer envy of the prosperous Hissarlik-Troy, the pet of Alexander and the Romans. Excavations have been made at the 'Village of the Ilians' also, but utterly without success. And then the village lies entirely in a plain, and there is no spot where an acropolis could possibly have stood.

"In view of all these facts you may very naturally ask, 'How did Bunarbashi ever come to be pitched on in modern times as the site of Troy?' The answer is very simple:

"First. The French traveller, Lechevalier, fancied he had found at Bunarbashi the peculiar springs described in the twenty-third book of the Iliad. But the description does not tally very well with the springs found by Lechevalier, and is equally applicable to many other springs in the Troad; and besides, the race described in the twenty-third book would be impossible at Bunarbashi, where a chasm of some four hundred and ninety odd feet in depth would have to be clambered over—a hard road to travel.

"Secondly. It was thought that inferences might be drawn from ancient Greek cities with regard to Troy, not a Greek city; and inasmuch as the far-famed acropolis of Mycenæ was behind a plain, on a high eminence, it was thought that Troy, too, must have had her acropolis in the rear of the plain of Troy, perched on lofty crags. In answer to this we may say, (1) That it is contrary to the traditions of antiquity. (2) That a mass of fragments of antique pottery is to be found at Mycenæ, and none at Bunarbashi.

"The conclusion of the whole matter is this: we have in Schliemann's collection unmistakable relics of Troy, of immense age, and the spot on which he has made his excavations is not simply New Ilion, but the Ilion of all times."

## ENGLAND—THE NEW PARTY LEADERS.

London, January 1, 1875.

FOR the first time for several years we have had old-fashioned Christmas weather. I have just parted with friends who have travelled from the north of Scotland, and they tell me that the whole country, from their home in the far North to London, is covered with one uniform white coating of snow, and that the salt as well as the fresh-water lochs in the Highlands are frozen over—an unwonted phenomenon in this country. Here we have had ice in the parks, and a good deal of what would anywhere else be snow. But nothing white has any chance in this "infectious congregation of vapors." Before the snow-flakes reach the ground, contact with the "blacks" for which London is proverbial reduces them to a sort of Oxford grey, as if they were in half-mourning, and when they have rested but a few minutes on the streets they are transformed into a sooty slush, hideous to such senses as are affected by it. And this unexpected weather seems to have frozen up all intellectual and political as well as most physical life. In literature not much of interest has appeared this autumn except the 'Greville Memoirs,' and people are beginning to regard them as vapid and of little worth. January, however, is usually a stirring time for publishers, and something may appear this month. In politics, we are contentedly at rest. There is not a Parliamentary election nor even a petition going on to break our quiet. But there is some speculation at the clubs and Government offices and in society about the political programme of the future. Parliament has been summoned to meet for despatch of business on Friday, the 5th of February. The Prime Minister is in failing health, and the leader of the Opposition, Mr. Gladstone, is so erratic in his conduct at present that there is some risk of the session commencing without any leader in the House of Commons either on the Ministerial or the Opposition benches. People are asking freely who will lead the Conservatives in Mr. Disraeli's absence, and they find it difficult to get an answer.

There are only three possible leaders; Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary; Mr. Gathorne Hardy, the Secretary for War; and Sir Stafford Northcote, the Chancellor of Exchequer. The first of these may be dismissed in a word. Mr. Cross comes from the same county as Lord Derby, and is regarded as a protégé of his. But he is new to office, and never held Cabinet rank before last year. He did not especially distinguish himself during the past session in the discharge of his duties either in the House or in his department; indeed, he rather made a mess of it. Mr. Gathorne Hardy is a ready "rough-and-tumble" sort of orator, with a clear voice and an aptitude for saying hard, uncomfortable things at his opponents. Last year, for instance, when some inoffensive politician, zealous for his country's good, asked a harmless question about some regimental band, Mr. Hardy, being War Minister, recommended him "to blow his own trumpet, which he was so well qualified to do." For the moment it "brought the gallery down," and the inoffensive politician collapsed. But the House of Commons does not like that sort of thing from a Minister of the Crown. The pervading atmosphere is superior to it. The majority of the members are men accustomed to the tone and spirit of well-bred society, and a coarse snub, such as this of Mr. Hardy's, administered unnecessarily, the House resents and remembers. It does not object to see a troublesome man rebuked by a responsible minister. It rather enjoys it if well done. But it must be done not coarsely but with finish—such finish as Mr. Disraeli, for instance, has always at command. But even if the House could get over Mr. Hardy's want of finish—and the Conservatives would condone a great deal in an emergency—he would find difficulty in securing a trusty following, owing to his ecclesiastical leanings. He alienated the moderate Protestant party last session by his action on the Public Worship Regulation Act. He did not disguise his Ritualistic proclivities, but on more than one occasion voted with the professed supporters of the Ritualistic movement against Mr. Disraeli and other members of the Cabinet. In the present Puritanic or anti-Romish temper of the House and of the country, these votes would be almost sufficient to prevent Mr. Hardy from taking the place of leader if, owing to Mr. Disraeli's absence, the post should be unfortunately vacant. The ministerial party, therefore, would be left in the house to the guidance of Sir Stafford Northcote. You are probably nearly as well qualified to take the measure of his capacity as we are on this side of the Atlantic. As one of the Joint High Commission of 1871, he is not unknown to you. Here he is considered a man of fair capacity and creditable assiduity. He was trained by Mr. Gladstone, and has learned from him some rudimentary lessons in finance. He has the gift of a conciliatory temper, and he is a tolerable matter-of-fact speaker, with a pleasing if not a convincing manner, and his opinions are exactly of that hybrid type between Liberalism and Conservatism which is now prevalent in England. He could never steer the ship in troublous times, but in calm weather, with a disciplined and compact crew, anxious to keep the Tory vessel in, and an undisciplined and divided Opposition not particularly anxious to turn it out, he will do the work quite well. Much would necessarily depend upon the Prime Minister. If Mr. Disraeli remained in office, and was well enough to take part in the great debates from time to time with anything of his old astuteness, Sir Stafford Northcote might represent him in the daily formal work. But if the more unfavorable accounts of Mr. Disraeli's health are true, Sir Stafford Northcote's duties and opportunities for good and evil would be grave. The future Prime Minister would be a member of the House of Lords—the Duke of Richmond in all probability, because rumor (and she is not always false) has it that Lord Derby will not serve under Lord Salisbury, and Lord Salisbury will not be ruled by Lord Derby. The leader, therefore, in the Lower House will hold a most important and most difficult place in British politics. Will Sir Stafford Northcote prove strong enough for the place? That is a question time alone can solve.

But let us turn to the Opposition. Who is to guide the policy of that fortuitous concourse of atoms? Mr. Gladstone, even after all the vagaries of the last twelve months, might still be able to mould them into something like consistency if he could be persuaded to resume his place. He is the only man of genius among them, and, as one of them said the other day, "he is a head and shoulders taller than any man in the House." But that marvellous phenomenon called his "mind" is so absorbed by theological niceties, and his imagination is so impressed by the bugbear of a hostile Irish vote which he has conjured into existence and the importance of which he greatly exaggerates, that it is said to be more than doubtful if he will consent to call his followers together at the commencement of the session. Failing him, to what shepherd can the herds of scattered sheep give ear? Mr. Forster and Mr. Childers have been with you, and we have heard only the echoes of their utterances. Mr. Göschen has made two speeches in the recess, and he would not have damaged his position if he had left them unmade. Mr. Lowe has been discreetly silent. Lord Hartington has uttered

only half-a-dozen platitudes about the advantages of art, though his brother, Lord Frederick Cavendish, has professed himself prepared to consider favorably the question of disestablishment of the Church of England. Poor Mr. Stansfeld has ruined any chance of influence he ever might have had by plunging headlong into a sentimental quagmire of unpleasing questions, which excite a minute section of advanced female politicians and disgust all reasonable men. None but the tainted wethers of the flock will hearken now to him. Mr. Fawcett, indeed, has made a valuable speech to his constituents which advances him a step or two in the political ladder. But his physical infirmity unfits him for leadership—though blindness should be no bar to a place in the Cabinet, and it may be that his courageous independence, single-mindedness, and strong judgment may yet add influence to a Liberal Cabinet—and Mr. Fawcett prefers the place of an enlightened critic to that of an aspiring leader.

I have omitted, as you will observe, to allude to the pretensions of Sir William Harcourt, and the reason is that I am unable (and I cannot find any one to enlighten me) to say which party it may be that his ambition leads him to direct. He has just made a speech of no inconsiderable ability; but who can read the riddle that he there propounds? Does he wish to oust Mr. Gladstone by disparagement, or to succeed Mr. Disraeli by blandishment? English politicians and writers in English newspapers are turning over this curious question in their minds during their wintry Christmas holidays, and it will take a good deal of turning before they find an answer. Sir William Harcourt has long been in quest of Parliamentary distinction. Full twelve years ago he made abortive efforts to secure a seat—on which side of the House I do not recollect. He succeeded as a Liberal in 1868 at Oxford—the constituency which he now represents—and both he and his friends were sanguine of his early success. But at first it grew but slowly, and it was not until the Gladstone Government were in the shade that the member for Oxford began to shine. At this time he sat below the gangway, among the more revolutionary of the young republicans whom the wave of ardent Liberalism carried into the House of Commons at the general election of 1868, and he early proclaimed himself a champion of trades-unionists, farmers, commons-preservers, licensed victuallers, and other oppressed interests. He elicited a compliment from Mr. Disraeli by his eloquent defence of the Irish Education Bill, which shipwrecked Mr. Gladstone's Government, and shortly after was offered by Mr. Gladstone, and accepted, the office of Solicitor-General; and in that capacity, having more leisure than many law officers of the Crown, it is generally admitted that he performed his duties well. But the dissolution came, and Sir W. Harcourt was no longer Solicitor-General. In opposition, men have opportunities of distinguishing themselves which they cannot have in office, and Sir W. Harcourt has used his opportunities to strange advantage. He has spent his time in discrediting the fallen Prime Minister who brought him into office, and in doing homage to the risen Prime Minister who turned him out of office. And by these performances he has made himself one of the most considerable personages in the House of Commons, and a man of no small prominence in the country. He has a commanding presence; he is multifariously if not too deeply learned. He speaks fluently what he himself and his admirers would call speeches; but those who know the thing would call them well-written leading articles. But be they which you will, he interests his audience and the country in them, and he makes them understood. He has good discernment, and makes up his mind in early days which way he thinks the cat will jump, and prepares himself to take advantage of her agility. If he has discerned wisely, and the animal has jumped accordingly, his early decision gives him a start of competitors less prompt to act; and if he was at fault, he has sufficient ingenuity to follow along the other route before she has quite got out of sight. In the old days, when we were disestablishing churches with applause, and settling knotty points of evil precedent in land tenure, Sir W. Harcourt sat among the light-hearted Radicals. It was a radical cat in those days. In 1872 it was a dissipated cat, that would not let them rob the poor man of his beer nor make the country moral by act of Parliament, and then Sir William Harcourt was as rollicking as a licensed victualler. Last session we were putting down the Ritualists, and Sir W. Harcourt was the austerest among austere Protestants. Just at present the cat is jumping pleasantly on a level plain of Liberal-Conservatism, and Sir W. Harcourt is a Whig. He has cut himself adrift from his old shipmates with whom he sat below the gangway, and shows his superiority over them by jeering at the advanced opinions of their friends. It is a dangerous game to play—this game of running with the hare and hunting with the hounds. The old Whigs look askance at their new ally, and ask each other if these performances are quite consistent with their old traditions. The young lions of the *Examiner* and the *Beehive* have thrown him over. They thought they had found an Ishmael who would go out into the wilderness of Opposition and be ready to raise his hand against all privileges and all vested interests. But what is the animal they have cherished in their bosom? Certainly not an Ishmael—not even a hairy Esau. Only a Whig Jacob, looking for a birthright, and wearing Esau's cast-off clothes until they became too large for him and he thought it wise (to quote his own words) "to take in top-hamper." The Tories do not know how to act. They see in Sir W. Harcourt the sort of politician of which their Prime Minister was the prototype, and many of them think that he is just the man for them, and that Mr. Disraeli's strength is waning. But they cannot yet make up their minds to beckon him over to their side. The outside world look on with interest and amusement at the divergence, and wonder how it will end. On the whole, they feel inclined to put their money on the skilful player—to the extent, at least, of backing him not to draw a blank.

## PARIS—HER CHURCHES AND RELIGIONS.

PARIS, January 1, 1875.

PARIS has been at all times the subject of a special literature. Many volumes have been written on the great capital, but, as it is continually in the process of transformation, the subject is never quite exhausted. At the time of the last great Exhibition held in Paris, Victor Hugo did not disdain to write a long preface for a book which was a mere guide. This preface is quite worth reading, though the great poet heaps Pelion upon Ossa, and represents Paris as a sort of living goddess of the Revolution. M. Maxime Ducamp, who was also once what we call a Romanticist, much given to metaphors and images, has during late years quite changed his manner—he has become a dry statistician, and has chosen Paris for his subject. He has published a work called 'Paris: Its Functions and Organs,' the very title of which has something rather repulsive, but which contains a curious mass of information: "rudis indigestaque moles." There is no literary merit in this great work, but the author has really felt much interest in his subject, and he has collected facts which are of great intrinsic importance. He has disdained nothing; he has counted the *chiffonniers* (rag-pickers), who go about in the night, lantern in hand, looking for something to pick up in the heaps thrown before the doors; he has entered the shops where false hair is prepared for the consumption of the whole world; he knows how many violet bouquets are sold in Paris in one year. He spends his time in the streets, looking at the strange sights of the great town, and nothing escapes his powers of vision. He has seen, as I have, the strange advertisement of a shop which announced a forced sale. There was a rival shop opposite, and both had failed. One put out a great placard, on which was read: "Our failure has been a sincere failure; the failure of our neighbor has been only simulated." I contented myself with contrasting this new pride in a *sincere* failure with the horror our ancestors felt for the *bonnet vert* (the green cap worn by merchants who could not pay their creditors). M. Ducamp goes further, and enquires into all the mysteries of the tribunal of commerce, of the *monts-de-piété* (pawnbrokers' shops, which in Paris are under the direct control of the administration).

M. Ducamp is a great admirer of the modern improvements of M. Haussmann, the Prefect of the Empire. He speaks with contempt of old Paris, of its narrow and dirty streets. I confess that I regret many parts of the city which have been destroyed. You cannot turn poverty out of a city of two millions of inhabitants. You can only hunt it, force it from one quarter to another quarter. Paris before the Empire seemed very beautiful to me. Some of the new boulevards are very useful; others are long, deserted avenues, open to all the winds, without any shade in summer. A city ought to be like a plant, not be too much forced. The debt of the city of Paris was on the 1st of January, 1854, only about 94,000,000 francs; on the 1st January, 1874, it had swollen to 1,794,000,000 francs. The new taxes fall very heavily on the poor, many of whom are now very far from their work, and obliged to find a refuge outside of the fortifications. The story of the expropriation of the old houses which were destroyed to leave place for new ones is full of scandals. A jury fixed the amount of the indemnities which had to be paid to the proprietors and to the lodgers; and a company was formed which undertook to defend the expropriated parties before the jury. The company procured lawyers, fabricated false leases, and extorted as much money as possible from the jury. It recouped a part of its expenses by levying ten per cent. on the indemnities. The corruption of that time cost Paris, as M. Ducamp estimates, at least 200,000,000 of francs. Many of the works begun before the war are now abandoned: "pendent opera interrupta." The whole energy of the city has been spent lately on the new Opera, which will be positively inaugurated next Tuesday. It is a monument of folly, and marks an era of decadence; it has cost already

50,000,000 francs, and will be intolerably expensive. It is calculated that the lighting of it alone, if it is efficient, will cost 1,200 francs every evening.

Most of the poetry of an old town is in its churches. Paris cannot be imagined without Notre Dame. The history of the Paris churches is the history of the capital. There are at present in it 1,760,000 Catholics. The Protestants are few in number, and consist of 20,000 Calvinists, 12,000 Lutherans, and 9,000 Protestants belonging to various sects. The little Calvinistic community is just now threatened with a division; there is an orthodox party and a liberal party, and they will perhaps soon cease to meet in the same temples. During the French Revolution, as in the short triumph of the Commune, all the churches and temples had been converted into clubs. Bonaparte, as First Consul, opened the churches again for the priests, and many of the Jacobins and regicides were angry with him. Napoleon was no believer himself; but he had been horrified at the number of people who, in the absence of any religious establishments, had begun to believe in sorcery; he wished, besides, to make an ally of the Pope, and to organize his power with the help of the clergy. When the Revolution broke out, Paris had 60 parish churches, 20 collegiate churches, 80 chapels, 3 abbeys of men, 8 abbeys of nuns, 53 convents for men, and 146 convents for women. Most of the churches are still in use. The beautiful tower of Saint-Jacques la Boucherie remains, however, alone in the Rue Rivoli, as the nave has been demolished. The Val-de-Grâce has become a military hospital. Mercier, in his 'Tableau de Paris,' writes: "People dance now at the Filles de Sainte-Marie; they dance at the Carmes, where the massacres of September took place; they dance at the Carmelites in the Marais; they dance at Saint-Sulpice." Notre Dame itself became for a time the church where Laréveillère-Lepeaux officiated as the chief of the neo-philanthropists. It is impossible to destroy the religious feeling in a community; dogmas cannot be attacked by laws. After so many years of Voltairianism, would you have a notion of the status of the Catholic Church in Paris at this day? The archdeanery of Notre Dame, one of the two religious districts of the capital, contains 49 churches; the archdeanery of Sainte-Geneviève, which covers the left side of the river, has 20 churches. There are, therefore, in all, 69 churches. The law has placed every possible hindrance in the way of the religious corporations: the system of trusts and of entails is strictly forbidden; all property is personal, and, so to speak, completely free. Still, the law can be evaded; and there are now in Paris 101 religious corporations—25 for men, 76 for women; they occupy 227 convents in the capital.

There is among the lower classes of the population a deep-seated hatred of the clergy, which was well shown during the Commune. This is all the more surprising inasmuch as the old abuses of the Catholic Church which shocked our ancestors before the Revolution of 1789 have all disappeared. A more respectable, moral, philanthropic body of men than the present priests of Paris could probably not be shown anywhere. Still, the first hostages chosen by the Commune were the Archbishop, the curate of the Madeleine, the Dominicans of Arcueil. There was in all the acts of the Commune a violent anti-religious character. M. Ducamp informs us that, in the year 1872, out of 45,780 funerals, there were as many as 5,341 *civil* funerals, in which no priest took any part. He calls this proportion a small one; to me it appears extraordinary. In the same year, out of 56,694 children born, there were only 48,763 children baptized. These numbers show conclusively that in Belleville, Montmartre, and those quarters, there is an infidel and pagan population, which hates all religions, the Protestant as well as the Catholic. There is no doubt that this population lives in the belief that the churches are merely the instruments of political oppression, the accomplices of the police and of the gendarmes. At the time of the Ligue, the religious feeling dominated the political passion; the hatred of the Huguenots which inspired the massacre of Saint Bartholomew, turned the Parisians against Henri IV., and made them the allies of the Spaniards. Now, it is just the reverse—the political passion is predominant. In the year 1831, the mob attacked and sacked the Archbishopric, because M. de Quélen was not a liberal; the Seine carried for a whole day precious books, manuscripts, and holy vestments.

It would be unjust to accuse the whole working population of sharing the sentiments which found vent during the Commune. You are sure to meet all the extremes in any great agglomeration of men. Robespierre well understood the people when he admitted the necessity of religious ceremonies. His fête of the Supreme Being was a disgusting farce; but Robespierre felt the power of ideas and of symbols. The Parisians had too much *esprit* to be satisfied with the sight of the priests of the Convention—they knew where the Goddess of Reason came from, and where she would return after the ceremony. The sentimentality of Rousseau became an object of ridicule when the four ages of mankind were represented by Parisian gamins, by drunken old men with fantastic beards, by nurses and hired babies. This theatrical religion was soon despised; even during the worst days of the Terror, when denunciation was constant, the poor Catholic priests who secretly administered the sacraments were very seldom denounced. The old consecrated days of Pentecost, Easter, etc., were still considered as holidays. I have often noticed in the popular theatres that the religious sentiment, when it is expressed on the stage, does not offend the audience. During the siege of Paris, the statue of Strasbourg on the Place de la Concorde was not the only shrine of the Parisian population; the Virgin of Nanterre was constantly decorated with tricolor ribbons, and in the end was quite overwhelmed by them. The Abbé Bossuet, who belongs to the same family as the famous Archbishop of Meaux, and who is now the curate of Saint Louis in the Island of the Seine, one of the poorest quarters of Paris, told me that he remained in Paris, during the Commune, in his presbytery, and none of his parishioners denounced him to the Commune. The work of the missionaries is difficult in the infidel quarters, as their only chance there is a great gift of eloquence. The Parisian workingman, accustomed to the theatres, quite permeated with a certain sort of light and ironical *esprit* which pervades the press, the workshops, the cafés, cannot be easily moved. You must either flatter his most wicked passions, as do the orators of the clubs, or astonish him. Very few preachers can do this. The most popular at the present moment is a young officer, who has the missionary passion, and who never speaks to any but popular audiences. The people admire his dash, his sincerity; they respect his uniform; and he is said to have done wonders in some of the worst quarters of the capital. But there are very few men like M. de Mun who have an apostle's soul under the helmet of a dragoon.

Paris is an inexhaustible subject. I have only touched to-day on its religious character. It may be made the object of many studies of this kind; the materials are almost too numerous, and one feels lost in the midst of them, as a foreigner gets lost in the intricacies of the streets of an old quarter. D'Aubigné calls Paris "cette spélunque de bêtes farouches" (this cavern of wild beasts). Michelet and Victor Hugo proclaim her the Holy City, the Jerusalem of the new Gospel of Humanity.

# Correspondence.

## THE INTERCOLLEGIATE CONTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think you deserve the thanks of all friends of sound scholarship and the "higher" education for your remarks in the last *Nation* on the recent "intercollegiate contest" in New York. Great respect is of course due and paid to the eminent men who lent their presence on that occasion, and it may be admitted that Col. Higginson's estimate of the productions of the essayists and speakers is correct. All this, however, does not touch the real questions which should first be considered—how will such contests affect the proper work of our college students, and what is the more general effect of such public exhibitions on the actors and the community of college students? The right answer to these questions does not seem to me doubtful, or to depend at all upon the credit with which the actors may acquit themselves. It is clear to my mind that our college students have greatly advanced in their capacity for work, or the requirements of our respectable colleges have been greatly lowered within the last few years, if such contests will not directly and necessarily result in a very harmful interference with the proper work of college students. By proper work I mean simply due attention to the prescribed duties of the college course. I would lay down the rule, and if it were not for the adage about exceptions proving the rule, I would say this rule has no exception, that a college student's first duty and interest is to do the work of the recitation and lecture-room thoroughly. I should say further from my own observation that this work will completely fill up the time of ninety-nine out of every hundred students, so that this "side-show," to speak a little irreverently, could properly be kept up by only a very insignificant numerical fraction of students. I am also very certain that this fraction will not embrace those who will figure in any "intercollegiate" contests. No matter, then, how brilliant the display or how keen the rivalry attending such contests, their inevitable influence is antagonistic to the best interests of our students. The conservative influences of real knowledge and thorough discipline are supplanted by those influences which must attend an effort at the public exhibition of immature powers and superficial or imperfect knowledge.

But if there were time and place in a faithful student's college course

for any outside literary or oratorical contests, I think this kind of public contest is specially objectionable. Does a public contest before such an audience as was recently assembled in New York furnish the true sort of incentive to students in the midst of college life? Do they need such incentives? I can hardly think of any influences less likely to promote good scholarship or habits of patient study and reflection. The applause of a general audience is not what a college student needs. He needs the habits of study and the power of acquisition; and if I were to suggest any change in the ordinary college course, it would be in the direction of more plain, silent study and less writing and speaking, especially before general audiences. There is a time for all things, I suppose, but the time for such public contests is not while students should be fully occupied with labors which, if properly conducted, will in the end best fit them to deserve and win the attention of the public.

The absence of Harvard and Yale from the recent contest appears significant, and is the result, I am glad to believe, of a just reaction against the practice of judging a college student by what he can *say* rather than by what he *knows*—by what he appears to be rather than by what he is.—Yours truly, D. H. Chamberlain.

Columbia, S. C., January 18, 1875.

# Notes.

F. B. PATTERSON, 32 Cedar Street, has reprinted in a neat pamphlet the late James W. Gerard's paper on the "Old Streets of New York," read last year before the Historical Society. He also purposes publishing, in the course of the present year, a 'Pictorial, or Panoramic, History of Old New York,' consisting of fac-similes of early maps, views of buildings, etc., etc., without text.——Bigelow's 'Life of Franklin,' which has heretofore been sold by subscription only, is now, we are glad to say, obtainable of the publishers, J. B. Lippincott & Co., and of the trade generally. ——Ginn Bros., Boston, publish immediately a text-book of Ovid, edited by Messrs. Allen and Greenough, and uniform with their Virgil.——'A Concordance to the Iliad of Homer,' by Mr. Guy Lushington Prendergast, who was, according to the *Athenæum*, engaged upon the compilation of it from 1847 to 1863, has just been completely printed, in two parts.——The vexed Eastern Question, which is now in the midst of one of its periodical crises, has been elaborately and ably treated in a new work, entitled 'L'Empire Ottoman au point de vue politique vers le milieu de la seconde moitié du XIXe siècle.' The author, Mr. Edward Scrosoppi, was born in the East, of Italian parentage, and has made a life-long study of the antiquities, history, and political condition of Turkey. His work is in three parts, occupying as many volumes.——The first part of the second volume of Mommsen's 'Römische Staatsrecht' contains the detailed treatment of the several magistracies, beginning with the office of King and ending with the extraordinary magistracies (Decemvirate, etc.) of the Republic. The second part is announced as in the press, and to appear at Easter. Nothing is said as to its scope, but it seems likely that it will treat of the magistrates of the Empire. The third volume will take up the assemblies, etc. The key to the theories of the present volume is found in the expression (p. 694) that "the Roman monarchy was never abolished either in form or substance, but only changed its name, being restricted especially by obligatory *Provocatio*, collegiality with equal powers, and year's tenure of office."——We have received the first number (for February) of the *National*, a new monthly illustrated magazine published at Washington, and designed, we believe, to confirm the pretensions of that city to be regarded as one of the literary centres of the country. For our part, we see no reason why it may not in time become one. How far the *National* is going to furnish evidence of its capacity to shine in literature remains to be seen, as the present number is confessedly imperfect and unsatisfactory to the new proprietors. The "Science Notes" are under the charge of Dr. Theodore Gill, but no other name among the collaborators has anything like the weight of his.——Mr. F. W. Putnam, of the Peabody Academy of Science, Salem, has been appointed Curator of the Museum of Archæology at Cambridge, as the late Jeffries Wyman's successor. No one more competent could have been selected for this position.——A venerable and much respected American poet died in Boston on Thursday last—Charles Sprague, born, near the spot where he died, in 1791. The successes which gave him a reputation date back nearly or quite half a century, and his literary productiveness ended many years ago. He was for forty years cashier of the Globe Bank in his native city, which he seldom left. It is stated indeed, that he never entered a steam-car but once.

—In the "Monthly Gossip" of the February *Lippincott's* occurs an announcement of no little literary interest. It is there positively and circumstantially stated that the English translator of Omer Khayyám's 'Rubáiyát' is Mr. Edward Fitz Gerald, of Woodbridge in Suffolk, a gentleman whose pedigree all the world may consult in Burke's 'Landed Gentry,' himself (born in 1809) a graduate of Trinity College, Cambridge, "where among his contemporaries and friends were the present poet-laureate and Mr. Spedding." His published works are thus enumerated: (1) 'Euphranor, a Dialogue on Youth,' 1851 and (second ed., with an appendix) 1855; (2) *Polonius: A Collection of Wise Saws and Modern Instances*, 1852; (3) *Six Dramas of Calderon*, 1853—the last being both in prose and verse, and comprising "The Painter of his Own Dishonor," "Keep Your Own Secret," "Gil Perez the Gallician," "Three Judgments at a Blow," "The Mayor of Zalamea," and "Beware of Smooth Water." To the dramas Mr. Fitz Gerald first allowed his name to be appended as translator. He has also printed privately two small volumes of translations—the 'Agamemnon' of Æschylus, and two plays from Calderon again: "Life is a Dream," and "The Wonderful Magician." His metrical Persian translations include besides the 'Rubáiyát' the "Bird-Parliament," from Attár's "Mantiq-ut-tair" (unprinted), and "Salámán and Absál." Mr. Fitz Gerald's name, it is pointed out, has been overlooked by Allibone, which is hardly surprising, considering the late date at which he revealed his authorship; but Pennsylvanians may see additional cause to regret the omission in the fact that he married Lucy, daughter of Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet. "Everything that he has produced," says the gossiper, "is uniformly distinguished by marked ability; and, such being the case, his indifference to fame, in this age of ambition for literary celebrity, is a phenomenon which deserves to be emphasized."

—Recovery of the Murillo stolen from the Cathedral of Seville has been effected in this city with some rather dramatic accompaniments. On the 7th instant the Spanish consul was informed by Mr. William Schaus, the expert and art importer, that a canvas corresponding with the missing part of the altar-piece had been offered to him by some Spanish strangers. Señor de Uriarte saw the picture and compared it with the photograph of the original furnished to all Spanish consuls, which it proved to match precisely. The photograph in question shows the entire subject of St. Anthony of Padua beholding the vision of the Holy Child Jesus, the exact outline of the cutting being represented by a white trace. The cut portion, less than a fourth part of the canvas, contains the kneeling form of the Saint, as represented in the lower right-hand corner of the composition. The stolen figure had not been cut into strips as reported, except that one corner of the cloth, where the purloiner's knife had made an awkward slant at the most distant part of its orbit, was mended out by the addition of a supplementary triangle. The fragment, forming a rough oval about seven feet high, had been tacked to a new square American-made stretcher, and had previously been very badly handled, the eye and nose, as seen in the profile, having almost entirely peeled off; the cloth had obviously been packed for concealment, like a smuggled shawl or tapestry, without much care for its profitable preservation. The person holding it, apparently a catspaw, offered it to the dealer at almost any price, and when pressed to name a figure suggested only $250 or $300; for the former sum it was secured by Mr. Schaus, who passed it to the consul within twenty-four hours for the mere reimbursement of his outlay, though the rewards offered by the political and ecclesiastical authorities amount, we are told, to sixty thousand dollars. There are indications that the holders of the painting were considerably embarrassed with their possession, and had previously attempted to pass it off with a score of indifferent Spanish canvases to a picture-cleaner, Mr. Vollmering. The consul, being duly notified, arrested the seller at the time of his completing the bargain with the money in his pocket; he calls himself Fernando Garcia, and protests innocence, though he had represented the painting to Mr. Schaus as a treasure long owned in his family. In company with a detective he has returned to Spain again with his picture, by way of Havana. Thus the chapel in the Seville Cathedral regains, if there is no counterfeiting in the case, its complete altar-piece; and the Saint, having travelled six thousand miles on his knees, resumes his old station after a wider career than those of Raphael's cartoons or the Elgin marbles. The seller of the picture has left behind him a friend, one Antonio Somariba, who protests strongly against the arbitrary way in which the pair of them were arrested, and laments that he has not funds to prosecute the detective. One would think, however, that such money could readily be raised among the Cuban party here, who have stormed about the "inquisitorial" proceeding of the Spanish power with delighted ardor.

—In 1837, a gentleman in Baltimore, named John Hopkins, procured the incorporation of a university, to be called by his name, and by gift at that time, and subsequently by bequest, endowed it with about $3,500,000, not in wild lands either, but mainly in such solid securities as stock of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. The persons composing the corporation, twelve in number, are men of the highest character and standing in Baltimore—lawyers, doctors, and merchants. Moreover, Mr. Hopkins left nearly as much more money to found an hospital beside the university, thus giving the latter the opportunity of building a medical school of the first order. The money is left, too, to the corporation, who fill their own vacancies, absolutely untrammelled by any condition or reservation, political, religious, or literary, except the establishment of scholarships for the benefit of students from Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. The endowment may, therefore, be called unprecedented both in its freedom and liberality. The trustees can found any kind of university they please, and they have thus a power which has never before been lodged in the hands of any body of men in this country. When we first heard of it we confess we felt little interest in it, concluding that we were simply to witness the addition of one more to the huge array of high schools which the country already possesses, in which poorly-paid professors would labor year after year in the dull and dead routine of giving a "university education," by teaching Latin, Greek, and mathematics, and perhaps a smattering of natural science, to half-prepared boys or girls, or both. But luckily this great endowment has fallen into the hands of men who have a higher idea of their responsibilities, and they intend to use it for the foundation of a real "seat of learning," or, in other words, for enabling the country to play its proper part in the best intellectual work of the day, feeling assured that the preparation of boys and girls to earn a livelihood will be abundantly looked after by other institutions. They accordingly sent for President Gilman of the California University, and asked him what he would do if he were put at the head of the new enterprise and were left perfectly free. He said in substance that he would make it the means of promoting scholarship of the first order, and this by only offering the kind of instruction to advanced students which other universities offer in their post-graduate courses, and leaving the kind of work now done by undergraduates to be done elsewhere. For this purpose he would select as professors men now standing in the front rank in their own fields; he would pay them well enough to leave them at their ease as regards the commoner and coarser cares; would give them only students who were far enough advanced to keep them constantly stimulated to the highest point; and he would exact from them yearly proof of the diligent and fruitful cultivation of their specialties by compelling them to print somewhere the results of their researches. Now, what this means, and how great a contribution it would be to the intellectual progress and fame of the United States, may be inferred when we say that we could at this moment name twenty men, employed at small salaries in existing colleges, whose work in certain fields of research would be of inestimable value to the science and literature of the world, but who are compelled, in order to earn their livelihood, to pass most of their time teaching the rudiments to boys, or preparing school-books; and that American graduates who would like to pursue certain lines of culture to their latest limits are compelled every year either to go abroad or content themselves with the necessarily imperfect aid which they can get in the post-graduate courses from overworked and half-paid professors who are doing the duty of schoolmasters. One of the results of the present state of things—and none see it more plainly than those who like ourselves are called on every week to compare the results of the intellectual activity of Europe with our own—is that our intellectual progress bears no sort of proportion to our progress in the accumulation of wealth and in the mechanical arts. To the higher thought of the world we contribute shamefully little. The books that rouse and stimulate men in the various great fields of speculation to-day are almost invariably European, and it shows what a mental condition some of us have fallen into, that it has been seriously proposed, within a few years, to remedy this state of things by putting a heavy customs duty on the products of the European mind—a proposal worthy of the year 1000. We are glad to say that the Hopkins trustees fell in cordially with Mr. Gilman's terms, offered him the presidency of the new institution, and that he will probably accept it. It is a great opportunity, and we hope and believe it will be rightly used.

—The February number of the *Popular Science Monthly* contains Professor Tyndall's "Reply to the Critics of the Belfast Address." The reply is only partly exculpatory, and is largely devoted to a vigorous attack on the Holy Father and the Church which he represents, and to an exposition of the ignorance and superstition of the professors of the Catholic faith. In this Mr. Tyndall is, of course, completely successful, and as he recapitulates the grievous scientific errors and mortal sins into which the Church has at different times fallen—the ringing of the church-bells all over Europe to scare away Halley's comet in 1456, the decree of 1616 denouncing the Copernican system and "suspending" all books teaching it, the persecution of Galileo, and so on—the reader, if he is a scientific man or a Protestant, cannot but feel a glow of satisfaction in reflecting that he is not absurd enough to be a Catholic. The "Reply" also gives us some interesting biographical details about Mr. Tyndall himself. Born in Ireland, he belongs to one of those Irish-Protestant families which for many generations had been taught, from father to son, to hold their own against the Church of Rome. To quote his own words:

"I had a father whose memory ought to be to me a stay, and an example of unbending rectitude and purity of life. The small stock to which he belonged were scattered with various fortunes along that eastern rim of Leinster, from Wexford upward, to which they crossed from the Bristol Channel. My father was the poorest of them. Still, in his socially low but mentally and morally independent position, by his own inner energies and affinities he obtained a knowledge of history which would put mine to shame; while the whole of the controversy between Protestantism and Romanism was at his finger-ends. At the present moment the works and characters which occupied him come, as far-off recollections, to my mind: Claude and Bossuet, Chillingworth and Nott, Tillotson, Jeremy Taylor, Challoner and Milner, Pope and McGuire, and others whom I have forgotten, or whom it is needless to name. Still this man, so charged with the ammunition of controversy, was so respected by his Catholic fellow-townsmen, that they one and all put up their shutters when he died. With such a preceptor, and with an hereditary interest in the Papal controversy, I naturally mastered it. I did not confine myself to the Protestant statement of the question, but made myself also acquainted with the arguments of the Church of Rome. I remember to this hour the interest and surprise with which I read Challoner's 'Catholic Christian Instructed,' and on the border-line between boyhood and manhood I was to be found taking part in controversies in which the rival faiths were pitted against each other. I sometimes took the Catholic side, and gave my Protestant antagonist considerable trouble."

In this way, he says, the views of Irish Catholics became intimately known to him, and he vouches for the fact that "there was no doctrine of Protestantism which they more emphatically rejected, and the ascription of which to them they resented more warmly, than the doctrine of the Pope's personal infallibility." Yet, in face of this knowledge on his part, he declares that it was some time since obstinately asserted and reasserted in his presence, by a Catholic priest, that "the doctrine of the infallibility of the Pope has always been maintained in Ireland."

—Elsewhere in his reply Mr. Tyndall discusses the allegation that at Belfast he misused his position "by quitting the domain of science, and making an unjustifiable raid into the domain of theology." This, he says, he fails to see any foundation for, inasmuch as Kant, Laplace, and William Herschel were guilty of exactly the same offence. They, too, "prolonged the intellectual vision beyond the boundary of experience, and propounded the nebular theory."

"Accepting that theory as probable, is it not permitted to a scientific man to follow up in idea the series of changes associated with the condensation of the nebulæ; to picture the successive detachment of planets and moons, and the relation of all of them to the sun? If I look upon our earth, with its orbital revolution and axial rotation, as one small issue of the process which made the solar system what it is, will any theologian deny my right to entertain and to express this theoretic view? Time was when a multitude of theologians would be found to do so—when that arch-enemy of science which now vaunts its tolerance would have made a speedy end of the man who might venture to publish an opinion of the kind. But that time, unless the world is caught strangely slumbering, is for ever past. As regards inorganic Nature, then, I may traverse, without let or hindrance, the whole distance which separates the nebulæ from the worlds of to-day. But only a few years ago this now conceded ground of science was theological ground. I could by no means regard this as the final and sufficient concession of theology; and at Belfast I thought it not only my right but my duty to state that as regards the organic world, we must enjoy the freedom which we have already won in regard to the inorganic. I could not discern the shred of a title-deed which gave any man, or any class of men, the right to open the door of one of these worlds to the scientific searcher, and to close the other against him. And I considered it frankest, wisest, and in the long-run most conducive to permanent peace, to indicate without evasion or reserve the ground that belongs to science, and to which she will assuredly make good her claim."

One would suppose from this that in his Belfast address Mr. Tyndall only expressed a belief in the connection by development between organic and inorganic nature. But this has been done by many people before him without creating any hubbub. The objectionable and unscientific thing which has caused all the trouble was his declaration that he discerned in matter "the promise and potency of every form and quality of life," stating, or seeming to state, that matter was the *causa causans* of the universe. We fail,

for our part, to make out from this reply what is the precise kind of materialism for which Mr. Tyndall is willing to be held responsible, but from an editorial article in another part of the *Monthly* we infer that it "consists simply in ascribing higher powers and possibilities to matter than hitherto, and not in sinking mind in matter, or in asserting the materiality of mind in the name of scientific authority"—certainly a harmless, though perhaps for one who wishes disciples a vague, faith. Substantially, his reply to those of his assailants who have given him notice to quit theological ground, is that he is not and never has been a trespasser, but is a law-abiding scientist and has kept carefully on his own side of the boundary, about which line, however, he keeps moving with such surprising agility that no merely human eye can make out whether his defence is valid or not.

—With Charles Kingsley, who died in England on Sunday, has passed away one of the most widely known English writers of the present time. Mr. Kingsley, although not an old man at his death—he was in his fifty-sixth year—had in a measure outlived his earlier fame; but those who recall the literary events of twenty years ago will remember the appearance of his three or four novels—his chief title to remembrance—as not the least important among them. Mr. Kingsley had indeed not only outlived his earlier fame, he had even in some degree damaged and discredited it; and yet it may be said that 'Westward Ho!' and 'Hypatia' have not suffered by their kinship to their less happily begotten brothers. Their author was a striking example of a man who had a certain limited message to deliver—whose cup was filled, at the most, but halfway up to the brim. While the prime impulse lasted the result was admirable, so much so that one who vividly remembers it and who was at the time getting his initiation into the literature of the day, has to make an effort to write of it at all judicially; but its days were numbered, and, though the cup was still offered for our entertainment and edification, one felt that the contents had been diluted and that the liquid had but a vague taste of its early potency. Mr. Kingsley played a number of parts, and his career was a busy one. If one wished to mention his most comprehensive rôle, one would of course allude to him as the exponent of "muscular Christianity." We are not able to say whether he invented the term, but practically he did most to propagate it. In this direction—and in this one only—Mr. Kingsley founded a school and exerted a sensible influence. The influence in many ways was for great good, and it is not the fault of the author of 'Westward Ho' and 'Yeast' if 'Guy Livingstone' *et hoc genus omne* have all, and more than all, the foibles of his manner, and none of its virtues. Mr. Kingsley had entered the Church, and was thus able to emphasize the Christian side of his philosophy as well as the muscular; but it was, nevertheless, as presented in his novels rather than in his sermons (of which he published several collections), that the public chiefly relished it. In so far as it was in any definite degree a philosophy, it was the philosophy of Mr. Carlyle condensed and popularized, and addressed rather to the comprehension of the younger members of the community. Like the author of 'Sartor Resartus,' the author of 'Alton Locke' was an extreme Liberal, and if he had continued to advance in the direction taken by this volume, he would have found himself at the present day in rather startling company. But Mr. Kingsley never advanced very far in any direction; he had always, as the phrase is, a great many irons in the fire, but he suffered none of them to get thoroughly heated. 'Alton Locke,' as a Radical manifesto, had no successors, and in the author's later novels we mingle much more in high life than in low. Mr. Kingsley was always what is called a "hearty" writer; he wrote with an air of high animal spirits, and often in an admirably picturesque style; but to our sense, which was perhaps fastidious, the note of simple sincerity was rather wanting. 'Alton Locke,' as we remember it after the lapse of many years, had a natural heat and youthful candor which never reappeared. In 1856, if we are not mistaken, Mr. Kingsley published the novel of 'Two Years Ago,' which marked his highest tide of success. After this, we think it will not be denied, his inspiration ebbed most sensibly.

—It often seemed to us regrettable that Mr. Kingsley was not either a good deal more or a good deal less of a serious writer. His didactic effort, in its later developments, such as his Lectures on Modern History at the University of Cambridge, was sufficient to obstruct his imagination, but not in itself of any great illuminating force. As a reasoner, and indeed as a moralist, Mr. Kingsley was very weak, and he had been so strong as a story-teller before he assumed these responsibilities, that his old admirers always bore him, in his other capacity, an obstinate grudge. A capital novelist was spoiled to make a very indifferent historian. Six months hence, probably, critics will lay aside any present hesitation they may have in saying that 'The Roman and the Teuton' and the lectures on the Ancien Régime were very singular contributions to historical science from a Cambridge professor. Mr. Kingsley's enterprise was to demolish history as a science, to prove that all human things depend upon the "valiant man, God helping," etc. His career at Cambridge was brief, and added distinction neither to the University nor to his own record. Mr. Kingsley's vagaries as a moralist may perhaps best be illustrated by reference to the "moral" support which, in company with Carlyle and others, he offered to Jefferson Davis and Governor Eyre. Mr. Kingsley's opinions, by this time, had become very favorable to the aristocracy. Our readers have not, perhaps, forgotten at what cost to his tranquillity he paid his famous compliment to the upper class—assuring it that it possessed all the good looks and half the good morals of England. (We do not pretend to give the exact formula, but this was about the sense of it.) Such leanings are of course perfectly legitimate; all we can say is, that it is a pity to mix incongruous things; to pretend to philosophize without the philosophic instinct, and to make one's personal tastes do duty as dogmas. The danger with those tastes of which Mr. Kingsley made himself in a manner the prophet, is that the merely brutal side of them may come uppermost; that the "valiant man," even with God's help to do otherwise, may run too much to brawn and muscle and become obtuse in his moral perceptions. Mr. Kingsley was the apostle of English pluck, English arms and legs, and the English sporting and fighting temper generally, and he has given some admirable illustrations of these fine things; but we imagine that the accepted Kingsleyan type of manhood has lately come to be regarded as having a certain inadequacy. The average well-developed young Englishman of the present moment would be likely to feel that it offered a meagre allowance for the stowage of the cerebral parts. The type has played its part bravely, however, and we should be sorry to speak of it with anything but gratitude. Mr. Kingsley will retain a place in our literary history as a rather rash and indiscreet man of genius, with a taste for deeper waters than his intellectual stature warranted his attempting; or rather, to speak more justly, his indiscretions, his lectures, his essays (happy passages as there are in many of these) will be forgotten, and he will be judged by those two or three novels which represent his genius at its best. These in their way are admirable, and their influence in this country and in England has been wide, and, taken altogether, very wholesome. It is not too much to say that they have been part of the mental development of most of the young people growing up during the last twenty-five years. Mr. Kingsley offered the singular spectacle of a man whose imagination died a natural death in its prime, as it were; but while it lived, it was vigorous and splendid. If we picked out half-a-dozen modern English novels for the use of posterity, one of them, and one of the first, would certainly be 'Westward Ho!' We should add to this three or four of the author's admirable songs, which indeed posterity, left to itself, is likely to continue to sing.

—Mr. MacGahan's book describing his adventures in pursuit of the Russian army in its campaign against Khiva, and after joining it, interesting as the book is and useful, admits obviously of the addition of details from those who accompanied some one of the branches of the expedition through its whole march, and also of some enlargement as a history of military enterprise. The full narrative of the Orenburg (MacGahan's) detachment, with all its incidents, is told very agreeably by a gentleman who was assigned to this division as physician and surgeon, Dr. Grimm, in the "Reise-Eindrücke eines russischen Militair-Arztes" in the *Russische Revue*, No. II. for 1874. Dr. Grimm mentions a fact that MacGahan has perhaps noted, though we do not remember it in him, that the cylindrical hat of black sheepskin worn by the Khan's subjects presses the ears down and forwards, and that this disfigurement, which occurs elsewhere only in a few Afghans who are distinguished from the Khivese otherwise by their garments, serves in Central Asia as a mark of the Khivese. The expedition considered in its military aspect, with comments upon Russian policy in Central Asia from the favorable side, and a history of the campaign "nach den Quellen," are presented by another writer, Emil Schmidt, in about two hundred of the large octavo pages of the magazine, Nos. IV., V., VI. and VII. (twelve numbers of the *Revue* are published in the year, beginning with January, but at irregular intervals). This author, who, as might be expected, is the later writer, corrects a few errors in other descriptions of the expedition, especially Stumm's, and in maps published in Petermann. He gives also, in about twenty pages, a list of all the works relating to Khiva from the earliest times, beginning with the Zendavesta, and concluding with narratives treating particularly of the expedition. Both Grimm's narrative and Schmidt's have been published separately in St. Petersburg; neither of them has a map of the country, as has P. Lerch's 'Khiva oder Khârezm,' also published separately from the *Revue*, and highly praised by

Schmidt. Lerch's book discusses principally the earlier writers upon Khiva up to the seventeenth century.

## MR. GREVILLE'S JOURNAL.*

MR. GREVILLE belonged to a more leisurely generation than our own, and he is a singularly complete example of the amateur annalist. Born in an aristocratic circle; intimate with all the social magnates of his time, and related to many of them; holder of a political office which gave him the "inside view" of public people and affairs, and yet was enough of a sinecure to leave him liberty and time for thinking and writing after his own fashion; observant, shrewd, sagacious, cultivated, too, in a fair degree, in spite of his disclaimers—he had the happy inspiration very early in life of taking copious notes of what he saw and heard, the perseverance to continue the practice for half a century, and the talent to make his observations extremely luminous and interesting. In 1818, when he was barely twenty-four years of age, he resumed a Journal which he had already begun and interrupted, "because," as he says, "having frequent opportunities of mixing in the society of celebrated men, some particulars about them might be interesting hereafter." With this simple remark he ushers in this extremely voluminous record of the political and social events of his time, of which the first instalment, coming up to the year 1837, fills two stout, closely-printed volumes. The remainder, from the accession of Queen Victoria to the close of the author's life in 1865, is withheld for the present, in deference to contemporary susceptibilities. The author fulfils the first duty of a memoir-writer—that of being frank; and if his treatment of the people of our own immediate day may be measured by his treatment of their fathers and grandfathers, there will be high entertainment, in the volumes yet to come, for their children and grandchildren. It is not that he is a scandal-monger, but something that is, on the whole, more uncomfortable. Scandal may be set down as scandal, and abusive tales may easily be too heavily weighted to float. Mr. Greville is discreet, temperate, irreproachable in tone, never scurrilous. But, on the other hand, he is full of common sense; he has an extreme directness of vision; he looks at things and people (people especially) for himself; he is the victim of no sentimental illusions nor social superstitions; he calls a spade a spade in all cases, and he brings his really penetrating observation to bear on great people and small with an uncompromising instinct of truth. In this way he pronounces a great many cutting judgments and registers an immense variety of unflattering characterizations. Much of it is just such talk (minus the gossip which is mere gossip, and which he consistently eschews) as Mr. Greville might have had any evening with a sympathetic friend during the last half-hour before going to bed—talk always with a little moralizing in it; enough to keep it from being frivolous, but not enough to keep either party awake. He tells no startling secrets and he alludes to few enticing mysteries; but his narrative has constantly a savor of which this, for instance, is a brief example: "I have had a squabble with Lady Holland about some nonsense; but she was insolent and I was fierce, and then she was civil, as she usually is to those who won't be bullied by her"; or this, even about Mrs. Somerville: "I could not then take my eyes off the woman, with a feeling of surprise and something like incredulity, all involuntary and very foolish; but to see a mincing, smirking person, fan in hand, gliding about the room, talking nothings and nonsense, and to know that Laplace was her plaything and Newton her acquaintance, was too striking a contrast not to torment the brain. It was Newton's mantle, trimmed and flounced by Muradan." These are light instances, chosen for brevity; we might quote fifty others, notes on Lord Anglesey, on Peel, Brougham, Palmerston, Macaulay, and the author's innumerable political acquaintances—all having the precious stamp of private judgment, of that *real* impression which, in society, it is so hard to ascertain. On persons lifted up higher into the light, Mr. Greville's unreserve is proportionately complete. George IV. and William IV. are given us in a series of touches which form at last, in each case, a full-length portrait of a formidably veracious cast; poor, plain Queen Adelaide is very far from flattered; the Duke of Wellington is handled like an ordinary mortal and (in politics) a very bungling one. Mr. Greville is not a Saint-Simon; but the earlier portions of his Journal, relating to the person and *entourage* of George IV., have not a little of the incisiveness and color of that immortal scribbler.

Mr. Greville was Clerk of the Council under the two sovereigns we have mentioned—a position which made him pass his whole life in a political atmosphere, at the same time that it gave him no political responsibilities. He was a Whig and a Liberal (as the term was understood forty years ago), and although he was a complete man of society, he was quite capable of taking general views, and, when he speaks of the future, making serious reflections. His Journal has an under-current of melancholy, and if he was not exactly a bilious observer, he was by no means an optimist. "He is half-mad, eccentric, ingenious," he says of a politician of his time, "with a great and varied information, and a coarse, vulgar mind, delighting in ribaldry and abuse, *besides being an enthusiast.*" That is Liberalism tempered by good-breeding; but when he says (in 1829) "I am convinced that very few years will elapse before the Church will really be in danger. People will grow tired of paying so dearly for so bad an article"; or when he talks, apropos of the cholera in 1832, and the misery revealed by the investigations of the Health Commissioners, of "the rotten foundation on which the whole fabric of this gorgeous society rests" ("Can such a state of things permanently go on?" he asks. "Can any reform ameliorate it?") when he exclaims, over the dulness of his Journal, "What can I make out of such animals as I herd with, and such occupations as I am engaged in?" and when, in a dozen different places, he repines at his wasted life, his having played no part and made nothing of himself, he takes us into the confidence of a person who, in the intervals of dining-out, of parliamentary debates and horse-racing, finds human life decidedly less brilliant than it would seem that these occupations ought to make it. Mr. Greville had a passion for the turf, owned some famous horses, and spent at Newmarket and Doncaster an amount of time which in his melancholy moods he bitterly grudges. He was a gentleman, not only socially but intellectually, and he continued to the end to find something wanting in the conversation of horsey people. He never married, and his long life was passed in London and in country visits. In 1830 he made a journey to Italy, where he still faithfully journalizes, and quotes (and, indeed, perpetrates) indifferent verses. Six years later he paid a visit to Paris, but these are the only absences mentioned during a period of nearly twenty years. All this time—from the end of the Regency to the accession of the present Queen—he kept his eyes fixed on the shifting panorama of English politics, and noted minutely the ins and outs, the ups and downs, of parties, of leaders, of measures and tendencies. It is, of course, as a contribution to English political history that this work has most value, and American readers in general will find (especially in the second volume) a bewildering excess of detail on matters with which they are scantily conversant. It is in a great measure the secret history of everything which was either planned or performed under six or eight successive administrations.

Mr. Greville was not the rose, but he lived near the roses, and he discussed things, sooner or later, with every one of consequence, from the two kings and the Duke of Wellington, from Talleyrand and the Princess de Lieven, down to Beau Brummel, Mr. Batchelor the valet of George IV., Theodore Hook, and the numerous Fitzclarences, illegitimate progeny of William IV. Every one passes before him, and he has something to say—some anecdote to relate, some *mot* to register, some reflection to slip in, about every one and everything. He turns inside out, as it were, one after another, the governments of the Duke of Wellington, of Lord Grey, of Sir Robert Peel, of Lord John Russell, of Lord Melbourne, of Lord Palmerston. Much of his journalizing on all these matters seems to us at this distance of time a rather wearisome imbroglio, for the questions at issue have long ago lost their actuality. Reform, as Mr. Greville impatiently invoked it in 1830, and as the Duke of Wellington blindly and doggedly resisted it, has been rather cast into the shadow by the long strides of Mr. Gladstone and John Bright. Mr. Greville's goal has been for some time our starting-point. Nevertheless, the interest of such memoranda—that of seeing how events and actions looked at the moment of their occurrence—is permanent, and in our author's narrative, at numberless points, we seem to breathe the moral atmosphere of the time. Returning again and again to certain of the leading actors in public affairs, with one touch confirming or correcting, or illuminating another, he ends by giving us a number of very lifelike and really brilliant portraits. Few readers who have not already been exceptionally initiated but will feel that after reading these pages they know the Duke of Wellington and Lord Brougham in a more intimate way than they could have expected. Anecdotes of the personal kind are especially abundant in the first volume, and the most pointed ones, perhaps, cluster about the personality of that magnanimous ruler, George IV. Mr. Greville regarded his sovereign with a wholesome contempt and never spares him a thrust. It was supposed that by this time we knew all about him, but Mr. Greville really vivifies our knowledge. "The fact is that he is a spoiled, selfish, odious beast, and has no idea of doing anything but what

* 'A Journal of the Reigns of King George IV. and King William IV. By the late Charles C. F. Greville, Esq.' In two volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875.

The same, abridged in Bric-a-Brac Series. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875.

is agreeable to himself, or of there being any duties attached to the office he holds."

"He leads," says Mr. Greville elsewhere, "a most extraordinary life—never gets up till six in the afternoon. They come to him and open the window-curtains at six or seven o'clock in the morning; he breakfasts in bed, does whatever business he can be brought to transact in bed, too, he reads every newspaper quite through, dozes three or four hours, gets up in time for dinner, and goes to bed between ten and eleven. He sleeps very ill, and rings his bell forty times in the night; if he wants to know the hour, though a watch hangs close to him, he will have his *valet de chambre* down rather than turn his head to look at it. The same thing if he wants a glass of water; he won't stretch out his hand to get it."

Mr. Greville writes of this monarch in a tone of irritation, and we can imagine that it must have been rather a tax on one's patience to have to show especial civility to a corpulent voluptuary of this particular pattern. William IV., with his awkward, blundering, boisterous, garrulous activity, is sketched with an even greater multitude of touches:

"His ignorance, weakness, and levity put him in a miserable light and prove him to be one of the silliest old gentlemen in his dominions; but I believe he is mad, for yesterday he gave a great dinner to the Jockey Club, at which (notwithstanding his cares) he seemed in excellent spirits; and after dinner he made a number of speeches, so ridiculous and nonsensical, beyond all belief but to those who heard him, rambling from one subject to another, repeating the same thing over and over again, and altogether such a mass of confusion, trash, and imbecility as made one laugh and blush at the same time."

It was after one of the King's speeches of this kind that a neighbor of Talleyrand's, at table, asked him what he thought of it. "With his unmoved, immovable face he answered only, 'C'est bien remarquable.'" There would be a great deal to quote, if we had space, upon the Duke of Wellington, as to whom the author seems divided between a sense of his great soldiership and a sense of his incompetency as a political leader. He is equally sorry to forget the one and to shut his eyes to the other. Everything that he says about the Duke of Wellington seems to us to indicate in an unusual degree the faculty of discrimination. It is really refined characterization. The same is true of his treatment of Peel. There are a great many very short anecdotes, but even these are too long for us.

"Talleyrand afterwards talked of Madame de Staël and Monti. They met at Madame de Marescalchi's villa, near Bologna, and were profuse of compliments and admiration for each other. Each brought a copy of their respective works, beautifully bound, to present to the other. After a day passed in an interchange of literary flatteries and the most ardent expressions of delight, they separated, but each forgot to carry away the present of the other, and the books remain in Madame de Marescalchi's library to this day."

Of Washington Irving Mr. Greville makes mention which is slightly derogatory; it is a case of "how it strikes a contemporary" when the contemporary is rigidly a man of the world, and of the Old World. "Washington Irving wants sprightliness and more refined manners. . . . Even Irving, who has been so many years here, has a bluntness which is very foreign to the tone of good society." We must make room lastly for this about Monk Lewis:

"He had a long-standing quarrel with Lushington. Having occasion to go to Naples, he wrote beforehand to him to say that their quarrel had better be *suspended*, and he went and lived with him and his sister (Lady L.) in perfect cordiality during his stay. When he departed, he wrote to Lushington that now they could resume their quarrel, and accordingly he did resume it, with rather more *acharnement* than before."

But we must leave our readers to explore at first hand this very considerable contribution to the political and social history of England for the greater part of the present century. Mr. Greville, in quietly making his entries, knew he was doing well, but he has done even better than he suspected. In addition to portraying a society, he has depicted himself; and his figure, in spite of a certain dryness, has a kind of exemplary dignity. It is eminently that of a gentleman. We welcome these volumes as a suggestive reminder that it is, after all, possible to be concerned with public affairs and to preserve the tone belonging to this character.

## THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE REBELLION.*

JUDGING from the two volumes already published, the Comte de Paris contemplates writing a military history of the war complete in every particular, the smallest skirmish not being omitted. We must not, on account of the author's short service as an aide-de-camp on General McClellan's staff, prejudge this book to be an account of his personal services and a plea for General McClellan. Such is far from being the case. He writes of the entire war, East and West, after years of study on all its details and from every authority available; and General McClellan early comes in for sharp censure for his inaction in October, 1861, when "he lost the best opportunity he ever had for commencing a successful and decisive campaign."

The purely political part of the struggle is mentioned only in a short chapter on slavery and in part of the chapter on the Presidential election. The author's theory of the cause of the war may be briefly summed up—viz., that in the increasing population and prosperity of the North the South feared that it was losing the preponderance in national affairs which it had maintained from the beginning of the War of Independence; that the South was determined on extending slavery into the Territories and newly-formed States, since on slavery depended its own prosperity; and that, failing in this attempt, it intended to regain its influence by conquering a humiliating peace from the North. With the justice or injustice of this view we are not concerned. In comparison with the magnitude of the work, it is not given at great length, but simply from the feeling that some statement of the ultimate causes of the war was necessary. Once fairly entered upon the events of the struggle, however, the political and military history are so intermingled that they cannot be separated; and it is hinted that the fourth volume will be mainly devoted to the subject of emancipation.

This is essentially a military history, although not written for the limited circle of technical military readers. Of the nine volumes to which it will extend, the first two bring us only to the spring of 1862, and end with the battle in Hampton Roads and the embarkation of McClellan's army for the Peninsula. In the first volume the only action described of any consequence is the Battle of Bull Run; but this volume is perhaps the most valuable of all, inasmuch as it contains an elaborate criticism of our system of a small regular army supplemented in time of need by immense numbers of volunteers; and this criticism is from one accustomed all his life to, and thoroughly familiar with, the organization and methods of European armies. He quickly seizes upon the salient military features of the war, which we conceive to be, first, the importance of the railroads, this being the first great war in which they were employed; and, second, the effect of the nature of the country fought over upon the grand tactics necessarily employed. While strategy is a fixed science, unchangeable from its very nature, tactics—the other element of the military art—is constantly changing, both in its minor and grand divisions; and it is notorious that the tactics of the late war were, from the topographical features of its theatre, essentially modified from those of European wars. The author accordingly plunges at once into a long topographical description of the theatre of the war—a broken and wooded country, only about one-eighth part cultivated, sparsely settled, and incapable, as a general rule, of supporting a large army; necessitating the transportation of supplies over a long distance, and confining an army to the neighborhood of a river or a railroad as a base. This leads him to remark that one of Napoleon's most famous maxims—separate to subsist, and concentrate to fight—does not obtain in America:

"Thus, while in countries rich in resources of provisions, like Europe, an army separates to subsist and concentrates to fight, we see that in America the larger an army, the more it must concentrate to subsist; for, obtaining almost nothing from the country it occupies, the more it deploys, the greater the difficulty of supplying the corps distant from the route which alone supplies it."

In connection with this subject of supply, the vast and intricate river-systems of the Southern States are fully explained; and how they in turn gave rise to the combined land and naval expeditions, which the author regards "as giving to this war its distinctive character among all modern wars."

The history of the Regular Army is carefully and accurately presented. Beginning with a description of the course of study at West Point, the army is followed through the war of 1812—"which only developed the fact, which has been so many times since confirmed, that on the soil of America the defensive is easy, the offensive difficult, to sustain"—through the swamps of Florida, the war with Mexico, and the dreary service on the Plains. Of the army in Mexico the author says:

"But this little band, composed of the *élite* of the American forces, had acquired, with a feeling of pride in its achievements, an experience of war by which the whole regular army profited, and which was not lost for the great struggle of 1861. It was in the young generation which learned its trade so well under Gen. Scott that Federals and Confederates sought the chiefs to whom they confided the direction of their armies." . . . Gen. Scott "had invigorated the regular army, had given it traditions, and had, above all, inspired it with confidence in itself. Thus, knowing how to make himself beloved as well as obeyed, he was thenceforth regarded as the father of the family of officers formed in his school."

* 'Histoire de la Guerre Civile en Amérique. Par M. le Comte de Paris.' Tomes I. et II. Paris: Michel Lévy frères; New York: F. W. Christern.

But it was not West Point and the Regular Army alone who were to fight the civil war. They were to furnish the successful leaders on both sides, but the 2,700,000 men who were enrolled from first to last were to come from civil life: all professions and all trades, rich merchants and planters, small farmers and "poor whites," high-born, delicately-reared gentlemen and newly-arrived, ignorant emigrants, and the scum of cities—the whole male population, in short, both North and South, was to be represented in that motley, undisciplined, but determined assemblage of men which began gathering on both sides of the Potomac in May, 1861. Of what men these bodies were constituted; how the regiments were raised in the various States, and then turned over to the General Government; how they were provided with commanders, brigaded and divisioned, drilled and commanded; how order was gradually brought out of chaos; and how, before this was accomplished, but in obedience to public opinion, the first rude trial of arms was had at Bull Run, and the magnitude of the struggle began to be appreciated—all this is well told, and with it concludes the first volume.

With the second volume we get fairly into the war, but a dreary account it is at first—of the operations in Missouri, the endless marchings back and forward of Price and Sigel, McCulloch and Hunter, the death of the most valuable officer in the field, General Lyon, the senseless division by Fremont of his army into a dozen detachments, and his dabbling in politics at St. Louis, and finally his relief from command. It is a little enlivened by the appearance of General Grant on the scene, in the slight disaster of Belmont, but on the whole it is tedious reading, and at the end of a long chapter we read with a sigh of relief that

"The rigors of winter came to put an end for some time to military operations. When they recommenced, in 1862, they were undertaken with a more concerted plan (*avec plus d'ensemble*). Those which we have just narrated form a collection of small events which seem to have no connection with one another, and which may have appeared to the reader very long and monotonous. It was necessary, however, to give an account of them to show how the war was carried on in those distant regions—a war which in many ways recalled those of the Middle Ages, where small armies unceasingly advance or retreat before one another, often disappear from sight, meet one day on the field of battle and disperse the next for want of means of subsistence."

Of a similar nature were the action at Ball's Bluff, and the various manœuvres, small combats, and endless marchings and counter-marchings of the detachments, then called armies, in West Virginia, Eastern Kentucky, and Tennessee. In describing all this so minutely, the author undoubtedly lays himself open to the charge of diffuseness. He would probably state in excuse that he is describing the war as it was conducted, and that although these small encounters had no lasting effect on the issue of the war, still he feels obliged to describe them in detail, in order to show the extent to which they were carried before the Northern generals realized their mistake. Mistake it undoubtedly was; instead of uniting their scattered forces and breaking through the extended line of posts held by the Confederates from the Alleghanies to far beyond the Mississippi, the policy was to fly the flag over as many isolated points as possible in the South, and thus to "regain territory." It was not until the fighting qualities of both sides were fully proved in the sanguinary battle of Shiloh that the commanders in the West realized that the rebellion was to be suppressed, not by occupying so many States and Territories, but by actually defeating the Confederates under arms.

However, early in the spring of 1862, while McClellan was bound fast about Washington by the mud of Virginia roads, having lost his opportunity in the mild autumn, some tangible plan seemed about to succeed the aimless wanderings of the Federal forces west of the Alleghanies. Grant, with 15,000 men, was at the junction of the Tennessee and Ohio Rivers, and purposed, with the aid of Foote and his gunboats, to penetrate the Confederacy by the way of the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers. This plan was at once made feasible by the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, and their fall necessitated the evacuation of Columbus, Bowling Green, and Nashville, and the taking up of a new Confederate defensive line through Memphis and Chattanooga.

Another proof of a better comprehension of military matters was given in uniting all the forces in the Mississippi Valley under the command of a single officer (Halleck), and in the preparations—tardy as they were—for concentrating these forces. Grant had advanced his army, now 30,000 strong, to Pittsburg Landing early in March, and was there leisurely maturing his plans—under Halleck—for a further advance, when he was suddenly attacked by 40,000 men under Johnston and Beauregard; and the first really hard-fought battle of the war took place about the little church at Shiloh, on the 6th and 7th of April. The story of this battle is so well told, and the criticisms on the want of vigilance of the Federal generals are so just, that while referring our readers to the book itself, we will translate a few of the reflections of the author at the close of his narrative of the battle:

"The Federals had been taught a great and salutary lesson which could not be lost on men of the stamp of Grant and Sherman. Henceforth, officers and soldiers felt the necessity of constant vigilance; for they were all learning their trade in this grand and rude school." . . . "It was, in fact, from the date of this battle that the two armies learned to know and respect each other. Taught by this experience, their generals comprehended that so long as such armies should keep the field, the struggle between the North and the South would not be terminated. Heretofore their object had been, on either side, to take or to defend positions, rivers, territories. Beauregard, in the East, had only thought of defending Manassas. In the West, everything had been sacrificed by the Confederates to preserve the numerous fortifications on which, as they imagined, depended the possession of the Central States; Mill Springs, Bowling Green, Donelson, Fort Henry, Columbus, and Island No. 10; all the efforts of the Federals had only for their object to wrest from them these positions, these rivers, these territories. Johnston and Beauregard, whatever may be the share of each in this new conception, put in practice at Shiloh a new plan, and endeavored solely to destroy the hostile army. If this plan, well conceived, had not been baffled by the arrival of Buell, the results of their victory would have demonstrated the accuracy of their reasoning. Grant, left to his own forces on the 7th, would have been overwhelmed. Van Dorn, arriving a few days later, would have enabled the Confederate army to make Buell pay dear for his adventurous march from Nashville to Savannah. The invading armies once dispersed, ten new works, as strong as Donelson or Columbus, would have been erected on the rivers, would have closed their course to the Federal gunboats; the positions conquered by the North with so much effort would have fallen of themselves, and the war been carried back to the banks of the Ohio and Missouri.

"In those hours of anxiety in which he saw his army driven back to the river which was about to swallow it up, Grant no doubt made all these reflections, and from that time he did not cease to repeat that the principal objective of the war should be the destruction of the hostile armies rather than the conquest of such or such portion of the territory." . . .

But little more is told in this volume of the land operations. The beginning of McClellan's difficulties and disputes with the Administration is indeed foreshadowed, but it would be useless to comment on this until we have the whole account of the Peninsular campaign. The rest of the volume is devoted to the earliest of the combined land and naval expeditions, the movements of Admiral Foote's fleet in the West, the Roanoke expedition, and the purely naval combat in Hampton Roads. With the account of this last momentous engagement—the first in the world's history between armored ships—the second volume closes. If those which are to succeed it are composed in the same clear and comprehensive manner, we shall undoubtedly have the best history yet written of the military operations of the war. The list of kindred works is still meagre. Besides the official reports of both sides, which are often contradictory, and, in the case of the South, difficult of access, we have on that side the several books on the 'Lost Cause' by the late Mr. Pollard, General Johnston's narrative, and various minor biographies, none of which pretend to the rank of final history. On the Northern side by far the best accounts, in spite of their somewhat theatrical style, are those of Swinton in his 'Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac' and 'The Twelve Decisive Battles of the War.' In addition to these we have Badeau's 'Life of Grant,' not yet completed; De Trobriand's 'Four Years in the Army of the Potomac;' Headley's 'Sherman and His Generals,' and many more of the same class—not a very valuable one. Greeley's and Draper's histories of the war are political rather than military. From England we have had Colonel Fletcher's 'History of the American War,' some theoretical discussions of the campaigns in Colonel Hamley's 'Operations of War,' the 'Campaigns in Virginia and Maryland,' and some excellent biographical essays by Colonel Chesney. Far above all these in pretension, and so far in accomplishment, stands the work of the Comte de Paris, the first attempt at a full and connected military history of the whole war. The letterpress, as might be expected from Lévy, is excellent; and the maps and plans of battle-fields, taken from those of the Coast Survey and War Department, and handsomely lithographed, leave nothing to be desired.

---

*Life and Literature in the Fatherland.* By John F. Hurst. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875.)—The present widespread interest in everything relating to Germany may secure a sale for this book, but the dead level of monotony in its style will weary out even the most phlegmatic readers before they are half through its pages. In reality, it contains little of interest about either life or literature in Germany, but is mainly an ill-arranged medley of dull journals of travel, trite information about the late Franco-German war, eulogies of a few theological professors, and visits to great pub-

lishing houses. In fact, the space given in a volume of such title to the subject of the mere manufacture of books as articles of trade, is a fair commentary on the strangely external point of view from which everything is regarded. We are conducted, for example, by Dr. Hurst to Heidelberg University. From all he tells us of it, one would suppose it to be little more than a divinity school in a decaying state. There is a cry of "Ichabod, Ichabod," over the falling away from the old standards of theological belief, and much space is devoted to one Schenkel, who is pronounced the most complete "charlatan" in Germany. But of the powerful men who are drawing round them crowds of eager students and making a mark on the thought of the age—of Bunsen, perhaps the greatest of living chemical discoverers; of Kirchhoff, the companion of Bunsen in working out the discovery of spectrum analysis; of Von Treitschke, with his throng of hearers hanging on his superb criticisms of the great poets and statesmen of the Fatherland, or his masterly historical discussions of the political problems of Prussia, Italy, and France; of Zeller in philosophy, and Bluntschli in the law of nations—though they were all at work when our author was in Heidelberg, there is no mention. The living powers in life and literature are passed over in comparative silence—one would surmise, not known to exist. From university to university our author goes his round, lantern in hand, in search of old-fashioned theologians. When he finds one he cries Eureka! and great is his joy over his discovery.

Not that there are not some notices of what Dr. Hurst especially styles "literary characters." One long chapter is entirely devoted to four of these, though what principle has guided the selection of names it would be dangerous to wager. Two of them are novelists, Auerbach and Stifter, one is a geographer, Petermann, and the fourth, for all the world, is Carl Vogt, the zoölogist. The helter-skelter manner in which these are huddled together is a fair specimen of the way the whole book is made up. As bare enumerations of the birth, position, and works of the persons in question, the sketches are indeed as readable as we should expect in an encyclopædia. But if we look for any nice or original criticism, anything fresh or characteristic, we shall reckon without our host. Nothing indicates that our author was drawn to them by any vital, personal interest or appreciation of what is peculiar in them. We must make one exception, however. Carl Vogt's "opposition to the Mosaic account of the creation, which is with him almost a monomania," was, ten to one, the undoubted motive for selecting him. It gave our author a chance to introduce two well-worn stories about gorillas and monkeys visiting the professor and thanking him for giving them and the rest of their race their true position before the world. In fact, these trivial stories and the annihilating argument they are supposed to embody furnish the key-note to Dr. Hurst's position towards the intellect of Germany. He has no comprehension of its depth and seriousness. Outside of a narrow, dogmatic circle he is hopelessly baffled and lost. A master in the Israel of science like Haeckel is to him a creature infested with odd whims about atoms and germs, and the power of a silk-worm to grow into a beaver hat. Nor does he, in this book at least, manifest any acquaintance with such real and efficient champions of the spiritualistic side as Hermann Lotze, the younger Fichte, and Carrière.

With these deductions—and they are certainly ample ones in a book entitled 'Life and Literature in the Fatherland'—we would say that there are a good many things of incidental interest scattered through its pages. The account of Charlotte Hildebrand, the sorely-tried woman to whom were addressed Wilhelm von Humboldt's "Letters to a Female Friend," will interest all who are familiar with that beautiful and bracing book. We thoroughly endorse Dr. Hurst's view of the impolicy or worse than impolicy of sending American children, unaccompanied by their parents, to Germany for school education. It is time a blast were blown against this increasing practice. The good schools of Germany are mainly the public ones. Into these, American boys cannot enter until they have attained very considerable proficiency in the language; nor, having entered, can they derive any real benefit from the course of study unless they remain for years. The private schools, which catch the large proportion of foreign boys, are generally wretched. The different nationalities in them herd together and use their own tongue. Little German is learned and much English forgotten or debauched. The land swarms with American boys who can neither write a decent German letter, nor spell as simple an English phrase as "the son of my house" much more correctly than "the Sohn of my Haus." We dissent, however, from Dr. Hurst's view that "in no other land is the relation between teacher and pupil so beautified and sweetened by such a large element of real sympathy and friendship." German teachers almost always impress American boys as harsh and brutal in their manners. In fact, the school-system is Spartan and half military: the pupil must be as much afraid of his master as the private soldier of his officer. Many of the good results of German education grow out of this, as like ones grew out of the old English custom of flogging the Latin grammar into the boys. We would forewarn even young ladies thinking of going out to study music in the conservatories of Leipzig and Stuttgart to be prepared for many a cry over what they will stigmatize as brutal treatment, and to expect to have their notes thrown furiously across the room by the exasperated professor, or to be informed by him that he could get upon the key-board and play the piece better with his boots. But they will learn ten times more from "the bear" than from one who would let them have their own sweet, foolish will.

---

*Remains of Lost Empires:* Sketches of the Ruins of Palmyra, Nineveh, Babylon, and Persepolis, etc. By P. V. N. Myers, A.M. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1875.)—This stout and handsome volume (it is beautifully printed) is a decidedly disappointing record of an extremely interesting journey. Mr. Myers's opportunities were excellent, and his scientific equipment, especially in the matter of geology, seems to have been very sufficient; but he possesses the art neither of minute observation nor of graphic description, and he has the misfortune to write a style recalling in equal measure that of the newspaper reporter and the pietistic "tract." There is something really irritating in seeing a traveller with Mr. Myers's apparent energy in locomotion wear such very dim spectacles as those he generally brings to bear on people and manners. "A few hours from Birijic we met a party of four or five horsemen breaking along the rocks at a reckless speed. They proved to be the post with the Aleppo mail. This was the first thing like a hurry we had seen in Syria. It was really refreshing to see something moving lively in such a stupidly slow country." The writer of these lines seems to us here, besides giving the key to his style, to betray that he is not a sympathetic observer. He is himself in too great a hurry, and though he gives careful descriptions of the ruins and the topography of the several great extinct cities he visited, he has little sense of detail and but a rough way of relating things. That portion of his journey which he here narrates was begun at Damascus, from which city (with his brother, who was his companion throughout, and whose early death he commemorates in his preface) he proceeded on a five days' excursion across the desert to Palmyra. He reproduces, in a degree, the impressiveness of those mighty colonnades, gazing in silence at their sandy horizon, and makes us feel that, if they point to a nearer and less mysterious past than Nineveh and Babylon, their immense desolation is perhaps only more tragical. Palmyra rose and fell under the Roman Cæsars, and both her rise, while she was tributary, and her fall, when she rebelled, give us the measure of a power in which we are still interested, as the great initiator of our modern world. Mr. Myers explored the ruined cities of Northern Syria, which he found both numerous and interesting, and then made his way across the plains of Mesopotamia to the Tigris, striking it opposite to Nineveh. From Jerusalem to this point he had ridden a thousand miles. As to Nineveh the author is voluminous, and devotes some space to discussing, apropos of a Ninevite tablet inscribed with the Chaldean record of the Deluge, the question of the literal veracity of the Biblical recital of that event. He sides with the Bible, and, being a geologist, is able to affirm that the Chaldean plains are distinctly destitute of such evidence of submersion of the land as to justify the theory that the tradition of the Flood was a myth resting on a mere local inundation.

Mr. Myers hired a raft at Mosul and floated down the Tigris to Bagdad, "the only living city of any note in a region filled with the entombed cities of dead monarchies." His account of navigation on the great Assyrian stream is entertaining—especially the story of a prolonged hurricane, during which the raft took, as it were, the bit between her teeth and rushed along for a night at her own discretion. In the chapter on Bagdad the reader finds himself regretting the author's dry, common manner, and wishing that his touch were more pictorial. His fortune widens as he goes. He gives a copious account of the ruins of Babylon, from which it appears that he accepts the Tower of Babel as an historical fact, and is inclined to believe in its identity with the great mound, now invisible, known as Birs Nimrod. But he draws the line of acceptance at the confusion of tongues, and quotes from a "fugitive article" by the "Rev. E. P. Powell" in support of this attitude. After this Mr. Myers's journey became magnificent. Down the Tigris again, into the Persian Gulf, and across the Gulf in time to catch, at Bushire, a caravan which led him across Persia—past more ruined cities and through picturesque mountain passes, among traces, still vivid, of the late horrible famine, to Shiraz and Persepolis. The very names here seem full of the stuff that delightful books of travel are made of; but Mr. Myers continues rather tame, and has little else for the poor Persian civilization but cursory

contempt, which, though doubtless in a sense rational enough, is not what the reader bargains for in the way of entertainment. But archæology enlivens our author, and he gives an interesting report of the magnificent ruins of Persepolis, where he found "Stanley, *New York Herald*, engraved between the eyes of one of the colossal bulls, in letters as bold as the Ujiji expedition." Remote posterity, Mr. Myers remarks, will have "a real time" discussing, amid this conflict of evidence, just who it was that set up these bulls. The last part of the volume is devoted to the narration of a rapid run from Bombay up into the Himalayas and the Vale of Cashmere, where it was the author's purpose to spend a portion of the summer.

The work is readable, thanks to the subject; but we think that we do not misrepresent it in saying that it makes the more enquiring reader wish very frequently that *he* might have had half the author's chance. The illustrations are poor, and in place of them we should have preferred a map with the indication of Mr. Myers's course.


*HENRY HOLT & CO.'S SCHOOL-BOOKS*

include among others, Freeman's Historical Course, the Class-room Taine, Siglar's English Exercises, the Ord. Series of Classics, Whitney's German Course, Otto's French and German Courses, etc. Reference is made to the faculties of all leading institutions. Catalogues sent on application. Address

HENRY HOLT & CO.,
25 Bond Street, New York.

*For Macmillan & Co.'s Advertisement, see page* 68.

*WILSON, HINKLE & CO.,*
PUBLISHERS,
CINCINNATI AND NEW YORK.

NEW BOOKS.

*ECLECTIC HISTORICAL ATLAS.* Full 8vo, cloth, 18 double-page Maps, accurately drawn and engraved. A hand-book for general readers and students in Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History. $1 50.

*DRAMAS AND DRAMATIC* Scenes. Edited by W. H. Venable, author of 'School Stage,' 'Amateur Actor,' 'U. S. History.' 20 plays selected from the writings of Standard Authors. Illustrations by Farny. 12mo, cloth, 336 pages, $1 50.

*ELEMENTS OF PHYSICS.* For Academies and Common Schools. By S. A. Norton, A.M., Professor in Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College, and author of 'Elements of Natural Philosophy.' 12mo, 286 pp., $1 15. Supplies for first introduction into schools, and single sample copies for examination with a view to introduction, 84 cents per copy.

*PESTALOZZI, HIS LIFE, WORK,* and Influence. By Herman Krüsi, A.M., Instructor in Philosophy of Education at the Oswego Normal and Training School. Cloth, 8vo, 248 pp., Portraits and Illustrations, $2 25.

WILSON, HINKLE & CO., PUBLISHERS,
Cincinnati and New York.

*ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.*

NINTH EDITION.

Vol. I. of the Ninth Edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' will be issued during January, 1875, and the other volumes will follow, twenty-one in all, at the rate of three per year. More than one-half of the matter in this edition is new, and comprises special contributions by many of the most eminent writers of the day, including Prof. Huxley, Max Müller, A. R. Wallace, R. A. Proctor, and St. George Mivart. The volumes will be illustrated, and in typographic excellence will be unsurpassed.

This edition will embody the results of the ripest learning of the nineteenth century, in Art, Literature, Philosophy, and Science.

Price of the volumes, $9 each.
Subscriptions received by

LITTLE, BROWN & CO.,
110 Washington Street, Boston.

JUST PUBLISHED.

*A HUNDRED MINISTERS,* and How they Switched Off. Some account of the lights and shadows of ministerial life. 1 vol. 16mo, cloth, $1 50.

An examination of the alleged

*DISCREPANCIES OF THE BIBLE.* By John W. Haley, M.A., with an Introduction by Alvah Hovey, D.D., Professor in the Newton Theological Institution. 1 vol. crown 8vo, cloth, $2 25.

☞ The above, or any book published in the United States, sent, post-paid, on receipt of price by

ESTES & LAURIAT,
143 Washington Street, opposite Old South, Boston.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.
Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

*This work was published anonymously. Its authorship is now acknowledged by*

DR. JOSEPH PARKER,

Author of 'Ecce Deus,' etc.

THE PARACLETE.

*An Essay on the Personality and Ministry of the Holy Ghost, with some References to Current Discussions.*

*One vol.* 12mo, $2 00.

*From the New Englander.*

"The author of this treatise has appreciated its importance, and has asserted this in utterances of no little fervor and power. . . . The volume is instinct with electrical power, and abounds in passages of glowing eloquence. . . . Preachers will find the volume eminently quickening and useful."

*From the Church Journal.*

"It is written in a warm, devout, earnest manner, with much power of reasoning and wealth of illustration and very much suggestiveness, as though the author was rather burdened with the amount he had to say, and used necessary repression. The introduction and the essays, reviewing Mr. Huxley, at the end, are perhaps the best parts of the book."

*For sale by all booksellers. Sent post-paid, on receipt of the price, by*

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO.,
654 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

*A NEW SUNDAY-SCHOOL* Magazine. To be published monthly. For Pastors, Superintendents, Normal-class Teachers, etc. Not to interfere with the *Sunday-School Journal.* To begin January, 1875.

*THE NORMAL CLASS:* A Monthly Magazine for the Discussion of all Sunday-school Topics; the Publication of Normal-class Outlines; Normal-class Text-papers; Descriptions of Sunday-schools; Institute, Convention, and Sunday-school Programmes; Sunday-school News; Notes from all Parts of the World; Valuable Papers on Teaching; Sunday-school History, Administration, etc., etc. J. H. Vincent, editor. First Number ready Dec. 20.

Size of 'The Normal Class,' 48 pages, 12mo.

Price of 'The Normal Class,' $1 50 per year.

Address

NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

NOW READY.

VERY REV. DR. NEWMAN'S

*Reply to Gladstone,*

ENTITLED

A LETTER ADDRESSED TO

*His Grace the Duke of Norfolk*

ON OCCASION OF

MR. GLADSTONE'S RECENT EXPOSTULATION.

BY

JOHN HENRY NEWMAN, D.D.,
Of the Oratory.

*AUTHORIZED EDITION.*

Paper cover, . . . 50 cents

NEW YORK:

THE CATHOLIC PUBLICATION SOCIETY,
LAWRENCE KEHOE, Gen. Agent,
9 Warren Street, New York.

*B. WESTERMANN & CO.,*
524 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

Have just issued a new edition of their

*Philological Catalogue,*

Containing all the leading Series of *GREEK* and *LATIN CLASSICS;* best *BOOKS* and *MAPS* on

Ancient Geography, History, Archæology, Comparative Philology, Greek, Latin, Oriental, Germanic, Romance, Slavic, and Miscellaneous Languages.

Octavo, 65 pp. Will be sent by Mail on receipt of 12 cents, Postage Stamps.

☞ This Catalogue, compiled with great care, and based on many years' experience in the Foreign Book-Trade, will prove to be a most useful and indispensable Guide to every Philological Scholar and Library.

*North American Review*

FOR JANUARY, 1875.

Art. I. THE GREAT MIDDLE REGION OF THE UNITED STATES AND ITS LIMITED SPACE OF ARABLE LAND. General W. B. Hazen.
II. THE NATIVE RACES OF THE PACIFIC STATES. Francis Parkman.
III. THE RISE AND FALL OF THE SLAVE POWER. James Freeman Clarke.
IV. THE WAGE-FUND THEORY. Francis A. Walker.
V. AN EPISODE IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT (Second Paper). THE RULE OF THE TWEED RING. Charles F. Wingate.
☞ A very graphic description of the leading characters of the Ring, and of their mode of plundering the city.
VI. CRITICAL NOTICES.

Terms: $1 50 a number; $6 a year.
☞ For sale by Booksellers and Newsdealers.

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 4, 1875.*

## The Week.

CONGRESS has passed the bill providing for the payment of the interest on the 3-65 bonds of the District of Columbia; beyond this the time of the Senate has been occupied with a continuance of the debate on Louisiana affairs, and that of the House with the struggle of the Republicans to get control of legislation and cut off debate for the remainder of the session. The fight began last Wednesday, and took the form of an attempt on the part of the Republicans to get the Civil Rights Bill before the House. After the reading of the journal, and some routine business, General Butler called up a motion made by him in the last session to reconsider the vote recommitting the House Civil Rights Bill to the Judiciary Committee—a privileged motion, which could be called up at any time. Mr. Randall of Pennsylvania, who played the part of leader of the Democrats during the greater part of the contest which followed, and who seems to have done it very well, interposed a motion to adjourn, which was supplemented by another Democratic motion, that when the House adjourn it should adjourn till Friday. These two motions, varied by a motion to adjourn till Saturday, were the only questions on which the House had an opportunity to act during the long session which followed, the yeas and nays being insisted on by the minority, and the length of the time for taking a yea-and-nay vote depending on the rapidity of the Clerk's enunciation in calling the roll; and the Clerk, according to the reports, read the names with deliberation.

---

When these proceedings had been going on for some four hours, General Butler proposed a compromise, to the effect that if the Democrats would consent to the consideration of the bill, the Republicans would permit "all proper opportunity for debate" and "all proper germane amendments." Mr. Randall replied with a counter-proposition that the House should proceed with the regular Appropriation Bills, and that the Civil-Rights Bill should be postponed till the necessary means of carrying on the Government should be provided for, and an extra session thus avoided. To this General Butler replied that Mr. Randall was not a member of the Committee on Appropriations, and also that the majority could not permit the minority to dictate to them what legislation should be taken up. The negotiations were here broken off, and the dilatory motions went on, the roll being called seventy-five times, until, after forty-six hours' continuous session, the Republicans abandoned their attempt for the time, and the House adjourned at half-past ten on Friday morning. During these proceedings the Speaker, Mr. Blaine, appears to have behaved with great fairness, refusing to entertain any of the irregular motions made by the Republicans for the purpose of breaking up the "dead-lock," notwithstanding that great pressure was brought to bear on him. During the long fight the House was in a good-humored state, and, when the adjournment was finally carried, Mr. Randall left the House with a bouquet in one hand, a teapot in the other, and a canister of tea under his arm; the beverage used by the Democratic chieftains pointing, it is supposed, to the improved moral tone of the party, of which we see so many proofs on all sides.

---

Saturday was entirely occupied with a reading of the journal of Wednesday (Wednesday having, for parliamentary purposes, lasted till Friday), the clerk being obliged by the Democrats to read the details of all the filibustering votes. Mr. Butler made an earnest appeal to the Speaker to permit the Republicans to introduce motions which would give them a permanent advantage over the Democrats. This Mr. Blaine declined to do on the ground that it would be a revolutionary and fraudulent proceeding, to which Mr. Butler is said to have replied with profanity that he did not care if it was, and also to have accused Mr. Blaine of leaving him off the Reconstruction Committee. Mr. Blaine replied that this was untrue, as he had been offered a place and declined it, and that Mr. Butler knew it to be untrue—which seems under the circumstances highly probable. After listening to the journal for some time the House adjourned till Monday, when Mr. Hale, of Maine, on the call of the roll of States for bills, introduced a resolution, in accordance with a plan devised by the Committee on Rules, for the amendment of the rules, to cut off dilatory motions, and this was referred to the Committee. Mr. Randall appealed from the decision of the chair admitting this and another resolution of the same sort introduced by Mr. Cessna, but was overruled by Mr. Blaine, and on an appeal to the House the Chair was sustained by a strict party vote. Mr. Cessna's resolution was referred. Beyond this nothing of importance was done—two resolutions introduced by Mr. Butler failing to receive the two-thirds vote necessary to carry them—and the House at six o'clock took a recess till Tuesday, when the session of Monday began again, and ended in the complete discomfiture of Butler, Cessna, and the other Republican extremists, though the rule adopted (by a two-thirds vote) is of course not satisfactory to the minority. Under it dilatory resolutions are out of order when a question is pending, except one to adjourn, and one to adjourn to a day fixed; but the previous question on the third reading of a bill cannot be ordered on the first day of its consideration except by a two-thirds vote. This rule applies to the appropriation bills, but not to other money bills.

---

The melancholy news arrived from Washington a week or two ago that "Old Bill King had been smoked out at last," meaning that it had been proved that Mr. William King, some time postmaster of the House of Representatives, and now member-elect of the Forty-fourth Congress from Minnesota, had received a very large amount of the Pacific Mail corruption fund. Since this unpleasant revelation he has carefully secreted himself, and refuses to be discovered by the sergeant-at-arms or by any one else not selected by himself. But now comes the House of Representatives of Minnesota and passes a preamble and resolutions declaring that "the proceedings now pending in Washington point to the Hon. William King" as having received some of the money above-mentioned, and that "the people feel that his usefulness will be greatly impaired, and dishonor cast upon the escutcheon of Minnesota, unless he at once rectifies his position," and demanding that he either appear before the committee at Washington at once or resign his seat in the next Congress. Every patriot must approve cordially of this address to the Honorable William; but we, as "men of the world," advise him to pay no attention to it, but stay where he is. When King's own "escutcheon" is in such a bad condition, it is absurd to ask him to trouble himself about "the escutcheon of the State of Minnesota," and as to his "usefulness," we feel sure that he will agree with us in thinking that a little impairing will not do it any harm. He will, therefore, if counselled by us, let the proceedings at Washington "point" at him as long as they please, and remain in retirement until they blow over. Several statesmen have been in as bad a plight as he during the last few years, and have come out all right by taking no notice of their enemies. We should, were we in his place, occupy ourselves during this period of enforced leisure with the preparation of a list of murders committed since 1868 in the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Alabama, and then, when any one asked us on issuing forth what we had done with the Pacific Mail money, we should show him the list, and, looking him straight in the eye, ask him whether that wasn't a pretty record, and whether he meant to maintain that it wasn't the

duty of the National Government to "protect" the citizen of the United States wherever found, in New Orleans as much as in Berlin or Yokohama? If "Old Bill" will try this, we feel sure he will save himself much annoyance.

---

The most interesting and curious part of the testimony taken by the Alabama Investigating Committee relates to outrages perpetrated by the colored population, or the Republicans, upon Democrats. For instance, Robert Bennett, a negro, testified that he had been turned out of a church, of which he was trustee and steward, for voting the Democratic ticket, and H. A. Campbell, another Democratic negro, swore that in Bullock County "the Democrats were not allowed to speak at the public meetings"; that the Republicans broke up a Democratic meeting in that county about the 29th of September; that on another occasion the witness and another man who intended to speak "were shot at twice"; while in Chambers County the colored men formed a society to prevent colored women from marrying Democrats, and to advise the separation of husband and wife where the husband was a Democrat, and to exclude Democratic negroes from all society. A similar organization existed in Lee County; the members of that society had a pledge that a woman would leave her husband if he was a Democrat, or a young woman would not marry a man if he was a Democrat. In Montgomery County a preacher of the Methodist Episcopal Church deprived the Secretary of the salary of his office because he was a Democrat, and stopped another man from being a deacon of the church for the same cause.

---

The truth of this testimony we do not vouch for, but it is certainly quite as good as the tales of outrages related by Mr. Charles Hays of the same State; and the production of this kind of testimony on the Democratic side in a State like Alabama (and the Louisiana Sub-Committee reported evidence of the same sort) shows very clearly that the taking of testimony by Congressional committees *ad infinitum* will not make the situation any clearer than it is now. Suppose it is proved to the satisfaction of everybody that in some of the Southern States the whites wherever they are strong enough threaten the negroes, and that the negroes where they are strong enough, with the aid of United States troops, ostracize men of their own color who show an inclination to desert "Massa Grant" or the local leader who stands in his place—does this show that the presence of the troops and the enforcement of Ku-klux Acts do any good? The mass of the testimony taken in Alabama seems to show a disorderly state of society; but we knew before that any one of the Southern States in which troops were keeping the peace, and the legal status of which the Attorney-General was engaged in solving, was apt to be in a disordered state. The only Southern communities in which perfect peace and order reign are those like Virginia and Georgia, over which the whites have complete control, and with which the troops do not interfere. It is only in the States which the negroes are actually governing, and in which they have the whole force of the United States behind them, that the whites give complete rein to their love of murder and intimidation.

---

To show that intimidation can be used as well by one side as the other, we must call attention to the fact that Frederick Douglass and a large number of prominent negroes in Washington, including P. B. S. Pinchback, "senator-elect," as he is called, have held a meeting and resolved on a war of races, to begin as soon as possible after the adjournment of Congress—unless meanwhile the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill, and other measures which they like, are passed. They begin by reciting in the usual manner the terrible "lawlessness existing in the Southern States," "jeopardizing lives and property," and declaring very justly that this state of anarchy "demands an expression of sentiment from all friends of law, justice, and humanity," particularly the colored race; and they thereupon declare that, if this sort of thing continues, it requires "no unusual foresight to see" that the negroes will be forced either into "neutrality" between Republicans and Democrats, or into an alliance with the latter; or "there is still one other alternative to which we are exposed—one which is truly fearful to contemplate." "Human nature is the same everywhere. There are many varieties of men, but only one human nature; and it is possible that, stung to madness and desperation by continued and unceasing outrages, and seeing no means of escape, a spirit of retaliation and revenge may be aroused which will fill the South with scenes of rapine, blood, and fire." From this it may be inferred that our country has a pretty dark future before her. If the Republicans in the South are elected to office, the White League will rise and destroy them; if the Democrats carry the day, the troops must interfere and bring in rapine and blood to restore the Republicans; while if Judge Hoar should forget that Mr. Sumner on his death-bed entrusted him with his Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill, then the negroes will lay waste the South. It has a horrible look on every side.

---

Mr. Morton's constitutional amendment for the election of President by a direct vote provides, first, that each State shall be divided into a number of districts, equal to the number of representatives the State is entitled to in Congress, to be composed of "contiguous territory," and to be as nearly equal in population as may be, and that the person having the highest number of votes in any district shall receive the vote of that district, which shall count as one Presidential vote; second, that the person having the highest number of votes in any State shall receive two Presidential votes from the State "at large"; third, that the person having the highest number of Presidential votes in the United States shall be President. This amendment would, if adopted, make important changes; it would sweep away the electoral college, while it would at the same time retain the feature of the present system which has really caused most of the discontent with the electoral college—the possibility of the election of a President by a numerical minority of the whole people. At present this possibility arises from the fact that the votes are cast by States, and not by the people; but Mr. Morton's amendment specially retains this possibility, by making the person receiving the highest number of presidential votes President. It is a noticeable fact that Mr. Morton, in his argument on introducing the bill in the Senate, objected chiefly to the present system as leaving the door open to fraud. Under the present system the votes of the electoral college are sent under seal to the President of the Senate, who, in the presence of the Senate and the House of Representatives, counts them. As the President of the Senate is the Vice-President of the United States, and therefore a prominent man, he is quite likely to be himself a candidate for the Presidency (this has happened, Mr. Morton says, six times), and he would therefore, under these circumstances, be under a strong temptation to "count himself in."

---

This argument is, however, fallacious. If no one in the country knew till the count at Washington the real result of the election, it might be true that the counting officer would be under this temptation, but as, under the present system, every one in the country, from one end to the other, knows long before the formal count how the election has gone—has seen it in the newspapers, read it on the bulletins, and congratulated or condoled with every one else over the result, it seems impossible that any Vice-President should try the scheme Mr. Morton suggests. Besides this, there is no way of escaping the possibility of fraud somewhere. If we remember right, Henry Clay considered that the election of Polk was invalidated by frauds in New York and Louisiana, and it is quite evident that at a very early stage of the election there is at least quite as much opportunity for fraud as at the end. Cases arising out of the war and reconstruction—questions, that is, of States being in or out of the Union—cannot be provided for in advance, for the Constitution is an instrument which assumes every State to be in the Union, and all its provisions assume the condition of peace. Again, Mr. Morton's amendment

provides no tribunal for the settlement of contested election cases; but, as an indication of what the amendment might lead to, it may be mentioned that he stated to the Senate that some of the Committee thought these cases ought to go to the Supreme Court at Washington—an admirable plan for ruining the independence of the judiciary, and good for nothing else that we can see. Mr. Thurman of Ohio, who understands these questions much better than Mr. Morton, objects very strongly to this omission, and he is quite right. We mention these objections as they occur to us, without meaning to express any opinion on the general merits of the question.

The Tilton-Beecher trial has been saved from miscarriage during the week by the admission of Tilton's evidence, under restrictions as to confidential communications from his wife. The success of Beecher's counsel in shutting him out might have been a very important thing for the marriage relation, as Mr. Evarts so ably tried to show, but it would have been a very fatal thing for Mr. Beecher's cause. To come down to hard facts—when a man accuses a minister of seducing his wife, and they both agree to go into court and have the matter investigated, it will not do for the minister to ask to have his accuser's mouth closed on grounds of public policy and for the strengthening of the matrimonial bond. We presume that the motive actuating Mr. Beecher's counsel was the unfairness of hearing Tilton when Mrs. Tilton is excluded; but this might have been met by an argument showing Tilton's legal ineligibility, if ineligible he is, followed by an offer to let him in if he would let his wife come in too. The public still continues to be troubled by the demeanor in court of the parties to the controversy. They seem to consider it a light, joyous affair, like a charade, when the rest of the world considers it a serious, horrible affair, like a tragedy. When Plymouth Church, too, filled the court-room with bouquets for some days at the beginning, the odor of them sickened the rest of the community. "Floral tributes," as they are called in the Brooklyn dialect, seemed, in such a place, on such an occasion, like wreaths round the man-hole of a sewer.

The debate in the French Assembly during the week on the Constitutional bills has apparently had some important results. The Right has opposed these bills from the beginning, and stood for the monarchy pure and simple. The Left, on the other hand, has been struggling to insert in them some recognition of the Republic. Accordingly, on Thursday last, the Right moved the withdrawal of all the Constitutional bills before the Chamber; this was defeated. M. Laboulaye then moved, as an amendment to the Ventavon bill, that the Government be composed of a Senate, a Chamber of Deputies, and a "President of the Republic," which, apparently to the surprise of the Assembly, was opposed by Louis Blanc, who wanted no President at all, and thought that if there had been none in 1851 there would have been no *coup d'état*. M. Laboulaye's motion, however, was defeated, and M. Wallon, a Bonapartist, moved as an amendment that the organization of the Government be completed without the formal proclamation of the Republic, which was carried Saturday by 353 to 352. The amendment, if correctly reproduced by the telegraph, reads: "The President of the Republic shall be elected by a majority of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies in congress assembled; the presidential term shall be seven years, and the President can be re-elected." On Tuesday, the same member's amendment, authorizing the President to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies with the advice and consent of the Senate, was adopted by a decisive majority of 200. The Government, therefore, promises to be a kind of cross between a constitutional monarchy and presidential republic. It will differ from the presidential system in making the ministry responsible to the Chambers, and in giving the Executive the power of dissolution; and from a monarchy in giving the power of electing the chief executive officer to the Chambers, and fixing his term of office. But it is safe to predict that the re-eligibility of the President will amount in practice, in a country situated as France is, to life-tenure, or something very like it. The President will have the command of a very large army and an enormous power of "intimidation"; he will, too, be surrounded by the prestige and traditions of an absolute monarchy, in a community accustomed to rely on the one-man power and haunted by the fear of internecine war. Under these circumstances, an opposition candidate would wear the appearance of a revolutionist, and would hardly venture to show himself.

Alfonso has begun his reign by taking the field against the Carlists, who are apparently somewhat distrustful of themselves, and are retiring before the royal forces, making the relief of Pampeluna tolerably certain. He has also issued a proclamation, addressed to the Basques, in which he assures them that their old liberties will not be meddled with, and that he is as zealous a friend of the Catholic faith as they are. In the meantime, however, the Protestants in Spain have begun to be a good deal alarmed. They have now churches in all the large towns, with schools annexed; and if the Constitution of 1869 is to be considered abrogated, these have no legal protection, and will be closed. As a matter of fact, two Protestant churches have been closed in Madrid, and two Protestant newspapers suspended—though it is alleged that the papers have been suspended rather as republican than as Protestant. There are, however, many signs that the new monarchy means to conciliate the Church. The Minister of Grace and Justice has issued a circular, addressed to the bishops and clergy, congratulating them on the revolution, and promising them that the relations of the new régime with the Church will be effected "with the counsel of wise prelates and by accord with the Holy See," and everybody knows what this means. This may be simply an attempt to take the wind out of the sails of the Carlists, and Don Carlos does denounce it as a hypocritical display of piety; but the clergy are too shrewd not to take it for what it seems. Bismarck, in the meantime, announces that he will not recognize the new Government as long as the rights of Protestants are interfered with—which is, perhaps, hardly defensible under international usage; but the question, we think, may fairly be called ripe, whether a government which denies the right of public worship to an orderly, Christian denomination is entitled, as of right, to recognition as a member of the community of civilized states. If Alfonso was to amuse himself with burning heretics, he would only do what nobody thought of denying his right to do a century and a half ago; but, if he did it now, no civilized government, it is safe to say, would hold any intercourse with him. The time comes, now and again, when international usage has to be modified in the interest of civilization, and somebody has to take the first step. Of course, if not taken carefully, the new position cannot be held; but we know of no good reason, of the utilitarian kind, for supposing that Bismarck has made a mistake in this instance, or cannot hold his ground.

Poor Señor Castelar has been "interviewed" by a newspaper correspondent in Switzerland, to which country he has retired. He is disgusted with the Spaniards, and says he has been mistaken in them. He now considers them a "Semitic people, full of Moorish blood," who cannot understand Western politics, and says that the present reaction is "an Arab reaction." Nothing is more pitiable than the awakening of a Sentimentalist from his dreams; but then, he ought not to invent fantastic explanations of them. The Spaniards are no more "Arabs" than Señor Castelar himself, and are acting no more recklessly and thoughtlessly now than he was when he was setting up his Federal Republic and dissolving the army. His follies and theirs are easily explicable by reference to known facts of European history, and without going to Bagdad or Alexandria. Señor Castelar has reached his sixteenth paper in *Harper's Monthly* on "The Republican Movement in Europe." From such cursory examination as we have been able to give these treatises, we are unable to see any reason why he should not carry them on as long as he lives. In the regions to which his speculations carry him, time and space are the only phenomena.

## SOUTHERN SOCIETY.

THE President's admission in his recent message that the only objection he had to the mode of dealing with Southern disorders recommended by General Sheridan was its illegality—or, in other words, that he thought Radetzki's or Haynau's method of treating turbulence or discontent a good one, which, if the Constitution did not stand in its way, it would be well to adopt in this country—would be hardly worthy of comment if it were simply the opinion of a soldier with little civil training. But so many good men have either accepted it as sound doctrine or passed it over in silence as at most a venial error, even in a man so high placed as the President, that it may not be amiss to remind people once more what a complete departure it contains from the political morality on which this nation has been built up. That the sabre is the worst possible pacificator, and that if men are put under good influences they tend in a state of freedom to social improvement, are the two propositions which lie at the very foundation of the government. If we surrender them, we surrender everything; and, if we refuse to apply them to the Southern problem, we *do* surrender them.

Now, anybody who approached the Southern problem at the close of the war in a right spirit, saw at a glance that the great difficulty of the situation was, first of all, the white man's contempt of the negro, and, secondly, the white man's habits of violence. That the whites did not hate the blacks while the latter were enslaved is very well known; but they did despise them as a degraded race, and often inflicted great suffering on them, such as men inflict too readily on beings of a lower class (such as the brutes) with which they have only imperfect, if any, sympathy. All the writers on slavery before emancipation were, too, agreed that slavery bred in the masters habits of violence by making them imperious, self-willed, and impatient of all restraint or control or opposition, even that of the law. There was probably no trait of the slaveholder's character with which we at the North were made more familiar than this, and none the origin of which was more distinctly traceable to slavery, with its accompanying incident of sparseness of population. If there be at the South at this moment, as we believe there is, only a comparatively feeble respect for human life and for the laws which are intended to protect it, the state of things is exactly what it was before emancipation. Nobody doubts or questions this. In fact, it may be said that, under the influence of these habits of violence, a modification of a curious kind, which has attracted comparatively little attention at the North, took place in Southern criminal jurisprudence long before the war. The common-law doctrine, that malice aforethought makes the killing of a man murder, was not only disregarded by Southern juries, but it became the settled practice to treat it as a justification—that is, the prisoner, far from concealing that the person killed had offended him, and that he owed him a grudge before killing him, made it his principal ground of defence that he had killed him under the influence of resentment inspired by a previous quarrel. This in the Northern States or in England would have ensured his conviction; at the South, it secured his acquittal. The present writer saw in Mississippi, some years before the war, an old gentleman who had, he was informed, killed thirteen men, many of them in cold blood, with impunity. Asking how it was he had escaped, he learnt that there had never been a conviction for murder in that county unless it had been accompanied with robbery, and a few days afterwards he heard a respectable planter say before a large company, in perfect seriousness, and without any sign of disapprobation from the bystanders, that if he were spoken of in a certain way in a stump speech "he would lie in wait for him (the speaker) and kill him," or, in other words, would commit what men in other civilized countries consider the foulest of crimes.

Everybody who has given even moderate attention to human experience in the matter of repressing crime, knows perfectly well that when the manners of a community have got into this condition, change for the better must be the slow work of time, and of a variety of other influences. If any thoughtful man had been asked before the war in what way greater respect for human life could be secured at the South, he would have answered unhesitatingly that slavery must be got rid of, so that the stimulus to violence of temper which the presence of an unprotected class creates might be removed, and that then we must trust to the growth of population and of commerce, and to the influence of education and of the press, to bring home to juries the material advantage of security for the person, and to raise the standard of social morality. If you had asked him whether it could not be done by "troops," he would have laughed at you.

The abolition of slavery has of course removed one bad influence, and has thus in some degree simplified the problem. If emancipation could have been accompanied by complete legal protection for the blacks, supplied by friendly and sympathetic whites—such, for instance, as they receive at the North—it would have simplified it greatly. But to the success of the peculiar mode of protecting them to which we had to resort—the bestowal of the franchise—one condition was absolutely necessary, namely, that no new source of hostility between the two races should be introduced; that is, that the whites should have no fresh reason for disliking them, and that their legal relations should be such as to promote instead of retarding the growth of kindly feeling. If the negroes were allowed to become objects of hostility to the whites, of course nothing was more certain than that the whites would manifest this hostility in the old way, so deeply rooted in their manners, and the way, let us add, in which they would have manifested it towards other whites—that is, by shooting them, or frightening them into emigration. In the old days at the South, when a white man offended his neighbors, they either killed him, or rode him on a rail, or warned him to leave the country "between two days"; there was no earthly reason for expecting that offending negroes would be treated differently. People were or pretended to be shocked the other day because the whites of Vicksburg, when they wished to get rid of the foolish and ignorant negro who had assumed the office of sheriff and refused to file a proper bond, went to his room in a large body (though after having exhausted judicial remedies) and requested him to resign. But this is exactly what they would have done to a white man under similar circumstances. It is the mode of redressing grievances prescribed by immemorial local usage. It is no more a sign of a "rebellious spirit" or of hostility to the Government or the laws, in the sense in which we use these terms at the North, than of a disposition to turn highway robbers.

We do not pretend to say that any such revolution as has been wrought by the war and by emancipation could have been accomplished at the South, no matter how carefully managed, without creating a great deal of bad blood and stimulating in a greater or less degree race-hatred. Nothing that could have been done by any earthly power would have converted the Southern whites suddenly into peaceful, industrious, and patient citizens. Nor could we have prevented, by any care either in administration or legislation, the descent on the South of a flight of Northern demagogues as soon as the negroes obtained the ballot. But the Government at Washington could have exerted a powerful influence in preventing such use of their newly-made power by the blacks as would lead the whites to feel themselves oppressed, and would rouse in them the fierce passions which every man feels at being oppressed by those whom he despises. It could, in short, by either taking charge of the machinery of government at the South itself, or using its influence to throw it into the hands of the more intelligent portion of the community, and prevent its prostitution to the base uses of knaves and adventurers, have so lightened the evil results of the war that the two races might have drifted into amicable relations, and the negroes have learnt their lesson in politics without associating power with plunder and corruption. In so far as there has been violence at the South on the part of the whites towards the blacks, it has unquestionably been simply the Southern mode, learnt long before the rebellion, of redressing grievances, because there has been little of it except where the blacks have possession of the

government—in South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana, for instance, and not in Virginia, or Georgia, or Tennessee. Where we should hold meetings and ask for injunctions, Southern men take shot-guns and begin "intimidating," and they do this in virtue of a habit acquired long before negro suffrage was ever thought of; and the policy of the Republican party ought to have been to prevent in every possible way, by the removal of all stimulus or temptation, the perpetuation of these habits; for, strange as it may seem to many postmasters and custom-house officers, we owe something to the Southern whites as well as to the Southern blacks, not only in spite of our having conquered them, but as a consequence of it. We owe to them as well as to the negroes all the assistance we can give in getting rid of the evil effects of an institution at which we connived, and by which we profited, and in recovering from the effects of a war which was waged, not, as many Congressmen seem to suppose, for anybody's glory or anybody's shame, but in "order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

The whole of the "Enforcement" legislation may indeed be described as an irritant, which, if it were not honestly intended, it would be no exaggeration to call villanous. It would not have been possible for the most ingenious enemy of the blacks to draw up a code better calculated to keep up and fan the spirit of strife and contention between the two races. It is an attempt to supply to the negro, feeble and untrained as he is, by means of legal chicane and military interference, the tranquillity and security which he can only get from his own growth and that of his neighbors in civilization, and from his coming to terms with the people among whom he has to live, and who have the advantage of him in all the arts; and to give him in two or three years blessings which never came to any race, situated as he is, in a hundred years. In fact, it has taken the most gifted races in the world from four to five centuries to traverse the space in social progress through which the Republican party with its frantic law-making has been trying to project the colored man in two Presidential terms. The reports which are now coming in of the condition of the South are simply the proofs which were sure to come sooner or later of the folly of such legislation, and the laborious accounts of "intimidation" and "ostracism" which the Republican party is receiving as precious contributions to its archives, prove the value of the Enforcement Acts very much as the rise in the price of gold proved the value of Thaddeus Stevens's bill for keeping it down. The futility of these Acts may be said to be demonstrated by the fact, to which we have more than once called attention, that no reports of "intimidation" come from the States in which the whites are in a majority and have possession of the government. This crucial fact is carefully overlooked by the Administration press, which continues in the most fatuous way to argue about the South from certain *à priori* notions of its own about the opinions of the blacks and the temper of the whites. If these notions were correct, Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia ought to be scenes of ruthless violence and anarchy; instead of which, they have, it is safe to say, entered on the path of peaceful, orderly progress, and, with all their drawbacks, are perhaps at this moment the very best political school in which the colored people could find themselves.

## THE ARMY AND THE POLITICIANS.

THE army has been brought into very disagreeable prominence during the late discussions over the troubles in Louisiana, and there has been a good deal of severe newspaper criticism of the conduct of certain officers, which has called forth from the *Army and Navy Journal* the very inadequate reply that the officers of the army are as good men as, or better men than, the editors. We have, as all our military readers know, been the constant defenders and even eulogists of the army, and have never lost an opportunity of enlarging on the value to the nation of a body of public servants who were content to labor for something better than money, who did not measure their devotion by their pay, and who kept alive the traditions of honor and self-respect without which any calling becomes degrading. In fact, the example of the military and naval service of the Government has furnished the most powerful argument in favor of the reform of the civil service, by showing that this reform was an attainable good; and it has done a great deal during these later years to sustain the courage and hopefulness of those who were sickened by the spectacle of political corruption and rascality among civilians. It proved that the right material for faithful and high-minded service in all departments was as plentiful here as elsewhere, and that all we had to do to bring it into use was to create a few by no means difficult conditions. The hostility of the ordinary politician, too, to the army officers, which is one of the few hearty hates which he permits himself, and which does stir his turbid soul to its lowest depths, furnished them, as it seemed to us, an additional claim to public appreciation, for it is the hatred of corruption for purity, of self-seeking for disinterestedness, of ignorance for knowledge, and of trickery and intrigue for faithful and honest service. It has therefore been with deep regret that we have witnessed, what, however, we saw was inevitable, the conversion of the army into gendarmerie at the South, under the operation of the Enforcement Acts. The permission to use the army and navy to protect States against "domestic violence or invasion" has been converted by this legislation into a pretext for turning the troops into ordinary police, commanded by the United States marshal. It appears from the evidence given, both in the Alabama and the Louisiana investigations, that the marshal is apt to prepare for the election by getting out warrants by the hundred and then calling on the troops to execute them. In other words, the troops are called in not to overcome actual resistance to the process of the courts before which the civil officers have retreated, but as the regular and ordinary means of executing them in the first resort; that is, they perform the duties of the French gendarmes and of the Irish constabulary. The objections to this, as far as the public is concerned, we shall not now enumerate. A great deal has been said about it during the past few weeks. The objections to it as regards the army itself are less obvious, but they are also serious.

The legislation under which the Republican party has placed the South is of doubtful constitutionality, has been resorted to largely for party purposes, and is almost sure to be temporary. No thinking man believes that with such proofs of its liability to abuse as are now before us, it will last very long. The reaction against it is already strong, and is running higher every day, and it is exciting a great deal of bitter party feeling. Now, the army cannot help obeying the orders it receives from Washington. For the nature of these orders nobody holds it responsible, and as long as it confines itself to the simple execution of them, officers and men will have the sympathy of all right-minded persons. Soldiers, everybody knows, do not reason on their orders, and it would be very unfortunate if they did. What the friends of the army, ourselves among the number, have been hoping, therefore, is that officers would in the trying circumstances of their situation at the South discharge their plain duties with military discretion and prudence, and so avoid having the service mixed up in what is likely to be the most exciting political controversy we have ever had since the slavery question. It would be difficult to conceive of anything more likely to ruin the army than even the suspicion that it had allied itself with a political party and was acting as its tool or agent. It was therefore with extreme regret that we saw General Sheridan not only undertake the duties of a political tourist in the disturbed districts for the President's private information—though these he could as a military man have fairly discharged by simply reporting what he saw—but also undertake to recommend with great violence of language particular methods of dealing with political troubles. This was the more unfortunate because he had no reputation as a politician or civil administrator to back him up or secure respect for his opinions. He is simply a dashing and success-

ful general of cavalry, who has passed his mature life in the field, and was never thought of by anybody as a person of sound political judgment. Indeed, the selection of him for such an office as he has been filling in Louisiana without the knowledge of his superior officer, General Sherman, was one of the strangest acts of the Administration.

He has been seconded, too, in a curious way by Major Merrill, of the Second Cavalry, whose state of mind is a valuable illustration of the danger of allowing military men to take upon themselves civil functions. This officer is in command of the Shreveport District, and his sole legal duty is to lend the aid of the physical force of the Government to such civil officers as are legally entitled to call for it in the discharge of their duties. It appears, however, from an explanation he has made to the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, that, on reaching his headquarters, he determined that it was his duty, as military commandant in one of the States in the Union, "to recall the better class of the community to the realization of the existence of law and the habit of respecting it"; he decided "that the whole community was practically an armed mob"; and, in the absence of any one else ready or willing to do it, he began himself to swear affidavits against people for violations of the Enforcement Act, selecting as the first objects of his pursuit certain merchants who had signed an agreement not to employ persons who voted the Radical ticket. In fact, he took the darkest possible view of the moral, social, and political condition of the people around him, which may or may not have been mistaken, and thereupon took it on himself to "start civil functions," as he called it, by beginning the work of a public prosecutor, getting out warrants and then executing them with his own force. We should judge from the reports of his conversations, as well as from the troubles he has had with General Emory, his superior officer, that he is an excitable, active-minded, zealous person, who chafes under the limitations of a military life and fancies he would make a good legislator, and has, in short, more zeal than discretion. This is a matter that his commanding officer might and, under ordinary circumstances, would set right. Discipline could not be preserved in any army if the officers were allowed to undertake, without orders, the regulation of the morals of the community in which they are quartered. But the circumstances of this case are not ordinary. There is no agreement about the facts of the situation at the South. Different officers tell different stories. General Emory tells a different tale from General Sheridan; Colonel Morrow from Major Merrill. The question of remedy for Southern troubles is one of the most fiercely contested questions of the day. A party which is equal if not superior to the Republican party in numbers, is totally opposed to the Republican view of the matter, and means to fight it bitterly. Under these circumstances, it is madness for officers of the regular army to suppose they can meddle in the matter, even under permission from their superiors, either with safety to themselves or profit to the country. We are sure the advice of everybody who most appreciates their character and services would be that they should confine themselves rigidly to obedience to orders and abstain totally from denunciations or predictions about the political situation. Their reports on political matters are sure to have no value in Democratic eyes, and are sure to be used as party documents by the Republicans; and it is just as sure that the real politicians on both sides would any day be ready to unite and destroy them, or harass them by reducing the force or cutting down their pay. Indeed, we confidently expect to see, as a result of General Sheridan's and Major Merrill's indiscretions at the South, a vigorous attempt made next winter to cut off the army appropriation altogether, or saddle it with a condition that the troops shall be completely withdrawn from the South.

## AN IDEAL REFORMER.

"I PLEAD a great cause which is dying for want of funds." So ran the united statement and request which we received only a few months ago from a man whose name might have been placed at the head of this article, as he will furnish the principal illustration of what we are about to say. It is quite possible that many of our readers have never heard of George Trask, though to all New Englanders his name must be one of the most familiar of sounds. For the benefit of others, we may explain that he was a man who for twenty-five years had been working in every imaginable way to stop the use of tobacco. He circulated pledges and medals among children, talked to pupils in public and Sunday schools, preached three or four times on Sunday and lectured on Monday, wrote and distributed a multitude of tracts, and even published an anti-tobacco journal. He formed, also, an "American Anti-Tobacco Society," though up to the day of his death he remained, we believe, its sole officer and member. He gave up his regular occupation, that of a clergyman, and, without salary or associate, started on a crusade, belief in the success of which might well tax the credulity of a second Peter the Hermit. In the immense importance of this crusade, however, he was an enthusiastic believer, and his faith that he was initiating a vast and world-embracing reform was at least as perfect as that of the old crusader of eight hundred years ago. What could be the mental condition of one who devoted many of the best years of a long life to so Quixotic an enterprise? To many people, doubtless, his mind must appear wholly abnormal, and the answer to the above question, therefore, of no practical interest whatever. We believe, nevertheless, that he was the type of a large class of people, in most of whom, however, his apparently exaggerated features have become modified and more or less imperfect. This is really to say that we believe Mr. Trask was only a more than ordinarily good specimen of his kind. At all events, whether we are right or wrong, the subject will repay a slight investigation.

Happening to feel in the giving mood when we received the appeal quoted above, we sent a dollar, and in response there came back a huge pile of tracts, pamphlets, journals, and books. As a pecuniary investment in paper and printing, it was the largest return we ever received for our money. We have no doubt, in fact, but that the principal part of the literature of the anti-tobacco reform movement is now lying before us. We have not read every line of this literature, for life is short, but we have so faithfully gone through it that we feel competent to stand an examination with regard to all its essentials. There are tracts entitled 'Tobacco a Foe to Marriage,' 'Can a Christian Smoke Tobacco?' 'An Appeal to Professors of Religion in the Connecticut Valley who devote their lands to the Culture of Tobacco,' 'How to Conquer the Quid,' etc., etc. There is an open letter to General Grant, another to the Rev. Mr. Murray, another to the Evangelical Alliance which met year before last in this city. The style in which the above are written may be partly gathered from the titles and partly from the common synonym used for tobacco, which is "the unclean devil." The arguments of these curious productions are of course very few, and are soon exhausted, all the late publications being wearisome repetitions of what has been previously said. The most horrible bit of literature is a small book called 'Uncle Toby's Stories for Sabbath-Schools and Bands of Hope.' It is thoroughly coarse and disgusting, and when we remember that this was a great favorite with the author, and that it has been circulating for years among children, we are compelled to modify somewhat the charitable feeling we endeavor to conjure up for the purpose, if not for the method, of Mr. Trask's work. The most interesting production is a volume called 'Notes from Anti-Tobacco Campaigns,' filled with disjointed sentences copied from the author's diary, but giving a tolerably distinct mental portrait of the man himself. This, therefore, is what we wish, and shall mostly use for our present purpose.

Of course the man's most prominent mental characteristic was his belief not only in his work but in himself. This is in fact the first necessary trait of all reformers. The only variation is in the manner in which this belief is expressed. In some reformers, those whose names are written with capitals on the pages of history, we call this quality by great words—heroism, innate nobility; in others, as Sylvester Graham the vegetarian, we are a little in doubt what word to apply to it. In George Trask we shall leave it also without name, giving only a few appropriate quotations. He was "born when *men* were born," in "a town blessed with as many clever people as any on the map." We learn that he has advocated all righteous reforms "in a fearless manner," and, if his clerical associates do not agree with him, sees no reason why he should "come down to wrangle with such brethren." Sometimes this pride is cloaked in the dress of humility. He is only a weak servant of God, of "humble dimensions," of "poor ability." "Whatever God does by my agency, he shows that he can do business on a small capital." Even this last sentence, apparently framed to express depreciation of himself, tells that he was the agent of God for a special work. Intense egotism is the first absolute essential of all reformers. It may be grand or it may be ludicrous, but it must exist or you have no reformer. This is the spiritual rock on which he leans, or to which he flies for refuge; it

saves him from discouragement. That Trask could not be discouraged is evident from a single extract from his diary. "Three red cents in my treasury to hire a hall, pay board, and battle the most popular of all narcotics. God give me grit and grace." There shines the spirit of the true reformer.

When a man mounts a hobby, and gazes upon the world through the colored spectacles of his mission, it is astonishing how much he sees which no one else imagined to exist, and what curious shapes are taken by all things looked upon. Not only riding, but eating, drinking, and sleeping, as it were, in an atmosphere of imagined tobacco-smoke, Mr. Trask became unable to see anything which was not smoke-colored. He visited an insane asylum, and came away persuaded that tobacco caused a great deal of insanity; he visited a prison, and finding that every prisoner used tobacco, felt convinced that in some way it must be intimately allied with crime. A certain minister had had no revival in his parish for several years, but Mr. Trask ascertained that the minister smoked, therefore tobacco interferes with the preaching of the Gospel. Another minister was somewhat heretical, but he also smoked; therefore tobacco leads to infidelity. A man suddenly drops dead, but he chewed tobacco, therefore tobacco causes sudden death, paralysis, and heart disease. He visited Harvard College during the commencement exercises of 1853, and saw that, "with rare exceptions, the young gentlemen were pale, lank, and lean—the pitiable victims of smoke."

Another peculiarity, more curious even than this tobacco hue given to all things, is his intellectual and moral estimate of men, which, without exception, depends upon their sympathy and assistance given to or withheld from his sacred cause. All sympathizers and abettors are "intelligent," "earnest," "good-hearted," "noble," "godly"; all who turn away are "cowards," "weak-backed," "inconsistent," "do-nothings." As the contributed receipts for his lectures were frequently very small, and the payment of his hotel bills consequently not always a matter of pleasure, it is interesting to note how he gradually acquired a perfectly accurate standard of measurement for moral worth, namely, the amount of money which a man or a place contributed to his support. When the collection is very small, the people are dead in trespasses and sin; when the collection is large, the people are wide awake, seekers after truth. "Men of large souls" are those who contribute five dollars, while "splendid specimens of humanity" contribute ten dollars. "A man every inch of him" gave ten dollars, and "a hero" the same amount. Once, a wealthy gentleman, personally solicited, gave a check for one hundred dollars, and although an inveterate smoker, he appears in the "Notes" as "a princely man." On the other hand, after lecturing in a certain town, we read: "No contribution, no thanks. The Lord have mercy on this tobacco and rum-cursed people." And with this last quotation we shall take our leave of Mr. Trask. We have employed him to illustrate the common traits of his class, as he is the latest perfect example of a reformer whose work is now done.

The man who believes that he is in advance of his age in the perception of either a great evil or a great good, and that the cause in which he engages is incomparably the most important of all causes, must unavoidably measure all persons by their appreciation of him and of his mission. All other peculiarities of the ideal reformer, therefore, of necessity rest upon the sublime or ridiculous egotism which makes him a reformer. If it happens, as is sometimes the case, that the conditions and necessities of the age in which he lives and his own abilities as related to these necessities are in accord, his reform succeeds, and he may become immortal. But if, as generally happens, he miscalculates with reference to any one of these things, especially if he mistakes for ability, or for a call to a mission, "the reaction of a great self-love which incapacitates its possessor, or rather its victim, from subordinating his personality to the laws of the existing organization," then inevitably he more or less miserably fails. Of course there are failures which command our sympathy, and successes which obtain only pity. Whether we consider Buddha, Peter the Hermit, Luther, Ann Lee, Graham, Trask, or any one of an almost infinite number whose names are linked with an indescribable variety of real or imagined reforms, and whose efforts were attended with every possible degree of success or of failure, we find the mental process in each case was almost identical. First, there arises conception of some evil to be destroyed or some good to be introduced; then the mind dwells upon this one thing until its proportions become enormous and it blots out the sight of all but itself; lastly, there comes the idea of a call, a mission, a purpose to carry out that which so imperatively demands to be done. It is evident, we think, that the mind of the reformer, as thus indicated, is one of which in the progress of civilization there will be less and less manifestation. Not only will it become more difficult for any one to believe that the sudden rectification of a real or imagined abuse will make the whole world new, not only will it become almost impossible for any one to fancy that he and he alone is chosen for some mighty work of regeneration, but, as matter of fact, the more society is civilized the less will it need reform (in the professional, technical sense of the word), and the more will progress be made by gradual development. This development will be more constant, more general, more thorough, less spasmodic than reform. Reform in its nature belongs to a less advanced society—one which can with less injury be subjected to the abrupt changes which it requires. No highly organized form admits of being dismembered or turned inside out, or is benefited by the process. It is not in the physical world only, but also in the moral and political, that nature refuses to go forward in jumps. The man, moreover, of sufficient ability to become a reformer hereafter will be the man most likely to see clearly the fact that this revolutionary reform is not what is wanted. We have but little doubt that the civilized world has already witnessed the last brilliant instances of great and successful reform—we mean reform in the sense in which the word was understood by Mr. Trask and all others of the class to which he belonged. Already the peculiar kind of mind which is needed to carry on a genuine reform of this order is more difficult to find than at a period not very far remote. Very rapidly the present generation is coming to regard the reformer, when seen alive, as an instance of survival of, or more properly of reversion to, a lower type of mind than that which is now most desired. This may not be a happy thought for certain would-be reformers of to-day, but may be all the more wholesome for their reflection. Necessary as the reform spirit may have been in past generations, and fondly as it may be admired by many of the present day, it is probable that the world will be none the worse when the old reformer, like the old dodo, shall have become extinct.

## THE NEW KING OF SPAIN.

PARIS, Jan. 15, 1875.

WHATEVER may be said of the Spaniards, they are prompt in their decisions. See how many revolutions have taken place on the other side of the Pyrenees. First, Queen Isabella is dethroned after the battle of Alcolea; then come in rapid succession the Regency, the assassination of Prim, the short reign of a prince of the House of Savoy, the proclamation of the Republic, the Communistic or Cantonal movement, the *coup d'état* of Pavia, the dictatorship of Serrano, and finally the restoration of the young Prince of the Asturias under the name of Alfonso XII. It seems as if the cycle were closed for a time; an irresistible instinct has thrown Spain back into her old monarchical traditions. The young Prince comes back as powerful as Louis XIV. after the troubles of the Fronde; he has not even a Parliament to address with his hunting-whip in hand. He has no need of holding a *lit de justice* in a parlor surrounded with the regiments of his guards. The grandees of Spain had all held aloof from the foreign dynasty, and I happened to be present at the first soirée in Paris at which Alfonso received the grandees who had taken refuge in Paris. How many multicolor orders they wore, and how many golden keys on their backs! What a kissing of hands, what effusions of loyalty! The young King seemed quite at home among them, though he spent last year first in the Theresianum near Vienna, and afterwards at the military school of Woolwich, in England. He seems a bright, amiable young man, and if I had taken the liberty to give him advice, I should as naturally have told him not to smoke too much as if he had been my son. I had a few words with him in the smoking-room (every house in Paris now has a *fumoir*), and as I have a natural aversion to phrases learned by heart, I said to him not a single word about Spain. We talked of England, and his remarks were sensible and well expressed. He regretted not to have had time to stay longer in England, in order to learn the English language more perfectly. He speaks French and German with the greatest fluency. I could not help examining with the curiosity of the moralist the men and women who met on this occasion. There was the Duke of Rivas, the son of a great poet and a poet himself, who has always remained true to the King's cause, and who will probably be sent as ambassador to Rome. There was a Duke of Baylen, a name which recalls a disaster to France; a Duke of Tetuan—I don't know how many others; men who had been often divided in politics, and who forgot their differences for a time; Queen Isabella, in the pride of her indirect triumph, who asked herself probably if she would be allowed to return to her country; the advisers who had given her such fatal counsels; her mother, Queen Christine, in her widow's cap, looking quite old and gray, with only a remnant of her beauty; the children of Rianzarez; the Duc de Montpensier and his handsome daughters, the youngest of whom may one day wear the crown of Spain on her head; the Duc Decazes, who, as Duke of Glücksburg, took part in the negotiation of the Spanish mar-

riages, and who lived long, almost in poverty, at Madrid after the revolution of 1848, which broke his diplomatic career. As Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Cabinet of Marshal MacMahon, he had recognized the impotent government of Serrano almost at the dictation of Germany, knowing well that recognition did not mean perpetuity.

A few days afterwards, the same people were to be seen at the inauguration of the new Opera. I had often wondered in my mind who would be the first person to open this gigantic hall of music, begun and almost ended by Napoleon III. When I went to see for the first time the pictures of Baudry in his studio, which was in the very highest part of the building, it was after the Commune. The soldiers and the communists had been fighting on the high roof, round the two gigantic winged horses, and in the very arms of the giant Apollo, which had for two months been made to bear a red flag. Everywhere the traces of the balls were visible. I confess that at that time I had an involuntary fear, which I could not repress. I saw for a moment, in a sort of hallucination, the great theatre filled to suffocation with German soldiers, and in the great Imperial box the new German Emperor, Moltke, and Bismarck with their helmets on their heads. M. Thiers once hoped that he might inaugurate the building; and now, by a strange fortune, it had become the duty of Marshal MacMahon. There he was, with his gray little moustache and his red ribbon, receiving the motley assemblage of princes, of deputies, of ambassadors, of writers and artists. The young King of Spain was the lion of the evening. Every movement of his was watched. When the handsome Princess Murat, now Duchess of Mouchy, offered him a bunch of violets taken from her enormous bouquet, he gracefully placed them in his button-hole, and the Bonapartists have been exulting ever since: "You see he belongs to us. We also have a young prince, still at school, whom the French army will some day bring back to this place!" Queen Isabella, who is a Bonapartist at heart, probably out of jealousy of the influence of the Duc de Montpensier, as soon as she heard of the pronunciamiento telegraphed to the Empress Eugénie announcing the event, and adding that she hoped she would herself soon hear as happy news. The Government found itself obliged to intercept this telegram.

The young King Alfonso is said to have character, but as he is only seventeen years old, and has lived so long out of his own country, it seems hard that he should be left at once without guides. To talk of parliamentary government in Spain is to use a word without its precise application. Whether the Cortes sit or not, the authority is always disputed by irresponsible persons, who move and plot in the court, and use the ministers of the day as mere instruments. Of the two persons who are said to be already disputing the rôle of favorites, one is the Marquis of Alcañices, Duke of Sesto, who married the widow of the Duc de Morny; he has an enormous fortune, and was once the leader of fashion at Madrid, but seems now to aspire to political honors. He is at present Civil Governor of Madrid, and is said to be on the most intimate relations with the new sovereign. His rival in authority is Canovas de Castillo, the head of the Cabinet formed after the pronunciamiento of Martinez Campos. It would be most fortunate for Spain if young Alfonso proved to be one of those born leaders of mankind who are able to frame a policy of their own. All parties are exhausted; all the public men have lost their prestige. Serrano will probably soon be seen with his wife in a box at our new Opera; Castelar will write innumerable articles on the progress of republican ideas among the Latin races; Prim is in his grave; Espartero is a mere shadow of himself; the Carlists alone are still keeping up their desultory warfare; but most of the officers of Don Carlos, who have fought persistently against the upstart governments of the Madrilenes, will be happy to re-enter the ranks of the regular army, providing they can preserve their grades. Don Carlos will soon be reduced to firing off empty proclamations. The long carnival of the civil war is over. Towards the end, the Spaniards themselves hardly took any interest in it: the revolution had become a mere farce, like a bull-fight. The illustrated newspapers of Madrid will have something better to do than to show every week to the public new faces of new politicians and generals; they will give us representations of all sorts of royal entertainments. The old *dueñas*, keepers of royal etiquette, will come out from their retirement; the *majordomos* will brush up their uniforms; and the young King will be able to say "there is nothing changed in Spain."

It is frivolous to look upon such an extraordinary succession of events with mere irony; they ought to teach us some more profound lesson than the lessons of the ordinary moralist. The laws of history cannot be offended without serious trouble and injury to nations, and the law of gradual development is one of those laws which everything tends to make more apparent. It is idle to plant a germ where it cannot grow, idle to make constitutions where the first elements of constitutional life are wanting. There is a substratum of ignorance, of indolence, of helplessness which cannot bear the structure of republicanism. There is a mystic force in dynasties which cannot be despised; they are as much the work of time as the nations themselves. They have their rise, their growth, and their fall like some organic being. It does not seem as if the Bourbon dynasty had lost yet all its vitality in Spain. With all its faults, and perhaps partly on account of these faults, it seems to be still in harmony with the political and social state of the Spanish people. A proud and haughty people, fallen from its ancient station, impoverished, deprived of most of its possessions, yet capable at times of great and heroic deeds, patriotic enough to resist all foreign influences, is not unfitly represented by the young King who has just ascended the throne of his ancestors. He has seen his mother exiled, he has been an exile himself; but wherever he has gone, even among the boys at school, he must have felt that there was something in him as a virtual successor of Charles V. which spoke to the imagination of mankind, and which moved the Spaniards he met with almost to tears. In the very capital of revolutionary ideas, in Paris, he saw a large audience, composed of all that France honors and respects, rise in his presence. Let him understand that this great force does not belong to him in person, that he has it only, so to speak, in trust, and that he would be failing in his duty if he did not try all his lifetime to use it for the benefit of a distracted country and a people whom an excess of misgovernment alone could determine to exile his mother. It is much to be hoped, hard as this duty may be, that he will not allow the unfortunate Isabella to return permanently to Spain. She is probably one of those persons who can neither learn anything nor forget anything. Her brilliant intellect, for she is remarkably intelligent, has always been suicidal. Louis XIII. was obliged to part with his mother; King Alfonso ought not to be weaker than Louis XIII.

# Correspondence.

## THE LIPPINCOTT-CHAMBERS ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is one almost ludicrous feature connected with the alteration of the text of the English edition of Chambers's Encyclopædia by the Messrs. Lippincott, which has thus far escaped notice. It is customary in most, if not all, works of this character, where space to discuss a broad subject exhaustively is not available, to refer the reader at the close of articles on important topics to other works by recognized authorities for more detailed information. In the case of the article on "Free Trade" substituted by the Lippincott editors for the Chambers's original, the custom thus referred to has been followed; but as if the unsophisticated reader would not be sufficiently humbugged by being told little else in the article than that "free trade" was originally an English theory, devised and advocated for exclusively selfish purposes, but now wholly exploded, he is recommended at the close, if he desires to know anything more about the matter, to consult solely and exclusively the works of Henry C. Carey.

If there is anything in any collection of curiosities of literature quite equal to this in ludicrousness and absurdity, it has not been my good fortune ever to hear of it. Indeed, to find a case exactly parallel, it would be necessary to suppose that the editors of the Lippincott-Chambers had substituted an article on the "Christian religion," in which, after stating that the system was one formerly much thought of—especially by the priests—but latterly was not believed by any truly sensible people, should conclude by recommending the bewildered but still enquiring mind to satisfy its desire for further enlightenment on the subject by consulting the works of Tom Paine generally; adding, possibly, if it was thought best to strain a point in respect to copiousness and impartiality of reference, Volney's 'Ruins.' And yet the Messrs. Lippincott, in their recent explanatory letter to the *Nation*, make use of the following language: "*We believe that the true province of an Encyclopædia is not to advocate the theories of any man or class of men, but principally to embody in convenient form statements of facts.*"

Finally, this whole transaction affords one more striking illustration of the tactics which of late years have been employed by the advocates of protection to bolster up and keep alive their fast declining cause in the United States. These tactics may, in brief, be summed up as follows: *First*, to denounce and abuse all opponents of protection and advocates of *free* or *freer* trade as either Englishmen, British hirelings, or student doctrinaires, who have no practical knowledge of the subject. *Second*, to appeal to and encourage national prejudices by representing that the question of free trade or protection is simply a question of English or American manufac-

turing supremacy, rather than a question of abundance or scarcity resulting from the freedom or restriction of commercial intercourse or exchanges. *Third*, by suppressing or perverting information (as in the Chambers-Lippincott case), by avoiding anything like free, fair discussion, and by seeking to manufacture public opinion through the press by direct purchase or the indirect influence of money or patronage.

It is, however, most encouraging to perceive that, notwithstanding this system of propagandism which, since the outbreak of the war, has been worked so persistently, the end of protection in this country draws near, as is clearly proved by the following circumstances, namely, that, outside of Pennsylvania, the number of influential journals which advocate protection because their editors really believe in it can be counted on one's fingers, and is yearly diminishing; that no first-class instructor in any of our first-class colleges or educational institutions can be found who is willing to teach protection as an economic system worthy of adoption; that nine-tenths of all our educated young men who are coming forward to fill the places of influence in all the professions are free-traders on principle; and, finally, that the results of a fourteen years' trial of the protective policy under the most favorable circumstances, as shown in the present depressed condition of the industry and commerce of the country and the nearly complete exclusion of all American manufactures from the world's markets, constitute in themselves arguments with the masses for the abandonment of the theory of interference and restriction as a means of national development, which can neither be answered nor resisted.

DAVID A. WELLS.

---

[The comicality of the reference to Mr. Carey was pointed out on p. 299 of the *Nation*, Vol. XVIII., in our first allusion to this subject. We think a still more apt illustration than Mr. Wells's would be an article in an encyclopædia on the Copernican system of astronomy, followed by a reference to only one work on the subject—the 'Almagestum Novum' of Riccioli, in 1653—in which he exposes its absurdity from top to bottom. He was able to use one argument against it which our friends in Philadelphia evidently think very powerful, viz., that the motion of the earth around the sun was never heard of until the middle of the sixteenth century.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

A WORK on Harvard University, to be published by subscription, is on the eve of making its appearance. It will be illustrated by upwards of one hundred engravings, of various kinds, including fifty-eight heliotype views of the buildings and grounds. The contributors are from the élite of the alumni, and the subjects too numerous to mention here. A prominent feature is a history of the College by Samuel Eliot. The volume, elegantly printed, will be of imperial quarto size, and according to binding will cost from $30 to $40. Subscriptions should be sent to F. O. Vaille and H. A. Clark, Old President's House, Cambridge.——Bulletin No. 32 of the Boston Public Library gives, in a note on Dawkins's 'Cave-hunting,' a long and useful list of kindred scientific works, among which occur a few titles extracted from the book itself. The Superintendent requests the aid of scientists in perfecting this enumeration for future use in the library's catalogue.——A small military history of our late civil war, by Major Scheibert, of the Prussian engineers, has been published in Berlin. The author's view is a partial one, as must needs be, seeing that it is set forth in 182 pages. He served with Lee in the Virginia campaigns, and devotes himself chiefly to these. As he ardently espoused the cause he fought for, it is not singular that he should prefer the Southern military genius to the Northern. In other respects his fairness is not impeached.——Sigmund Soldan, of Nuremberg, is publishing in photographs the works of Peter Vischer. The text is by Dr. Wilhelm Lübke, professor of the history of art in Stuttgart. It is to appear in four parts, at about eight thalers a part. What gives special interest to this publication is the reproduction in photograph of Vischer's masterpiece, the superb metalwork of the Town Hall of Nuremberg. The original is now lost, but the fortunate discovery of the drawings a year ago at last enables the student of art to follow the career of the great master from his early severity to the exuberant fancy and wealth of detail which graced the works of his best days.——Among the announcements of the publishing-house of B. G. Teubner (Teubner's *Mittheilungen*, by the way, may be had of any bookseller gratis, or will be forwarded direct on application), we note a reprint of the 'Elogium Tiberii Hemsterhusii, auctore Davide Ruhnkenio.' The Latinity of the title is questionable; but it is refreshing now and then to dip into a book written before the invention of Sanskrit. We hope this book may be followed up by Wyttenbach's life of Ruhnken himself. The *Mittheilungen* also gives what is certainly a great convenience—a list of the reviews of Teubner's publications.——Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, will republish a humorous Scotch story, 'Generalship; or, How I Managed My Husband,' by George Roy.——F. B. Patterson, 32 Cedar St., announces a volume of Poems by Geo. A. Baker, jr.

—Mr. Carlyle's account of the 'Early Kings of Norway,' now appearing in an English magazine, is drawn of course from the only existing sources, namely, the Icelandic sagas, and more particularly from that remarkable series of sagas commonly called the 'Heimskringla,' the work of Snorri Sturluson. The most ordinary sense of obligation therefore should have induced the English writer to spell the name of the famous Icelandic historian correctly, instead of employing, as he does, the corrupted Norwegian form. In fact, if Mr. Carlyle were to write an English book on the 'Early Generals of Carthage,' derive all his information from a French paraphrase of Livy, and constantly cite his authority under the Gallicized name of 'Tite-Live,' he would do precisely what he is now doing. His offence is the more noticeable since it is committed by a writer who insisted upon styling one of his previous works a 'History of *Friedrich II.*' In regard to other proper names, too, his orthography is by no means to be commended. The form "Haarfagr" is a singular mixture of ancient Icelandic and modern Norwegian, while the forms "Tryggveson" and "Rögnwald" are neither Icelandic nor Norwegian nor English, nor anything else but pure Carlylese. Mr. Carlyle has apparently not had recourse to the Icelandic originals of the sagas, but has depended upon the modern Scandinavian translations, and perhaps in some measure upon the English version of the 'Heimskringla' by Mr. Laing, which is itself only a translation of a Norse translation. Nor would he have complained so frequently of the chronology of the sagas—in which he follows his equally uninformed countryman, Mr. Freeman—if he were familiar with Gudbrand Vigfússon's 'Tímatal,' which satisfactorily settles most of the principal dates. But the life of the ancient men of the North both on land and sea, in camp and court, was so full of dramatic incidents, so rich in interesting traits, that the 'Early Kings of Norway,' despite its small errors, will doubtless turn out to be a most entertaining book.

—Apropos of our Note on the Greek word for "daily" [bread] in the Lord's Prayer, a learned correspondent sends us the following correction. We had remarked of ἐπιούσιον that "Origen considers the word as invented by the Evangelist, but gives no etymology of it." In this, it seems, we were mistaken, along with Olshausen, whom we followed without verifying. "Origen distinctly says that it is analogous to περιούσιος (in the Septuagint), and is a derivative of οὐσία, and that it means 'contributing to (or beneficial to, or benefiting) [our] nature (being).' Moreover, he prefers this etymology to that which refers it to ἐπιέναι (ἐπιοῦσα). This shows the antiquity of the discussion. As to the Arabic and Æthiopic versions of the New Testament, they are of no great weight, being essentially mediæval." The references to Origen are Vol. I., 509C (246), and 517A (249), Migne's edition. In saying that we owed the version of "daily" to King James's translators, we should have qualified the remark, which implies that they first proposed this translation, whereas they adopted it from Tyndale. Another correspondent, who touches on this point, refers to the fact that "Mr. J. Hammond Trumbull, in his 'Notes on Forty Algonquin Versions of the Lord's Prayer,' has shown what difficulty certain translators have found in rendering this clause. Among the specimens given are words meaning 'our eatings' or 'victuals'; 'baked corn'; 'pone,' or literally 'something baked,' and 'what we may live on'; while other versions use a word which meant a wheaten *loaf* of the European fashion, from which pieces were to be cut off instead of being broken like corn-cake."

—The last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* (1874–5) contains a review by Prof. von Holst of Jameson's 'Constitutional Convention,' which he pronounces "one of the most solid and valuable labors upon special departments of American constitutional law." The principal defect of the writer he finds in a certain rigidity of logic, rather characteristic of the judge than the advocate, which incapacitates him from fully appreciating the development (*Werdende*) of constitutional law. Two features of the work he especially criticises from this point of view: first, Prof. Jameson's expression "quasi-sovereign" as applied to the States, an expression which he shows to be devoid of legal precision, and also inconsistent with the author's own definition of American sovereignty, viz., that it resides "in the corporate unit resulting from the organization of many into one, and not in the indi-

viduals constituting such unit, nor in any number of them as such, nor even in all of them, except as organized into a body politic and acting as such." The second point is the subordination of the Constitutional Convention to the Legislature—a reaction from the opposite theory, which places it even above the people. He allows himself, "misled by the history of Secession, and by the preponderance of his juristic thought over his political thought, to put on the 'Constitutional Convention' a strait-jacket."

—The last number of the *Law Review* contains several contributions interesting to lawyers and also to laymen. "The Proposed Codification and Reform of the International Law" is an article which treats at length of the recent proposals of Russia in the direction of humanizing warfare, which, the writer says, aim not at an era of peace and good-will, but at the certain triumph of military absolutism. There is also an article on "Authors' Rights before Publication—The Representation of Manuscript Plays," which discusses and dissects the curious theory that the audience at a lecture or at a theatre has quasi-piratical rights in the subject treated or play represented, provided they exercise them in the first instance *memoriter*, and not by phonography or any other artificial means; that there is a distinction in law between getting possession of other people's ideas through the unaided human memory and acquiring them by means of pen, ink, and paper. This curious argument has actually been given a legal form in this way: "In the case of a public dramatic performance, the public is held entitled to make use of that faculty which is necessarily addressed to such representation, to wit, memory, for the purpose of repeating the contents of the play, even in performing it elsewhere, when the owner has laid no restraint upon such use of the knowledge so obtained and retained by memory only"; but, as the writer of the article very truly says, "this reasoning is based upon the fallacy that memory, being given to man to be used, any use which can be made of it is legitimate, and that if a spectator at a public performance is enabled to carry away in his memory the contents of a play unrestrained by police arrangements, he has acquired a lawful right to make any use of such play he chooses, however injurious it may be to the owner. The unsoundness of this doctrine is too apparent to need serious consideration. It would be about as wise to argue that because a man has hands for legitimate uses he is also justified in putting them into his neighbor's pockets." The concluding article on "The Potter Act at Washington" raises a point which we have never seen discussed anywhere else, as to the effect which may be given by the Supreme Court at Washington to the Ordinance of 1787 in its relation to the Wisconsin legislation. The Ordinance contained this provision (Art. II.): "And, in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared that no law ought ever to be made or have force in the said territory that shall in any manner whatever interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements bonâ fide and without fraud previously formed." Now, the *Law Review* (and, from what we know of both, it is a better authority than Chief-Justice Ryan of Wisconsin) on this makes an argument that we believe will be found pretty difficult to assail:

"The Ordinance, therefore, is recognized as law in Wisconsin by the courts of that State, *wherever there is no conflict* between its provisions and their constitution. If its late decision be interpreted indirectly as an adjudication that, since the Potter Act is upheld, the Ordinance protection over contracts is abrogated, it is to be noted that this point was not raised or argued before the Court in that case; and also that even if the adjudication were directly to that effect, it would be open to revision at Washington, since the statute of August 7, 1789, recognizes the Ordinance and confirms it; and also that the Ordinance is itself before the Supreme Court as a 'contract' sought to be impaired by the legislation of Wisconsin. Moreover, the Supreme Court of the United States may now be asked to construe the 'contract' clause and the 'reserved power' clause in the Wisconsin constitution itself, and decide whether they do not impair the obligation of the great contract of 1787, which was to be for ever unalterable except by common consent, and under which corporate charters, mortgages, and bonds would all be fully protected. Unless it is held that by *implication* alone, arising merely from the adoption in the constitution of a less comprehensive but not repugnant form of words, that vigorous provision in the Magna Charta of the Northwest is annulled, then those words of the Ordinance are imported into the 'reserved power' clause of the Wisconsin constitution itself; and that clause cannot be supported under the Constitution of the United States, unless it be read with a proviso. 'All general laws or special acts enacted under the provisions of this section [on corporations] may be altered or repealed by the legislature at any time after their passage, *provided, however, that such repeal or alteration shall never in any manner whatever interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements*, bonâ fide *and without fraud previously formed.*'"

—The annual report of the President of Harvard College discusses two subjects which have a good deal of general interest, one touching such physical questions as digestion and nutrition, and the other being related to matters purely intellectual. Memorial Hall at Cambridge was last summer formally opened, and it is now used as a Commons Hall, much to the satisfaction of those who so use it, according to the president's report, and, we may add, much to the satisfaction also of the inhabitants of Cambridge and the neighboring towns, who resort to this hall for the purpose of "seeing the students eat"—a sight which has not been seen in an American college, or at any rate in Cambridge, for many a year. The history of the organization of the present system of commons is given by the president at length. Before the opening of the hall, a club, known as the Thayer Club, had had a sort of limited commons, and thus paved the way for the larger scheme.

"Before Commencement, a sufficient number of law, scientific, and college students had signified their intention to join the new association to warrant the corporation in making the necessary outlay to procure gas-fixtures and heating apparatus for the dining-hall and the eight small rooms adjoining it, to fit up the basement of the hall with kitchens, sculleries, store-rooms, a bakery and a laundry, to provide tables, chairs, linen, glass, china, and cutlery sufficient for five hundred persons, and to furnish sleeping accommodation for about fifty-five servants. The work of fitting up the hall was actively prosecuted during the summer vacation, and on October 1 the hall was occupied by five hundred students, although the mechanics remained at work in the building until nearly the 1st of November. The outlay of course proved much heavier than had been estimated, the greater part of the mechanics' work having necessarily been done by the day; it finally exceeded $40,000. Upon this outlay the students' association pays interest, and it also pays a reasonable sum annually for the ultimate extinguishment of the debt. The corporation advances from week to week the money to pay the bills of the association for heating, lighting, service, and provisions, and interest is charged on these advances. The whole cost of carrying on the hall, including the above-mentioned charges for advances, is assessed by the officers of the association upon the members thereof, and the amounts thus assessed upon the several members are collected in the university term-bills by the Bursar. The association elects annually a president, a vice-president, and two directors from each school of the university and each college class; and these officers regulate the diet in the hall, preserve order, and exercise a general control over the expenditures of the association. With regard to the diet and expenditures, however, it is distinctly understood that the object of the association is to provide a simple, substantial, wholesome table, at as low a price as is consistent with due order and comfort. The officers of the association choose from among its members an auditor, who keeps the weekly lists of persons boarding at the hall, supervises purchases and expenditures, and makes a monthly report to the officers. The corporation appoints a professional steward, who makes all purchases, employs and directs all servants, and, in general, carries on the hall. The steward must be dismissed by the corporation, on reasonable notice, at the request of two-thirds of the officers of the association. The steward receives a fixed salary, and, in addition, a small sum each week for every person who boarded that week at the hall; but this head-money is proportionally diminished as the average weekly price of board exceeds four dollars. Any person may withdraw from the hall upon giving one full week's notice of his intention. It is the interest of the steward, on the one hand, to satisfy the students so as to keep the hall full, and on the other, to keep the price of board as low as four dollars a week, so as not to diminish his head-money."

—This form of organization is, as the president says, the result of many trials. There was in old times in Cambridge—as far back as the "good old Colony times" celebrated in undergraduate song—a sort of commons, of which the traditions are preserved to this day, and we are sorry to say that those traditions were of unlimited license at table, of much discontent on the part of the students, manifested in irregular and unconstitutional ways, and much tribulation on the part of the authorities. From 1849 to 1865 the college gave up the business altogether, and left the students to find their own boarding places, but this, of course, sent up the price of board to fabulous prices, which in turn induced many students to "board themselves," or, in other words, to buy their own food and cook it in their own rooms—a practice "dangerous to health, and very undesirable in every point of view." Then came the Thayer Club, and now Memorial Hall appears at last to solve the problem which has agitated the college for two centuries—though Mr. Eliot says that it is "too soon to pronounce with absolute confidence." The great advantage of the new system is that the faculties of the university have nothing to do with the business.

"The corporation has only to appoint the professional steward, to advance the money needed, which it recovers on its own term-bills, and to watch for the proper care of the building, considered as a monument and a valuable piece of property for university uses. As a condition of giving their aid, the corporation lay down three rules, two of which have reference simply to economy: First, that no wine, beer, or other alcoholic drink, and no tobacco, shall be used in the hall; secondly, that there shall be three courses at dinner, and no more; thirdly, that the joints of meat shall not be carved upon the tables. Through their chosen officers and their auditor, the students have real control of the whole establishment. If complaints arise, whether well or ill founded, they must be dealt with by the officers of the association; if disorders occur in the hall, they must be repressed by the officers chosen by the students themselves; if improvements are suggested in the administration of the hall, or if promising experiments invite a trial, the directors are free to act in all things not settled by the original understanding with the corporation."

MALDEN PUBLIC LIBRARY

—The name of Charles Austin must be added to the list of the dead of 1874. He died on the 26th of December, at the age of seventy-five, at Brandeston Hall, his estate in Suffolk, where he had retired in 1848 on the proceeds of the most lucrative practice at the Parliamentary bar ever known. He was, whether we judge him by the encomiums lavished upon him by his early friends, or by the simpler standard of his reputation at the bar, or the still simpler standard of the fees which that reputation brought him, a very remarkable man. His income in 1847—the great "railway year"—was so large that the writer of a notice in the *Pall Mall Gazette* does not "venture to state the sums" he has heard mentioned, and he received so many briefs, merely given to prevent his appearance on the other side, that a story got into circulation of his being met riding in Hyde Park on one of the busiest days of the session, when, on being asked what in the world he was doing there, he replied: "I am doing equal justice to all my clients." But it is not by his career as a barrister that he will be longest remembered. He was more generally known as the gifted and brilliant brother of John Austin, of whom, as he appeared in his youth, a most agreeable account is to be found in Mill's 'Autobiography.' When Mill made his acquaintance he had just left Cambridge, after shining there "with great *éclat* as a man of intellect and a brilliant orator and converser." The Union Debating Society at that time was at the height of its reputation, and was the weekly arena in which the rising young men of the day (among them was Macaulay) first matched themselves against one another, advancing, as young men usually do, extreme opinions. Mr. Austin was at that time one of the most advanced of the younger school of liberals and followers of Bentham. "The impression he gave was that of boundless strength, together with talents which, combined with such apparent force of will and character, seemed capable of dominating the world. Those who knew him, whether friendly to him or not, always anticipated that he would play a conspicuous part in public life. It is seldom that men produce so great an immediate effect by speech unless they in some degree lay themselves out for it; and he did this in no ordinary degree. He loved to strike and even to startle. He knew that decision is the greatest element of effect, and he uttered his opinions with all the decision he could throw into them, never so well pleased as when he astonished any one by their audacity. Very unlike his brother, who made war against the narrower interpretations and applications of the principles they both professed, he, on the contrary, presented the Benthamic doctrines in the most startling form of which they were susceptible, exaggerating everything in them which tended to consequences offensive to any one's preconceived feelings. All which he defended with such verve and vivacity, and carried off by a manner so agreeable as well as forcible, that he always either came off victor or divided the honors of the field."

—Mr. George Walker has translated and reproduced in a pamphlet (D. Appleton & Co.), which he calls 'The Example of France,' two articles recently published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by Victor Bonnet, the well-known economist, on the payment of the German indemnity and the management of the currency since the war. The pamphlet is worth careful perusal for the light it throws both on the way in which the French have coped with one of the most tremendous financial problems ever presented to any people, and on the conditions of a return to specie payments by any nation which has abandoned them for irredeemable paper. Perhaps the most remarkable consequence of the indemnity has been that it has inflicted serious injury on German trade and industry by producing a fever of disastrous speculation, while it has not only sobered and steadied the French, but has given them renewed confidence in their own resources. How were they able, close on a disastrous war, to pay such an enormous sum as $1,000,000,000 within the short space of three years, and still leave the exchanges in their favor, and the discount on their legal tenders hardly perceptible? M. Bonnet explains it, and the explanation is very instructive. In the first place, he draws attention to the frugality of the French, which, combined with their industry, make the national savings, he calculates, about $600,000,000 a year. Then France has, since 1815, been growing rapidly rich, and making all the countries her debtors. The balance of trade for fifteen years before 1870 was constantly against her—which M. Bonnet treats as a good sign, showing that she was receiving more than she gave out. Therefore she was able, in 1870, by merely transferring $400,000,000 in credits she had in foreign countries, to pay that amount to the Prussians without drawing at all on her own stock of the precious metals. Then she held a large amount of the securities of foreign countries, which, as soon as an opportunity of converting them at a profit into French rentes was offered, were sold off, and the proceeds—say $200,000,000—handed over to the Germans, again without any draft on French specie. Next $300,000,000 were raised by loans, in the main abroad, and the exact amount actually paid by the French Government to Germany in specie was only about $100,000,000. So that it may be said that the ease with which France met the frightful demand on her was due to the excellent condition in which the war found her trade, and, let us add, to the shortness of the war itself.

—The most instructive portion of the pamphlet, however, relates to the Bank of France, the discount on whose legal-tender notes never rose above 2½ per cent., and has now totally disappeared. The Government owed the Bank when the war broke out $12,000,000 and subsequently borrowed $300,000,000, for which it agreed to pay one per cent. per annum, and to reimburse it at the rate of $40,000,000 a year—an engagement which has been scrupulously carried out—and in return for this the Bank was allowed to issue $360,000,000 of legal-tender notes in addition to what was already afloat, and did accordingly issue them on a specie reserve of only $120,000,000. When $460,000,000 notes were thus out, in November, 1871, the premium on gold was only 2½ per cent.; in January, 1872, the issue reached $490,000,000, and the premium fell to one per cent.; shortly afterwards the volume of the paper currency was raised to $640,000,000, and the premium disappeared. M. Bonnet accounts for this extraordinary and unlooked-for phenomenon in this way: the premium of 2½ per cent. on gold was really caused by the fact that, at the very period when the country was making the largest purchases abroad in order to replace the losses of the war, the Government was also eagerly and industriously buying foreign bills in order to make its payments on account of the indemnity. As business and exports revived, and the exchanges again turned in favor of France, owing to the sale of foreign securities and to the large loans made abroad, the premium disappeared in spite of the fresh issues of paper money. The exchanges—owing to the economy and activity of the people, and the absence of all speculation, and the enormous stock of coin which, by reason of French commercial habits, lies in the hands of individuals, and which M. Bonnet estimates at $1,000,000,000 or $1,200,000,000—have ever since continued favorable; and the Bank has consequently been able, while reducing the volume of its paper by about $100,000,000, to increase its metallic reserve to about fifty-two per cent. of this amount in December, 1874.

—We mentioned in a late number the interest and consequent literary activity occasioned by the Petrarch festivals of last summer. This interest was not confined to the poet's native and adopted countries, but extended to Germany, and called forth the best monograph on the poet produced for many years. We refer to the work by Ludwig Geiger ('Petrarka,' Leipzig), in which Petrarch is considered principally as the man of letters and the patriot. It is natural that in New Italy Dante and Petrarch should have an important political significance; but for the rest of the world they are only its greatest poets. Geiger's work is excellent, both in its historic and literary details, and is based upon thorough original research. While speaking of Petrarch, we would express our regret that the best critique, in our opinion, ever written on the poet should be so little known out of Italy. We mean the 'Saggio Critico sul Petrarca' (Naples, 1869), by Francesco de Sanctis, the author of a very remarkable history of Italian literature, also not yet translated.

—There is reason for gratulation that the American Museum of Natural History in Central Park has secured Mr. E. G. Squier's antiquarian collection. This at least has been saved for an American institution, and will not pass into foreign hands to be locked up for ever in the museums and collections of Europe. Yet, as we lately stated, there was reason to fear that this would be its fate. Our Governments, State and General, seemed indifferent, and private liberality was not prompt to take advantage of this opportunity of displaying a public spirit. Mr. Squier was one of the first who brought to the subject of American antiquities knowledge, freedom from old prejudices and theories, and a spirit of patient and careful enquiry. He was not easily deceived, and valued justly all the specimens that rewarded his explorations. These began in his youth, when, with Dr. Davis, he so thoroughly explored the mounds of Ohio, and were continued for years. His researches were extended to various parts of the continent, and the collection now acquired by the American Museum is rich not only in specimens from the excavations in the tumuli of the Mississippi Valley, but also in articles of still greater variety and range from various parts of Central America, many of extreme value and interest. The Mexican part is also valuable, embracing probably the finest collection of chalchihuitl in the world. The extremely curious museum of antiquities collected in his two years' exploration of the ancient Peruvian seats of power, gives an insight into the whole life of that people, their food, dress, habits, employments, amusements, industry, and war. The ethnologist, finally, can study in h's

collection of skulls the intellectual development and capacity of the various races whose remains enable us to determine so nearly their position in the scale of civilization. The Museum has made a most important addition to the nucleus of a department of American antiquities which it had already created.

## MR. BANCROFT'S TENTH VOLUME.*

WITH his tenth volume, Mr. Bancroft has reached the Treaty of Peace of 1782, which recognized the independence of the United States; and it is announced that with this volume his work is at an end. He originally contemplated bringing his history down "to the present time," and if he has stopped at an earlier period, it is not that he overrated his strength, but underrated the richness of his materials and the proportions of his work. No doubt he would have been quite satisfied then with the prospect of ten solid octavos, which should cover the whole ground of his original plan; he may be even better satisfied with the industry and the fulness of materials which have found the ten volumes scarcely enough for so much shorter a space of time. It is perhaps too early to ask what will be the permanent rank and value of this history of the United States. Certainly, if it had been carried out according to its original plan, it must have superseded all others as a complete and detailed history. As it is, even conceding to it this rank for the period it covers, it must yet suffer by reason of its incompleteness; and those who wish to have one work which shall cover the whole ground must still content themselves with Hildreth's dry but compendious, accurate, and impartial work, or some other even briefer.

In matter of detail, we suppose that it would be generally admitted that Mr. Bancroft is less satisfactory in military operations than in other branches of his subject. Diplomacy is no doubt his favorite field, and the fulness and excellence of this may be pronounced the characteristic feature of his history as compared with others. In the present volume—which, to be sure, contains the negotiations for peace, but which also contains the Southern campaigns of Gates and Greene, the affair of Stony Point, the career of John Paul Jones, Arnold's treason, and Clarke's campaign in the valley of the Ohio—thirteen chapters out of twenty-nine are devoted to the relations of European states towards each other and towards this country. This is a great merit, even if it is somewhat exaggerated in its proportions. It was to most Americans an entirely new idea that the independence of their country was so closely connected with the intrigues of European courts. In this branch of enquiry Mr. Bancroft has had rare opportunities of study; he has had that most valuable of all opportunities, active and successful participation in diplomatic affairs; and it is not too much to say that these chapters of his work are an absolute contribution to our knowledge, and that of a very high order and very great in amount. This history of the Revolution contains a tolerably complete history of contemporary European diplomacy. Diplomatic history, however, is only one branch of political history; and we should expect that Mr. Bancroft would be equally strong in all departments of political history. He possesses the intellectual qualifications for it; but in dealing with affairs near at home, he lacks the temperate impartiality which does not desert him in the courts of Europe. No judgment passed upon his merits as an historian can be silent as to the storm of adverse criticism excited by his ninth volume. It was shown, we should think, very conclusively that in this volume he made unjust and untrue accusations against some of those men whose good name is a part of the national inheritance. But Mr. Bancroft has chosen to let these criticisms stand unanswered, neither refuting them nor acknowledging himself in the wrong. Now, this is not the temper nor the mode of proceeding of an impartial historian; and with this temper, however great the capacity of any one to deal with political transactions, it is impossible for him to possess that power of inspiring confidence which is the dearest treasure of the historian, and which he must possess if he would rise above the rank of pamphleteer.

Another fault, or rather perhaps another phase of the same fault, is that Mr. Bancroft is something of a doctrinaire, and writes from the point of view not merely of a theory but of a partisan theory. If Mr. Hildreth is, in a certain sense, the historian of the Federal party, Mr. Bancroft is in a much fuller degree the historian of the anti-Federal party. His theory of democracy is the French theory of the "rights of man," rather than that of English and American democracy based upon historical precedents and traditions. At the time that his earlier volumes appeared, the Jeffersonian theories of government, which had found embodiment and expression in the party of the Jackson Democracy, were sweeping triumphantly over the country. In the enthusiasm of his youth, Mr. Bancroft attached himself to this party, and made himself one of its intellectual leaders. His earlier volumes are written from the point of view of these theories, and may almost be called a panegyric upon them. Few, however, will be inclined at the present day to deny that this tide of radical democracy, culminating in the New York Constitution of 1846, was a chief cause of the political decay of the times that followed; and a history of the country based upon this theory can hardly be recognized as the true and complete delineation of the national development. It must be said that in his later volumes he has given less expression to this view of democracy, and that in especial the present volume contains fewer sounding generalities than are characteristic of the earlier ones. Perhaps, however, this may arise from the general character of the volume, which is written with far less spirit than is usual with him. It seems as if he had made up his mind to reach a definite point of time in his tenth volume, and had therefore crowded into it more material than he could well manage. His seventh and eighth volumes cover each about the period of a year, the ninth less than two years, while the one before us embraces from May, 1778, to November, 1782. No wonder, then, that it is comparatively dry reading; one cannot help feeling that the author was tired of his work and hurrying to get it finished.

This is not in general a fault of Mr. Bancroft's writing. Whatever shortcomings he has as an historian, dulness is not one of them. He is even accused of sacrificing truth to rhetorical effect; and whether this be so or not, it is certain that he sometimes sacrifices good taste to effect. But the present volume contains very little that is eminently characteristic of his style, whether in its merits—brilliancy and elaborate picturesqueness; or its defects—overloaded ornament, a fondness for sententious generalities, and an occasional obscurity arising from it. A specimen of the latter is the sentence on page 347, the precise meaning of which it is not easy to make out, and which at best adds nothing where it stands: "Yet the quality of our kind is such that government cannot degrade a race without marring the nobleness of human nature."

In his best style, we find this striking though florid description of the Mississippi, as the bond of American Union:

"The Mississippi River is the guardian and the pledge of the union of the States of America. Had they been confined to the eastern slopes of the Alleghanies, there would have been no geographical unity between them, and the thread of connection between lands that merely fringed the Atlantic must soon have been sundered. The Father of Rivers gathers his waters from all the clouds that break between the Alleghanies and the furthest ranges of the Rocky Mountains. The ridges of the eastern chain bow their heads at the north and at the south; so that, long before science became the companion of man, nature herself pointed out to the barbarous races how short portages join his tributary rivers to the shore of the Atlantic coast. At the other side his mightiest arm interlocks with the arms of the Oregon and the Colorado, and by the conformation of the earth itself marshals highways to the Pacific. From his remotest springs he refuses to suffer his waters to be divided; but, as he bears them all to the bosom of the ocean, the myriads of flags that wave above his head are all the ensigns of one people. States, larger than kingdoms, flourish where he passes; and, beneath his step, cities start into being, more marvellous in their reality than the fabled creations of enchantment. His magnificent valley, lying in the best part of the temperate zone, salubrious and wonderfully fertile, is the chosen muster-ground of the most various elements of human culture, brought together by men summoned from all the civilized nations of the earth, and joined in the bonds of common citizenship by the strong, invisible attraction of republican freedom. Now that science has come to be the household friend of trade and commerce and travel, and that nature has lent to wealth and intellect the use of her constant forces, the hills, once walls of division, are scaled, or pierced, or levelled; and the two oceans, between which the republic has unassailably intrenched itself against the outward world, are bound together across the continent by friendly links of iron."—P. 192.

Another passage, at once characteristic and good, is the contrast drawn between the New Constitution of Massachusetts (1780) and the plan of government for "New Ireland"—the territory between the Saco and the St. Croix. "The one," he concludes, "would have organized self-government, the other arbitrary rule; the one a people of freeholders, the other of landlords and tenants; the one public worship according to the conscience and faith of individuals, the other a state religion subordinate to temporal power; the one education of all the people, the other indifference to human culture" (p. 369). An interesting story is told (p. 527) of John Adams in his negotiations which resulted in the acknowledgment of American independence by the Netherlands: "Encouraged by the success at Yorktown, on the 9th of January [1782] he presented himself to the President of the States-General, and renewing his formal request for an opportunity of presenting his credentials, 'demanded a categorical answer which he might

* 'History of the United States, from the Discovery of the American Continent. By George Bancroft.' Vol. X. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 593.

transmit to his sovereign.' He next went in person to the Deputies of the several cities of Holland, following the order of their rank in the confederation, and repeated his demand to each one of them. The attention of Europe was drawn to the adventurous and sturdy diplomatist, who dared alone and unsustained to initiate so bold and novel a procedure." We will close with an extract from a foot-note (p. 349), which we may be allowed to hope hints at Mr. Bancroft's future field of labor. If he has given up the plan of a complete history of the United States, this need not be inconsistent with its continuation upon its diplomatic side, which he has made so peculiarly his own. "The despatches of the French envoys to their Government contain the most complete reports which exist of the discussions in Congress from 1778 to the adoption of the Constitution in 1789. Congress sat, it is true, with closed doors; but the French Ministers knew how to obtain information on every proceeding that interested their country."

## ISMAILÏA.*

SIR SAMUEL BAKER'S narrative, except for its extreme redundancy as a piece of book-making, reads like the story of a new Cortez or Pizarro. The Khedive furnished him a military force of upwards of two thousand men, with artillery in proportion, and apparently unlimited funds for the purchase of supplies, including all the materials for constructing iron steamers, and was, Sir Samuel Baker affirms, sincere in wishing for the success of the expedition; but he was extremely ill-seconded by all his officials and local functionaries. These people did everything to make it abortive. The expedition on leaving Cairo must have presented the appearance of some vast fantastic squadron out of Spenser or Ariosto—the dusky soldiers of every shade clad in crimson and white, the group of fair Englishmen headed by the stalwart Pasha and his devoted wife, and the great baggage-train of strange machinery and gaudy presents and bribes for the savages. The whole force and its impedimenta were easily transported to Khartum, the last outpost of civilization on the upper Nile; but after leaving this place its troubles began and lasted with little intermission for more than two years. The first year (1870) was passed in struggling with the so-called "sudd" of the great river—the floating islands of vegetation with which the stream in certain latitudes is choked. It forms itself into masses so compact and resistant that the work of forcing a passage is about tantamount to digging a canal. The party dug its canals in vain, the boats wriggled through impossible places only to find themselves confronted with the absolute solidification of the stream, and had to retrace their course with all possible speed, lest their canals should solidify behind them. They erected a little city of canvas by the river side, and waited till the next year brought back high water. Another trial met with better success, and they at last found their way along tangled threads of water, through a series of bewildering lakes (like a string of scattered beads) until Sir Samuel Baker in a small boat squeezed forward and ushered them into the open current of the White or uppermost Nile. Troops and boats got through, and after this were fairly landed in the equatorial wilderness. "Wilderness" is indeed not the word; for most of the country that Sir Samuel Baker traversed is thickly populated, and his usual formula of praise is to say that it reminds him of an English park. The population, to be sure, consists of naked and bloodthirsty savages, and the beautiful trees on the lawn-like slopes are very apt to have one of these gentry lurking behind them; but at any rate it is not the forest primeval; there is society, though the society is disagreeable.

We cannot of course follow the expedition in detail; but it arranges itself in three or four broad masses. These are subdivided into innumerable episodes and incidents; for Sir Samuel Baker is a very minute historian. There is of course a fair share of sporting episodes, though of these the author is somewhat chary, as he pretends to speak only of what befell him in his official capacity. But his shots apparently were as marvellous as ever; he picks out the soft spot of his victim to within a hair's-breadth, and his bullet keeps the appointment. There are various arrests and overhaulings of slave-trading and kidnapping parties, with immediate emancipation of the victims, and, on one occasion, wholesale marriage of the women to his own Abyssinian soldiers. Then there are the fighting episodes, which are intensely interesting, and in which Sir Samuel Baker comes out, as the phrase is, very strong. These pages constitute the originality of the present volume, which on several other points contains less curious information than its predecessors. Owing to the author's remaining of necessity in the populous regions there are fewer wild-beast stories; though, indeed, this hardly matters, for the natives were, for the most part, as perfect wild beasts as the steadiest nerves could have cared to encounter.

Sir Samuel Baker made a long halt at Gondokoro, in the country of the Baris, a race whom his utmost forbearance and tact were utterly powerless to propitiate. It was living on pins and needles, but every one, on the whole, seems to have done his duty, and the Baris, in their thousands, were at last soundly thrashed by the English Pasha and his handful. It was literally a handful, for the force had been seriously reduced by death, desertion, massacre, and dispersion on other errands. The bulk of the original troops were very reluctant philanthropists, and had to be vigorously weeded and sifted, so that the toughest work was performed by a handful of seasoned and tested men. In the autumn of 1871, while he was away from Gondokoro, in an expedition against the Baris, eleven hundred men withdrew and started on the return journey to Cairo. He was thus left to suppress the slave-trade and fight the savages with a force of only five hundred persons, which was afterwards considerably reduced. His only resource was to make the quality of his little army very perfect, and it appears to have become, indeed, a small but admirable machine, of which he was the irresistible motive power. The Baris insisted on war, began it in a terrible fashion, but were promptly satisfied and utterly dispersed. How he proceeded afterwards to the country of the Loboré, who were, relatively speaking, mild and polite, and made his way with many adventures into the kingdom of Unyoro, Sir Samuel Baker relates in copious detail His establishment in this country, where he constructed an elaborate government station, unpacked his goods, and endeavored to diffuse the civilizing influence of lawful commerce, is one of the most interesting episodes in his volume. It had a terrible termination, but one feels morally sure of the author as one reads, and it only deepens one's pleasure to feel the plot thickening in a sinister manner. The people of Unyoro have a smattering of civilization, and their young king, Kabba Rega, esteemed himself a mighty potentate. His is a very vivid and entertaining portrait, and the whole story of his relations with Sir Samuel, his pomposity, his greed, his drunkenness, his cruelty, and his final treachery, has a fine dramatic completeness. The little army was encamped alongside of the town of Masindi, where it had made itself, for the time, a very comfortable home, and established relations, ostensibly of a very friendly kind, with the natives. But a massacre had been planned, and it was attempted with a suddenness which left the strangers barely time to spring to arms. An attempt had first been made to poison the garrison, which was successful to the point of making half of them deadly ill, and Sir Samuel Baker had only just ceased plying them with emetics and rejoicing in the consequences, when a chorus of inhuman yells suddenly expedited their convalescence. The natives, of course, were repulsed and chased, and their metropolis was given over to the flames. Sir Samuel Baker then set fire to the government station and to the greater part of his own provisions, and, making a few small packages of all that remained of his once voluminous baggage, without guides, without beasts, without carriers, he began a desperate retreat through the wilderness. This episode is of really thrilling interest; it was the distinctively heroic part of the expedition. There had been a horse and a donkey left; but they both died, and Lady Baker performed the march on foot. This was only one more prodigy of fortitude on the part of this extraordinary woman. Day after day they advanced, fighting their way hour by hour against the ambushes of the defeated and infuriated enemy. They found refuge at last in the dominions of Rionga, a friendly potentate and apparently very amiable man, inhabiting an island in the great Victoria Nyanza.

Here the term of Sir Samuel Baker's commission approached, and he was obliged soon to set out on his laborious return to Khartum. We have been able to give but the scantiest outline of his narrative, which we cordially commend to all admirers of men of action. We have said nothing of his operations against the slave-traders, which were as energetic as opportunity allowed, and which effected, in particular, the arrest of Abou Saood, the principal agent of the horrible traffic. He comes and goes, throughout the narrative, as the evil genius of the expedition and the blight of all Sir Samuel Baker's beneficent projects. Sir Samuel sent him to Cairo to be tried for his crimes; but he admits that the grand fault of his expedition was that, once having caught him, he did not summarily shoot him. Abou Saood was acquitted, released, and sent back to the White Nile. Sir Samuel Baker had done a great deal in the way of "annexing," and another Englishman, Colonel Gordon, was subsequently sent to Equâtorial Africa to emphasize the solemnity. As yet it is a matter of unfurling the Ottoman flag and stealing the likely young people. Was the Khedive sincere, or did he merely wish to make an impression of philanthropic zeal upon the European powers? In either case, Sir Samuel Baker has had his fling, and if the poor victims of Abou Saood and Company have not permanently pro-

* 'Ismailia: A Narrative of the Expeditions to Central Africa for the Suppression of the Slave Trade, organized by Ismail, Khedive of Egypt. By Sir Samuel Baker, Pasha, etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1875.

fited, one may say that the Anglo-Saxon public has. There was something essentially fabulous and chimerical in the elements of the enterprise, and if the Viceroy of Egypt was really laughing in his sleeve as it went forward, this only gives the last dramatic touch to the affair. But if we were to take this view, we might still hope in charity that he was not sorry to have given a man who was a magnificent example of the classic personal qualities of the English race, a magnificent opportunity to display them.

## THE MARINE MAMMALS OF WESTERN AMERICA.*

LESS than a decade ago, the marine mammals, and especially the cetaceans of the western coast of North America, were almost less known than those of any equal extent of coast in any other portion of the world. Now they are among the best known (and scarcely, if at all, less so than those of Eastern North America), and for that knowledge we are chiefly indebted to the labors of one man, who, as a diversion from official duties, directed his attention to their observation and illustration. It is to Charles M. Scammon, a captain in the United States Revenue Marine Service, that our obligations are due.

"Being on the coast of California in 1852, when the 'gold fever' raged," says Captain Scammon, "the force of circumstances compelled me to take command of a brig, bound on a sealing, sea-elephant, and whaling voyage, or abandon sea-life, at least temporarily. The objects of our pursuit were found in great numbers, and the opportunities for studying their habits were so good that I became greatly interested in collecting facts bearing upon the natural history of these animals. Reference to the few books devoted to the subject soon convinced me that I was at work in a department in which but little definite knowledge existed. This was true even of the whales, the best known of this class; and I was soon led to believe that by diligent observation I should be able to add materially to the scanty stock of information existing in regard to the marine mammals of the Pacific coast."

The studies thus commenced were continued with unintermitted ardor during the succeeding years, and their results are made known in the work now under notice. Meanwhile, however, species represented in the Californian waters had been described by Gill and Cope, and Captain Scammon himself had, in one of several articles, given the fruit of some of his observations in a paper which was edited by Prof. Cope, and published in 1869, in the Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia (pp. 32–63). This article, with some modifications, has been embodied in the new work whose title is given in connection with this notice, but the greater part of the volume is composed of new matter.

How interesting and fruitful the studies of Captain Scammon have been may be gathered from a few facts. As already indicated, scarcely anything was known before he commenced his investigations respecting the cetaceans of the western waters, and now we have the goodly array of twenty-four species of that order duly registered in the roll of forms dwelling in the Pacific. Several of these, it is true, are very incompletely known, but it is quite possible that the names personating them represent distinct species whose exact determination awaits the future investigations to which Captain Scammon, it is hoped, will devote himself.

Seven species of whalebone whales (Mysticete or Balænoidea), the sperm whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*), and sixteen nominal species of porpoises and allied forms (Delphinids), are recognized by Captain Scammon as inhabitants, for a greater or less portion of the year, of the waters in question. The most interesting form is the gray whale (*Rhachianectes glaucus*). This species was entirely unknown to science before specimens were secured by Mr. Dall and described by Professor Cope in 1868. Its habits were subsequently given in more detail by Captain Scammon, and the account is reproduced with additions in the new work. Not only does the species belong to a distinct genus from any previously known, but it represents, in common with the Scrag whale of our eastern waters, a peculiar group of fin-back whales (Subfamily Agaphelinæ), distinguished by the absence of a dorsal fin and the reduction of the inferior folds to at most two longitudinal ones under the chin; these folds, in the gray whale, are about fifteen inches apart and six feet long. The species is also very characteristic in its color, being of a mottled gray. It attains a length of about forty feet, and may, perhaps, exceptionally reach even fifty. In habits it differs from all other species. In the colder months (from November to May) it is found in the Californian waters, and in that season the female enters the lagoons and brings forth her young. As the season advances, they all proceed northwards, keeping so near the shore that they often pass through the kelp near the beach, and the warmer months are passed in the Arctic Ocean and Sea of Okhotsk. "Devil-fish," "hardhead," "grayback," and "rip-sack" are names given to the animal, and suggest various peculiarities. The first is significant of the danger incurred in its pursuit; the second alludes to an unpleasant propensity to "root" the boats when coming in contact with them, in the same manner that hogs upset their empty troughs; the third alludes to the color, and the fourth to the mode of flensing adopted by the whalers. "Mussel-digger" is a misnomer, resulting from its manner of descending into the mud and returning to the surface with snout besmeared with mud, giving rise to the inference that it had been in search of mussels. It affects the shallowest water (especially when the "cubs" are young), and delights in the breakers along the beach, or keeps between the shore and kelp. This habit determines the mode of pursuit generally adopted. The vessels are anchored at a distance from the shore, and at early dawn the crews advance inwards to the attack in boats, or await, at favorable openings, the emergence of the animals from the beds of kelp. Another mode of capture is by ships cruising off the land and sending their boats inshore toward the line of kelp, and, as the whales work to the southward, the boats being provided with extra large sails, the whalemen take advantage of the strong northerly winds, and, running before the breeze, sail near enough to be able to dart the hand-harpoon into the fish. "Settling fast" in this way, it is killed in deep water, and, if inclined to sink, it can be held up by the boats till the ship comes up, when a large "fluke-rope" is made fast, or the "fin-chain" is secured to one fin, the "cutting-tackle" hooked, and the whale "cut in" immediately. This mode is called "sailing them down." Still other ways of attacking them are with "Greener's harpoon-gun," which is similar to a small swivel-gun, and what is called "whaling among the breakers," the latter being a modification entailed by the greater wariness which the animals have learned through the lessons of experience. While the fishery for this species which most interests our own citizens is that carried on in the Californian waters, it is not the only one. At favorable localities along most of the coast, from their southern limits to the Arctic Ocean, during their passage between summer and winter quarters, they are assailed by the inhabitants, and their arrival is awaited for with eager expectancy. This constant onslaught has made the species more cautious, and even induced a modification in its habits; it more and more shuns the fateful shore, none are found as large as formerly, and it appears now in diminished numbers. Thus much has been deemed advisable to recount of a form so peculiar and isolated in distribution; the others must be passed over in silence.

As is well known, it is among the cetaceans that are to be found the most gigantic of living animals, and large-sized forms are characteristic in the group of whalebone whales: their huge size, although it may be definitely stated in feet and inches, is rarely adequately conceived of by the mind. Some are said (but it may be well to receive the statement with much doubt) to attain a length of more than one hundred feet. A few data will illustrate the size which some species attain. Commencing with the best known type, the Bowhead, or Great Polar Whale, has been said to yield nearly three hundred barrels of oil and over thirty-five thousand pounds of whalebone, and it might therefore be supposed to be the largest of all cetaceans. Such, however, says Captain Scammon (and his remarks have a *naïve* appearance) is not the fact, for it seldom attains the length of sixty-five feet, and it is a stout whale which measures fifty feet between its extremities. It is among the finback whales that at least the *longest* species are found, the sulphur-bottom attaining a length of from eighty-five to ninety-five feet, and its weight is estimated at nearly one hundred and fifty tons. The smallest of the whalebone whales (*Balænoptera Davidsoni*), and which, on that account, has been supposed to be the young of some other, attains the length of nearly thirty feet. The young, or "calves," when born are about a quarter as long as their dams, and one of the most interesting plates in Captain Scammon's work is that illustrating a female suckling her young: the teats are situated almost two-thirds of the entire distance from the snout; one of these is taken by the young between the extremity of its jaws and lips, while the mother reclines a little on one side, raising her hind parts nearly out of the water, and lying in a relaxed position.

In addition to the cetaceans, Captain Scammon has also treated of the Pinnipeds and the sea-otter of the Pacific coast. He has added somewhat to the previously known details respecting some of these species, but has been by no means as fortunate as in respect to the cetaceans. In his work is, however, for the first time, given a figure of the Californian sea-elephant (*Macrorhinus angustirostris*), and his previous account of it is reproduced with slight modifications. The great interest attached to these forms is

* 'The Marine Mammals of the Northwestern Coast of North America, Described and Illustrated; together with an Account of the American Whale Fishery. By Charles M. Scammon, Captain U. S. Revenue Marine.' San Francisco: John H. Carmany & Co. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874. 4to.

'Report on the Prybilov Group or Seal Islands of Alaska. By Henry W. Elliott, Assistant Agent Treasury Department.' Washington: Government Printing Office. 1873. 4to.

evidenced by the large number of publications respecting them which have emanated from the press within the last few years. It must be distinctly understood that Captain Scammon's work is only full in respect to the species of this group found in California, several other forms being inhabitants of the northwest regions. The author's statements must convey an erroneous idea respecting the relations of the several animals. The northern fur-seal, for instance, is very different from the fur-seals of the southern hemisphere, and is alone entitled to the name *Callirhinus ursinus*. Under the name sea-lion are also confounded two very distinct species, it now appears, and to Mr. Elliott is due the credit of having first pointed out the difference in external appearance; one of these is the great sea-lion common also in the northern seas (*Eumetopias Stelleri*), and the other a smaller species (*Zalophus Gilliespii*) which appears to be common to the temperate regions of Western America and Eastern Asia (Japan, etc.), but not to advance northwards. Still more, this *Zalophus Gilliespii*, of which till very lately only a single skull was known to be extant in this country, turns out to be the "sea-lion" that has been on exhibition in collections of living animals in this country, and notably Barnum's and Woodward's, and which were obtained in California. But, strangely enough, all the skeletons and skulls hitherto sent from California to museums in this country and Europe (and they have been many) belong to the larger species. This *Zalophus* may be readily distinguished externally from the *Eumetopias* by the much smaller size, the much larger and differently colored eyes, the slender muzzle, the darker color, and the voice which, according to Mr. Elliott, is a "honking" bark, while that of the *Eumetopias* is "only a deep bass growl and prolonged, steady roar." There are considerable discrepancies between the accounts of Captain Scammon and Mr. Elliott respecting the habits of the fur-seal and sea-lion, and both must be consulted before safe conclusions can be reached. The seals found on the Californian coast are (1) the common one—*Phoca Pealii*—(which may be only a variety of P. vitulina); (2) the sea-elephant—*Macrorhinus angustirostris*—(which is now nearly extinct); (3) a large sea-lion—*Eumetopias Stelleri;* (4) a small sea-lion—*Zalophus Gilliespii;* and (5) the fur-seal—*Callirhinus ursinus*. The ascription of the banded seal (*Histriophoca equestris*) to California is doubtless the result of erroneous identification by Captain Scammon, and the walrus (which, as Mr. Elliott has recognized, is a distinct species from the Greenland animal) has not been found south of Alaska. The sea-otter is a form related to the common otter, and belongs to the same family.

On the whole, Captain Scammon's work is a very valuable one, especially in the illustrations (most of which have been drawn by himself from nature and after exact measurements), and in the biographical accounts of the several species. It is, however, deficient from a scientific standpoint, no precise comparative descriptions being given of the species, and little regard having been observed in the systematic arrangement of the various forms. Attention to these points would have much enhanced the value of the work, and the more so as it is addressed to readers who have not ready means of acquiring the requisite information. Exactness in generalization is indeed a requisite in scientific work, and any publication must lose value to the extent of neglect of such matters. It was, for example, rather culpable to have given the sequence adopted for the species of Pinnipeds, in which the several forms follow in arbitrary confusion, and in which the sea-otter (which is structurally a modified weasel, and has no near relation to the Pinnipeds) is interposed between the common seal and the walrus. Notwithstanding such faults, however, our author's work marks an epoch in cetology, and will be a standard one in the history of that branch.

Mr. Elliott's work is an official report, made by him as an assistant agent of the Treasury Department, printed in a very unofficial and unusual manner, the form externally being an ordinary quarto, while the text extends from the bottom to the top of the form, and is not paged; there are sixteen and a half folios, and fifty plates photographed from original paintings by the author. Much interesting matter respecting the eared seals (as well as the resources of the Prybilov Islands) is contained in it, and it is to be regretted that it is practically unattainable, as an edition of only one hundred copies was printed, which have been distributed where they will be of least use—to those at least who will desire to consult them—and no copy exists even in the National Library.

---

*Dictionary of Practical Phonography.* By James E. Munson. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1875.)—We are much mistaken if the manifest destiny of this work is not to give an appreciable impulse to the study of phonography, not alone nor perhaps chiefly for the purposes of reporting, but for private convenience in the abridgment of literary labor. What, after the conflicting systems and complicated rules of the different teachers of short-hand, has most deterred would-be learners has been the lack of a standard by which to revise their transcriptions. An instructor, of course, could do this, but he is not always to be had, and must be paid when he is. Those who have aimed, like Mr. Munson, to popularize phonography as an auxiliary, or even as a sole and universal, script, had placed before them the task of making every pupil his own instructor; and this Mr. Munson has, by means of his several works, nearly accomplished. His Dictionary, with its sixty thousand words in familiar use and five thousand proper names, now enables the student to write correctly, or at least to judge of the correctness of what he has written. The reporter's proficiency can of course only come through long and assiduous exercise. The practical difficulties of a dictionary have been satisfactorily overcome by Mr. Munson, who has devised a stenographic representation capable of being at once transcribed into phonographic characters. *Perfidiousness*, for example, is thus outlined: Pr$^3$-F-Ds-Ns; *peninsulate*, Pn$^3$-N-*SH*$^1$-T, or Pn$^3$-N-s*Lt*; *ligation*, *L*$^2$-Gshn; *faux pas*, F$^2$-P; *smart-money*, sM-Rt$^1$-M-N, etc., etc. The compactness of this system is manifest, and in fact the vocabulary is contained in 328 pages of good, clear type. The preface furnishes interesting reading. It gives a history of the invention and gradual perfection of phonography, compares other schools with that which is identified with the author, and sets forth the signs and abbreviations on which the author's system is based, and the mode of interpreting their stenographic equivalents. The "new Phonography," as Mr. Munson styles it, is "now being taught with success in many schools, and notably in the Introductory Class in the College of the City of New York, where it has been a regular branch of the commercial course for the last three years (since the fall of 1871)." We hope that in the second edition of his Dictionary he may be able to point to many other instances of its adoption in schools. A primer of phonography is perhaps still needed; at least very young children might master the simple stems and hooks, and the outlines of a selected vocabulary.

---

*Manual of Mythology:* Greek and Roman, Norse and Old German, Hindoo and Egyptian Mythology. By Alexander S. Murray, Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities, British Museum. Second edition, rewritten, and considerably enlarged. With fifty-five plates. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)—So far as Grecian mythology is concerned, Mr. Murray's 'Manual' is nearly all that could be desired. It is brief, and at the same time complete—we have looked for very few names, even of inferior importance, without finding them—clearly written, and, in the main, well arranged. As to the point of view, it follows the prevailing system of spelling (Hephaistos, Herakles, etc.), and gives as much of the now accepted theory of mythology as it is worth while to present to schoolboys. The index appears complete, but is not very convenient for use. A really good index ought not merely to state every place where a name is to be found, but to distinguish them in some way, if only by indicating where it is a principal topic and where it is only incidentally mentioned. The common run of school-boys, looking out "Iphigeneia," for instance, and finding five different pages referred to, can hardly be expected to turn to three out of the five before finding the complete story looked for. Good as the book is, however, for Greek mythology, as well as for Eastern and Northern, for Roman mythology it is almost worthless. The author seems to know enough of the Roman gods to avoid using their names for Greek divinities, but not enough to realize in the slightest degree the contrast between the religious systems of the Greeks and the Romans. The very title of the book confounds the two. Not only is there no attempt, or but a very lame one, to analyze and explain the points of difference between them, but the Roman mythology, so far as it is introduced at all, is treated in the most slipshod and inaccurate way. Generally, a paragraph at the end of each section is devoted to the Roman counterpart of the Greek god. Some, times this answers very well in detail, as in the case of Juno, Neptune, Vulcan, and Mars. Even at the best, however, this method conveys no adequate notice of the Roman religion as a whole, and in several cases it gives a positively wrong impression. It is, for instance, a mere accident—the identity of the sickle as an attribute—that connected Saturn with Kronos; and there is hardly more connection between Venus and Aphrodite, Diana and Artemis, Liber and Dionysos, Mercury and Hermes. Of Diana the astounding assertion is made (p. 116) that her worship "appears to have been of native growth, and not, as was the case with that of many of the other deities, imported from Greece"—as if nearly every deity except Apollo and Bacchus was not native, although buried beneath the attributes and traditions of their Grecian counterparts. What Roman deities should be described seems to have been a matter of haphazard. Janus receives quite adequate treatment, although he is classed among the "Inferior

Deities"; but there is not a word of Quirinus, Consus, Feronia, Bona Dea, Dius Fidius, or Mater Matuta—deities quite as important, in the native Roman Pantheon, as Ceres, Liber, Mercury, or Venus; and Flora, so ancient and important a goddess that she had a flamen of her own, is only brought in as corresponding to the Greek Chloris. And what is strangest of all is the order of these "Inferior Deities," Greek and Roman being mixed together utterly at random—Pan, Faunus, Picus, Fauna, the Satyrs, Silvanus, Pales, Silenos, Okeanos, Nereus, etc.

The illustrations are, generally, selected with good judgment, so as to make the student familiar with some of the best and most instructive specimens of ancient art—such as the Jupiter of Otricoli, the Ludovisi Juno, the Diana of Versailles, and the Venus of Milo. The engraving is effective, although not always sufficiently clear and delicate. It is a great defect that the authority for each figure is not distinctly given. A valuable feature is, that at the end of the several divisions is "added, in smaller type, an account of the most memorable works of art in which each deity is, or was, represented."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* | |
|---|---|---|
| Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of J. Q. Adams. Vol. IV. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Alberger (J.), Antiquity of Christianity, swd. | (C. P. Somerby & Co.) | 0 35 |
| Allen (J. H.) and Greenough (J. B.), Method of Instruction in Latin. | (Ginn Bros.) | |
| Brush (Prof. G. J.), Manual of Determinative Mineralogy. | (John Wiley & Son.) | 3 00 |
| Burckett (Florence), Wildmore: A Tale. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Calderwood (Prof.), On Teaching: Its Ends and Means. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons.) | 1 25 |
| Chomet (Dr. H.), Influence of Music on Health and Life. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons.) | 1 25 |
| Cooper (A. R.), The Cultivation of Art, swd. | (C. P. Somerby & Co.) | 0 25 |
| Day (Rev. L. B.), Govinda Sámanta: A Tale, swd. | (Macmillan & Co.) | 1 00 |
| Dickens (C.), A Tale of Two Cities. | (Harper & Bros.) | |
| Doherty (Dr. H.), Philosophy of History and Social Evolution. | (John Wiley & Son.) | |
| Farjeon (B. L.), At the Sign of the Silver Flagon, swd. | (Harper & Bros.) | 0 40 |
| Gerard (J. W.), The Old Streets of New York under the Dutch, swd. | (F. B. Patterson) | |
| Graham (F. T.), Reasonable Elocution. | (A. S. Barnes & Co.) | 1 25 |
| Greville (C. C. F.), Journal of Reigns of George IV. and William IV., 2 vols. | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Greville Memoirs: Bric-a-Brac Series. | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) | 1 50 |
| Higginson (T. W.), Young Folks' History of the United States. | (Lee & Shepard) | |
| L'Art, Vol. I., No. 1., swd. | (F. W. Christern.) | |
| Lang (Rev. J. D.), Historical and Statistical Account of New South Wales, 2 vols. | (Sampson Low & Co.) | |
| Lewis (R.), History of the Life-Boat. | (Macmillan & Co.) | 1 75 |
| Lieber (Dr. F.), Political Ethics, 2 vols. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Macquoid (Mrs. K. S.), My Story, swd. | (D. Appleton & Co.) | 1 00 |

# Fine Arts.

## THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION—LOAN EXHIBITION OF THE UNION LEAGUE.

THE eighth exhibition of the American Society of Painters in Water-Colors opened on Monday, the Academy rooms being lined to repletion with the works. The walls, covered with the small, even, low-relief frames usual for water-colors, looked beautifully regular and dense; much better, as regards the becomingness of their furniture, than they do in an exhibition of oil-color pictures. But we have never been able to comprehend the reason why aquarelles, as if by a necessity of their being, must be framed in bas-relief and with vast flat mats. We have never understood why the coast-scene of Hoguet, say, or Kuwasseg, when executed in oil, must be thrown back in a very deep frame, with the look, if it is small, of being seen at the end of a sort of golden tunnel; while the same scene, if we suppose it copied in water-color with exactly the like chiaroscuro and value, must be thrown up to an entirely different focus, surrounded with the flattest of slats, and blind-haltered with a blazing space of raw white all around it, somewhat suggesting in the whole arrangement the iris of a near-sighted eye. We suppose that it would be heterodox not to submit, since our native Water-Color Society has raised the theory to the sanctity of a dogma in its recent circulars of instruction; but we feel, retaining pensively the right of private judgment, that each picture an artist paints is a rule unto itself and unto its arrangement; that the frame should express the necessity, the proper relief, and, as it were, the complement of each separate *motif* the painter completes; that the framing should cap the picture with all the individuality and liberty of a dress on a beautiful human being; and that there can hardly be a more fatal criterion of the dull, uninventive *moutonnière* spirit of all of us—artists, buyers, and professors—than a ruling which trims the pictures in our parlors in a fixed and wholesale style, primarily dictated by the chisels and gouges of the moulding-maker. In our opinion, the utmost latitude should be allowed for the caprice of artists and for the prejudices of connoisseurs: many of the latter hate margins, and frame their Callot or their Kaulbach without any edge at all; and there is no reason why they may not be quite right. Charles Lamb doubtless loved the narrow black frames around his line of Hogarths, and would have been distressed to see them decked off in another taste. The liberty of perfect adaptation should, in fact, be allowed to every sort and description of cartoon or paper picture—a species which includes the widest variety of all and the greatest ups and downs of effect.

The present exhibition represents the eighth year of the Society's existence, and displays surprising strength for so young an organization. They have been going on for these fifty months in a mission of propagandism, with a good deal of sacred crusading zeal, and at each yearly exhibition they display a new flock of converts, plucked directly from the ranks of oil-painting. It is rather surprising that the artists in oil, accustomed to the ease of a direct, *heurtée* touch, can generally adapt themselves so soon to aquarelle, which is usually a method of floatings and washings, of wet and rotting substance, and of gradations obtained by a system of repeated glazes, apt to be fatal to outline and precision. The landscape artists are of course the most successful. The exhibition contains a varied and delicate selection of beautiful scenes, by artists so favorably known as Richards, Nicoll, and Bricher, Edward Moran, Smillie, Bellows. The figure-paintings, however, are by no means wanting, and include such noticeable works as the Shaksperian subject by Fredericks, the pastoral by Magrath, the compositions of Mrs. Stillman and Mrs. Elizabeth Murray, and the abundant and always healthful work in this line of Mr. Homer. Noticeable, again, and always comely and becoming in a water-color exhibition, are the numerous decorative pictures, such as those of Miss Fidelia Bridges, where the composition, at first sight as purely and elegantly decorative as a good wall-paper design or a Japanese fan, is invariably found to contain some sentiment, lesson, or poem; or the delicious flower-groups of Mr. Lambdin. Aquarelle is a method of art which goes to the adornment of homes, and it partakes largely of the spirit of a decoration or object of furniture; it is more agreeable in proportion as it frankly confesses this quality, leaving to oil the manufacture of great gallery pictures and pieces of didactic authority.

A rather unusual grouping of valuable paintings was observable in the hanging of the picture-gallery of the Union League for a reception last week. There were lent for the occasion a magnificent work by Fortuny, the "Snake-Charmers"; two Gérômes, the "Crucifixion" and the "Molière and Racine"; a large and typical specimen of Stevens, representing girls after a ball; the crowd of dwarfs by Zamacoïs, called the "Louvre under Henri III."; a Meissonier, very striking, and containing the unusual element of a female figure; a spiritual piece of Germanism by Max; and several other memorable pictures. The most valuable loans were made by Mr. A. T. Stewart.

*MESSRS. HENRY HOLT & CO.* have just ready a summary of African travel, compiled from the authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone, by C. H. Jones, and elaborately illustrated (8vo, $5); a second and thoroughly revised edition of Professor Adams's 'Democracy and Monarchy in France' (8vo, $2 50); and 'Mistress Judith,' a novel by C. C. Fraser-Tytler, which has been highly praised (16mo, Leisure-Hour Series, $1 25). They will very soon publish Sir Henry Maine's 'Early History of Institutions,' a continuation of the investigations begun in his 'Ancient Law.'

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.*

A few views (by the autotype process) of the principal monuments of the Acropolis. Remarkably fine. Size, 15⅛ x 19⅛. Unmounted. Price $5 each. Address Publisher of the *Nation*.

*For "The Reader" on Sidgwick's 'Methods of Ethics,' Jardine's 'Psychology,' etc., and for Macmillan & Co.'s List of Books on Moral and Mental Philosophy, see page 86.*

*THE FINANCIAL REVIEW.*

This annual book gives a complete review of the year 1874 and a record of prices, as follows: Gold, 1862–1874; Foreign Exchange, 1867–1874; Government Securities, 1860–1874; State Bonds, 1860–1874; Railroad Bonds, 1860–1874; Railroad Stocks, 1860–1874. A list of railroads in default; dividend-paying railroads; land grants of the U. S.; mercantile failures in 1874; cotton crop report; cotton spinning; and other valuable articles, are among its contents.

WILLIAM B. DANA & CO., Publishers, 79 and 81 William St., New York.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1875.*

## The Week.

ON the 3d in the Senate, perhaps the most noticeable proceedings, in view of the tone of the President's message subsequently, were those relating to the resolution of enquiry as to Arkansas introduced by Mr. Clayton. The point to be remarked is, that the resolution, as it originally stood, called upon the President not only for information but "for such recommendations as he may deem proper," but on objection being made by Mr. Johnston of Virginia, who reminded Mr. Clayton that it was not usual to call upon the President for recommendations, he consented that this part of the resolution should be struck out, and it was struck out. The Grasshopper Bill passed by the House (a very queer bill, directing the President to distribute supplies to the sufferers) was referred to the Senate Military Committee; and Mr. Morrill of Vermont made a speech against the Canadian Reciprocity Treaty. In the House, on the same day, the Civil-Rights Bill made its appearance in charge of General Butler. There was a difficulty during the debate between Mr. McLean of Texas and General Butler, the latter referring to a certain class of people in the South as "banditti, horse-thieves, and assassins," and the former replying by saying that "the gentleman from Massachusetts was the only murderer that he knew on the floor"; the Speaker interfered, however, and preserved order. On the next day, in the Senate, Mr. Morton brought up the question of Presidential Elections in a new form, by moving an amendment to the twenty-second joint rule of the two Houses in the following form: "No objection to the reception and counting of any electoral vote or votes from any State shall be valid, unless such objection is sustained by the affirmative vote of the two Houses." In the discussion which followed, Mr. Morton said that there was no chance of the adoption of his constitutional amendment before the next Presidential election; but under the rule as it now stands any State might be thrown out by either House of Congress.

In the House on Thursday the Civil-Rights Bill discussion continued, and the session was enlivened by a speech of Mr. John Young Brown of Kentucky, who, it must be confessed, was decidedly unparliamentary in his language, and who was finally arraigned at the bar of the House and censured for his conduct. The House also agreed to the report of the Committee on Naval Affairs, acquitting Mr. Stowell of Virginia of having sold a cadetship. On Friday the death of Senator Buckingham of Connecticut was announced, and the customary proceedings of respect were voted. In the House the Civil-Rights Bill was passed with the school clause stricken out, and applying now only to inns, public conveyances, and places of amusement, by a yea-and-nay vote of a hundred and sixty-two to one hundred, and the bill went to the Senate as an original House bill, without any relation to the Senate bill already passed. In the Senate, on Saturday, Mr. Morton reported from the Committee on Privileges and Elections a bill to regulate the counting of Presidential votes, and the House bill to protect life on board steam-vessels was debated. On Monday, Mr. Morton reported from the Committee on Privileges and Elections a resolution declaring Mr. P. B. S. Pinchback entitled to a seat as senator from Louisiana. The report is only signed by four members of the committee, but it is presented as the committee's report, five making a quorum, and four a majority of that five.

The new rule adopted by the majority in the House of Representatives is not in itself very objectionable, yet to get it into its present shape was perhaps worth the filibustering resorted to by the Democrats. If, however, they had fought the proposed change by arguments, invective, or entreaty and prediction, they would not only have done all that duty required, but have done the very best thing for the interests of their own party. The main objection to the change in the rules is that the experience of many years is on the side of the old one, and that, if rules are to be changed, they ought to be changed in quiet times and in the general interest. This change has, however, been made in very exciting times, and avowedly as a weapon of party warfare. If it is allowed to stand in the next Congress, therefore, it will be in order that it may be used as a means of harassing or oppressing the minority, and thus of producing renewed disorders in the House. We are clipping out from Republican papers the passages in which they now approve of the new rule and of the manner of its adoption. We shall reproduce some of them this time next year, and think they will then prove amusing reading, by showing what is so often shown, and apparently with so little effect, the difference it makes whose ox is gored.

The prominent part played by Butler in pushing through the Civil-Rights Bill of course led to a great deal of violence in the debates, and to one very disorderly and yet very comic scene. A member from Kentucky, Mr. Brown, delivered himself of one of those elaborate pieces of vituperation, which the newspapers call "scathing," and which was plainly directed against Butler. Being asked, however, by the Speaker, whether it was aimed at any member of the House, the orator denied it, but closed by mentioning "Butlerism" as the object of his attack, which showed, as the Speaker rightly held, that he had secured himself against interruption by a piece of discreditable evasion. Thereupon there was a scene of wild excitement, which had, however, its ludicrous side, for in it Mr. Dawes, of all men in the world, appeared in the character of a stern, implacable, and resolute moralist, and apparently made every preparation to sell his own life dearly, for he said it reminded him of the old days when members had to form a hollow square in front of the Speaker's chair in order to secure freedom of speech. Inspired by these memories, and having the whole House at his back, he determined to slay Brown incontinently, and moved his expulsion, and was with difficulty appeased by having the wretched man censured by the Speaker. The absurdity of the affair was increased by the fact that Mr. Dawes, and every other old member of the House, remembered many encounters between Republicans since the war fully as discreditable, and some of the wicked Democrats insisted on having the reports of some of them read. In not one of them, however, was the vituperation nearly as justifiable as in Brown's case. He said little more of Butler than what every honorable man in the House and in the country thinks. The Chairman of the Republican National Committee has, indeed, pronounced the old "statesman" compendiously "a liar and a blackguard," but we think Butler ought to be, though of course he will not be, followed into his retirement by some formal expression of the reprobation which the great body of his colleagues undoubtedly feel. The party which has used him for so many years owes something of this kind to the morality of the country, which it has allowed him to outrage, and to the youth of the country, whom his political success has helped to debauch. Let us say to Mr. Dawes, that one-tenth part of the wrath excited in him by Brown's blatherskite, and one-fiftieth part of the courageous virtue which he displayed in calling for Brown's punishment, would, if displayed on several really serious occasions, have done him some credit, and the cause of honest government much service; but when these occasions came there was no more fight in him than in a sucking dove.

A plan of compromise has been got up in Louisiana by the Congressional Committee in the form of a contract, treaty, or protocol between foreign states. On the one side the memorandum pledges

the Conservative claimants of seats in the Louisiana House and Senate to submit their claims to George F. Hoar, William A. Wheeler, William P. Frye, and Samuel S. Marshall, and to abide by their award; binds any Conservative claimant to whom George F. Hoar, William A. Wheeler, William P. Frye, and Samuel S. Marshall may give a seat, as well as all other members and senators who sign the document, vulgarly speaking, to "put the thing through" by the adoption of a joint resolution pledging every one, first, to recognize and support Kellogg; second, to abide by the award of George F. Hoar, William A. Wheeler, William P. Frye, and Samuel S. Marshall as to the distribution of seats. This compromise would give the Conservatives a majority of about ten in the House, and that party held a caucus, and at first voted to adopt the plan. Against this action Wiltz and McEnery protested, and it was rescinded, and a mass-meeting was afterwards held denouncing the compromise, and a resolution was passed reminding the Conservative senators and representatives that they were elected by the people to represent them in the Louisiana Legislature, and that no authority whatever has been given them to make any contract of the sort proposed which could be binding on the people.

In this they are undoubtedly quite right; but their error seems to arise from the mistaken notion that it is popular government which the State of Louisiana enjoys. The people have nothing to do with the government in Louisiana. They may hold mass-meetings and pass resolutions, but the government is just now in the hands of Messrs. George F. Hoar, William A. Wheeler, William P. Frye, Samuel S. Marshall, and William Pitt Kellogg. A little while ago it was in the hands of Messrs. Foster, Phelps, and Potter, but they declined to do anything with it except make a report, and General De Trobriand kept it for a few days. Before that it was, according to General Grant, in the possession of Congress, and, according to the Attorney-General, in the possession of Grant, but the people of Louisiana have nothing to do with it. Besides their protocol, Mr. Hoar's committee have examined a good many witnesses, some of whom show a disposition to testify to the wrong kind of intimidation (*i.e.*, intimidation of Democrats by Republicans), which we endeavored to explain last week. There is one thing about the evidence taken in Louisiana which is encouraging: that there is at least plenty of it. It may be worth little or nothing, but will, according to estimates carefully made, in bulk go far beyond any testimony ever taken by a Congressional Committee of Enquiry. Besides this, when the Committee come back and report, as Messrs. Phelps, Foster, and Potter did, there is nothing to prevent Congress going down in committee of the whole, to get a little additional light, and then, when Congress comes back, we might all go down in a body, and stay there till we found out the real facts about this perplexing business, so as to remove all doubts and finally settle the thing.

The Committee of the House appointed to enquire whether the government of the State of Arkansas was republican, monarchical, or aristocratic in form, has made its report, and finds that the new constitution is republican and in many ways better than the old one, and was adopted by, and is satisfactory to, a majority of the voters of the State; that the condition of the State has been as peaceful since the adoption of the new constitution as it ever was; and that "the mass of people on both sides are inclined to peace and good government," though there are among them turbulent young men who do, now and then, "invade the rights of colored men"; but that, on the whole, the state of things in Arkansas is very much like that of the other Cotton States the control of which has passed into the hands of the class which ruled before the war; that the committee cannot find any solid ground on which to recommend the interference of the General Government; that the principle is now well established that, whatever defects of form there may be in the manner of submitting a constitution to the people, they are cured by the popular ratification, and that "the people of every State have the right to make their own constitution to suit themselves, provided it be republican in form and in harmony with the Constitution of the United States." The majority of the committee—Messrs. Poland, Scudder, Sayler, and Sloss—therefore decline to make any recommendation with regard to Arkansas; and Mr. Ward, of Illinois, makes a minority report, in the form of a resolution, in which he finds that Brooks, who was elected to the office of governor in 1872, is entitled to retain it until 1877, no matter what the majority may say, and was ousted by force, and is still the lawful governor of the State.

The President, however, was by no means troubled by this deliverance, and evidently believes that he knows more about the Arkansas matter by mere insight than any committee. Accordingly, on Monday, the day after the committee had presented their report, he sent a message to Congress which seems to have startled even the best friends of the Administration. In it "he ventures to express the opinion" that Brooks was lawfully elected governor in 1872; that the constitution under which he was elected was overthrown by "violence, intimidation, and revolutionary proceedings"; that "if these proceedings are permitted to stand," minorities are left without protection in all the States, and that the other Southern States may also "change their constitutions and violate their pledges"; that the precedent is dangerous to the stability of the State government, if not of the National Government; and he begs Congress "to take definite action in the matter." This extraordinary document, on which we have commented elsewhere, appears to have been prepared without consultation with the Cabinet, and bears every mark of the instigation of Clayton, McClure, Brooks, and the other members of the Arkansas carpet-bag lobby. It has taken Congress by surprise; but it is all but certain that no definite action "will be taken," and that if the Executive wishes to overturn the existing State government he will have to do it himself, in which case it will be the solemn duty of the next Congress "to take definite action" in his own case when it meets in December. In fact, unless something is done to clear his mind with regard to his relations to the State governments, it would be but decent to give him the title of "Lord Protector" at once. The functions with which he now apparently considers himself charged are not those of the officer known as President of the United States.

The *Tribune* has published during the past week several documents of interest in relation to the Emma Mine and those connected with it. The first of these is the complaint in the case of the English stockholders against Park, Stewart, and Baxter, and the other is General Schenck's little book on poker. The General has written a letter to a complaining friend explaining the facts. He says that the story that he wrote and published a treatise on the game is an infamous fabrication. The real fact was that he was staying at a pleasant English country house, where the family amused themselves by playing cards, and, following the British custom, they played for pennies and sixpences—the limit of bets is not stated. Here it suddenly came out in the course of a light and agreeable conversation that the General understood the American game of poker, and he was requested to explain its mysteries to the company. This he very obligingly did, and at the request of the lady of the house finally reduced to writing the rules of the game. Somebody else went off and printed it on a "private printing-press"; and this is the foundation for the whole story. The main charge about General Schenck, however, in connection with poker is not, as has been said, that he is a professional gambler but that the honor and dignity of this country abroad are not well represented by a politician who is best known socially as a master of a low and demoralizing form of amusement, which principally requires for success, not skill, patience, and a good memory, but, as General Schenck elegantly expresses it in his little treatise, "plenty of cheek."

The complaint of the English stockholders lays great stress on the connection between the swindle and the reports of

Professor Silliman, making the same charge against him that was made by Mr. Paffard in the pamphlet a résumé of which we published some time ago, the chief charge being that he allowed himself to be improperly influenced, and in a measure connived at the swindle, with the understanding that he should receive five thousand dollars in any case, and forty-five thousand more if his report should be of the right sort. Mr. Silliman has written to the *Tribune* flatly denying all these charges, and expressing the hope that the action may be pushed to a trial, and his character thus be vindicated, at as early a date as possible. The Boston *Advertiser*, in copying this letter, intimates that Mr. Silliman is unfortunate as to charges. These same matters have been made the occasion of an accusation against him in the National Academy of Sciences, and also in the American Academy, and, though no definite action has been taken, Professor Silliman "has suffered much in his scientific reputation in consequence of these and similar reports to his prejudice." His friends, as well as those of Park, Baxter, Stewart, and Schenck, must be gratified that they all have an opportunity at last of satisfactorily explaining their connection with the mine.

The defeat of Mr. Carpenter in Wisconsin, to which his position in the Senate gives national importance, was due to one of those combinations between Democrats and right-minded Republicans by which so many other Republican defeats have been wrought during the past year. Eighteen of the Republican members of the State Legislature refused to go into the caucus which nominated him, and steadily refused to vote for him at the election, on grounds which they set out in a printed circular—viz., that they were either formally pledged at their election to oppose him or it was understood that they would do so. Inasmuch as the platform of the party at the late State election denounced among other things the Crédit Mobilier and the Salary Grab, both of which Carpenter had defended, they held that these resolutions operated as a dismissal of him from office, and acted accordingly. Moreover, they found on coming to Milwaukee that the majority of the committee appointed to call caucuses were composed of Mr. Carpenter's friends, who put off summoning the caucus until there had been time to summon a "tremendous lobby, composed in large part of minor Federal appointees, as well as several distinguished citizens in high official position." The result was the election of Mr. Cameron, a man of high character and at least fair abilities, and a Republican whom the Democrats declared their willingness to accept on a hard-money platform. What is most remarkable in the course of the anti-Carpenter Republicans is that it is a formal acknowledgment, and the first we have had for a good while, that the party is really bound in its action by the declaration of principles and policy contained in its platform. For some years back the Republicans have treated their platform as a literary essay which imposed no obligation on anybody, and have every year nominated and supported candidates for office who were the vehement opponents of its leading doctrines.

Carpenter's defeat is in some ways to be regretted. He was able, and on some questions now pending—Louisiana, for instance—was more clear-headed than most of his colleagues. But he was none the less a dangerous person, and was a prominent member of the class whom it behooves us, at all cost, just now to get out of public life—the glib, dextrous, unscrupulous, impudent, shameless, greedy, coarse class, which has become large and powerful since the war, to which politics furnishes simply a means of making some money and securing excitement, and which, by its influence over the weak, goody class, is every year dragging the Government into deeper degradation. Carpenter was a genuine Butlerite—not the worst of his kind, but still bad. He enjoyed life on its sensual side, cared nothing about character, liked money and was not particular as to how he got it, as his relations with Kellogg showed, and was, in fact, a kind of person whose presence in the Senate is a disgrace as well as a danger. To be rid of him and Mr. Chandler would be a great gain, even if they were not replaced by men as respectable as Messrs. Christiancy and Cameron. These two defeats are calling the attention of the party still more forcibly than ever to the increasing gloominess of its prospects. The Democrats will have a clear majority of 70 in the next House, and the comfort which it was at first thought could be extracted from the composition of the Senate begins to fade. Of the 25 Senators whose terms expire in March, 17 are friends of the Administration, and 19 of their successors will almost certainly belong to the Opposition; so that the Administration will in the next Senate probably have only 41 votes against 33, and in these times, when the hearts of good Republicans are failing them for fear, a majority of eight is a very slender reliance.

English politicians have been occupied with the selection of a successor in the House of Commons for Mr. Gladstone, and the choice has fallen on the Marquis of Hartington, whose qualifications for the place our London correspondent sketched some weeks ago. The *Economist* made to him in advance the very weighty objection that as Lord Granville was to be the leader in the upper house, it was very undesirable to take the leader of the lower house from the highest and most aristocratic class also. The Commons, in fact, nowadays need to be led by some one who is in complete sympathy with the bulk of its members, which a man of the Marquis of Hartington's position can hardly be said to be. Mr. Forster is thrown out by his having offended so many Liberals by his Education Bill, but the rejection of him on this score is regretted by the most far-seeing men of the party. Mr. Gladstone, beyond doubt, will give himself up largely to literature and theology, and will probably figure prominently for a few years as a writer of pamphlets and reviews. He has addressed to the American public, through Dr. Schaff, the request he has already made to the British public, that people who write him letters in a state of excitement about the Pope will excuse him for not answering them.

The only other topic to which the English press has been devoting itself with any zeal is the case of Rubery *v.* Grant, which has ended in a verdict of £500 for the plaintiff. The *Times* poured forth a burst of indignation over it against Sampson, its guilty city editor; and said that if it had had the smallest conception of his relations with Grant, it would have got rid of him long ago. Sampson then published a letter, saying he was going of his own accord long before this happened, to which the *Times* replied through its solicitor, saying that his dismissal had been resolved on before this affair occurred, as certain correspondence would show. The papers have all discussed the affair from various points of view, but none of them throw much light on it except the *Economist*, which, of course, considering the power that Sampson has had for many years over all new financial schemes, approaches it with much interest, and offers the English morning papers some advice apropos of it which we cannot help condensing for the benefit of our daily contemporaries, none of whom seem to have seen it. We beg also to call the attention of the religious, and especially the deeply religious, press to it:

"(1) To make the situations of those who supply such important intelligence (the money article) so good that they ought to wish to keep them, and are not tempted by poverty to take bribes or to misuse their influence.

"(2) Not only to appoint the best and most trustworthy persons to these situations, but to watch with an incessant attention what is the nature of the intelligence which they bring, and what of that which they do not bring. The last is as necessary to consider as the first. If an influential writer has before him A, B, and C, and if he exposes A and B, but leaves C uncommented on, or puts it among fair speculations without remark, he gives C the command of the market as far as he can.

"Thirdly, the public should learn to follow with less confidence than they sometimes do some of these unknown guides. They should attentively enquire before they invest their money in reliance on assertions, what sort of person it is who makes them, what is his ability to judge, and what his *bona fides*. If they do not do so, they will probably be ruined."

This last rule applies with peculiar force to "Publishers' Departments."

## THE CASE OF ARKANSAS.

As might naturally have been expected, the Arkansas carpet-baggers were encouraged by the success of their brethren in Louisiana in the expectation that the Government might, before the present Congress adjourned, be induced to interfere by force to restore them to the power from which the people of that State had driven them. A powerful lobby of these adventurers, led by Dorsey, Clayton, and Brooks and McClure, have been working might and main ever since last fall to induce Congress or the President to set aside the constitution then adopted and overturn the existing State government elected under it. A committee of the House was appointed under their solicitation to rouse "the sleeping giant," by enquiring whether Arkansas had a "republican form of government," but really to find out whether the constitution submitted by the Baxter legislature to the people, and adopted by an overwhelming majority, had been lawfully submitted and lawfully adopted, and whether it would not be well to upset the existing State organization, and let the carpet-baggers build it up again under the protection of the Department of Justice and the army and navy. The committee has made an excellent report, of which we give a summary elsewhere, finding that though Brooks was rightfully elected, yet that the present constitution had been lawfully adopted, and that the State was peaceful, but making no recommendation. The President has, however, entirely disregarded this report, which has been made after long and careful enquiry, and has sent in a message of the most extraordinary character, denouncing the adoption of the present State constitution as a "revolutionary proceeding," and recommending Congress to interfere forcibly. What makes this performance all the more surprising, not to say alarming, is that the Cabinet had no notice of it, and that even the faithful Williams does not seem to have been apprised of it. One does not need to accept the ill-natured suggestion of the correspondent of the *Tribune*, that the President consulted nobody about the matter except "Boss" Shepherd and General Babcock, in order to see in this last message a striking confirmation of the prediction on which we ventured four weeks ago, that his growing infirmities of temper "would cause a good deal of trouble and anxiety before his term of office expired." By infirmities of temper we meant that intractability, or combativeness, or "ugliness," as one pleases to call it, which, combined with freedom from the traditions of civil life, led him to renominate Shepherd for the governorship of the District the minute Congress had legislated him out of the same office for corruption, and led him to invite Harrington to a party at the White House while this person was on trial for a criminal charge arising out of the operations of the District Ring. He was not very sensitive to public opinion when he took office—successful military men, even when their training is better than his, hardly ever are; and the criticism of one sort or another to which he has been subjected seems to have aroused in him a spirit of sullen defiance of it which we fear promises troublous times when the majority in Congress is no longer friendly to him. If this last message had been intended to show civilians that he did not care two straws for their opinions, it could not have been more effectively drawn, and, indeed, it has a ring of indifference to the usages of civil government, and to the considerations and processes on which political action in constitutional countries is always based, which one can hardly hear without vague alarm.

His course is rendered all the more remarkable by the fact that this Arkansas affair, and especially the validity of Brooks's election, has been already before the General Government, and was passed upon by the President and his Attorney-General with unusual deliberation last year. Baxter, Brooks's opponent, was, be it remembered, counted into office by the State legislature, and Baxter took and held the office for over a year without disturbance. Brooks then suddenly invaded the State-house at the head of an armed force and ejected Baxter, and there followed a state of "war," and an appeal to Washington, pending which the peace was kept by United States troops. The Attorney-General then decided that under the State constitution the legislature had the sole authority to determine contested elections to the governorship, and that, as it had decided at the canvass in favor of Baxter, Baxter was the lawful Governor, and Baxter was accordingly seated in his place by Federal force. Soon after, this same legislature passed an act providing for a Constitutional Convention. The convention was peaceably elected, met, and drew up a constitution, which was submitted to the people, and adopted by an overwhelming majority. The validity of this constitution has been examined and confirmed by a Congressional committee; Judge Jameson has given an opinion that it is as good as any constitution in the country; and there is no pretence that the State is not peaceful and prosperous under it. Nevertheless, in defiance of all this, the President now comes forward and recommends Congress to disregard his own deliberate decision of last May, the opinion of its own committee just rendered, and that of the best lawyers in the country, and authorize him to overthrow the State government and put into the hands of army officers the duty of canvassing the votes, confided to the State legislature by the constitution of 1868, the validity of which nobody has disputed. It would be impossible to comment on all this adequately without using stronger language than it seems as yet desirable to use, and we shall consequently content ourselves with submitting the facts to the calm judgment of our readers.

We have no doubt that the great majority of the American people, without more than a general knowledge of the case, think that the best thing for the President to do about Arkansas is what he is doing about New York; think, in short, he ought to concern himself exactly as much about the legality of Governor Garland's election and the validity of the constitution of Arkansas as he concerns himself about the legality of Governor Tilden's election and the validity of the recent amendments to the constitution of this State. This is plainly the course which his oath of office makes imperative and that public opinion calls for. But we will ask our readers to forgive us for boring them once more with a subject which in another month we hope to quit for ever, while we submit some fresh facts, showing that not only is it the legal duty of the Administration to stop meddling in Arkansas, as in other Southern States, but that expediency and justice of the highest order require it to do so.

Arkansas has not suffered as much from the carpet-bag régime as Louisiana, because it had not, as Louisiana had, a wealthy, complex, commercial society; but it went through the same curious process of spoliation as the other Cotton States—a process which, like the Ring frauds in this city, future historians will find interesting as illustrative of the way in which the machinery and public credit in a modern state can be used by knaves of the lowest class for their own benefit. In 1868, the carpet-baggers everywhere came into power in those States of the South where there was a large negro vote under new constitutions, got up under the superintendence of Congress, and with the aid of the proscription of the persons who had lent aid to the rebellion. In Arkansas, they found a bonded debt of $3,252,401, no floating debt, and a balance of $319,237 in the treasury. In the following six years—that is, before October, 1874, when they were ousted—they had increased the bonded debt, under one pretext or another, by $8,753,444, and had created a floating debt of $1,864,721. Some of the bonds were issued for "public improvements," such as raising levees to protect the rich bottom-lands from the overflow; but there was absolutely nothing done for the money, except the erection of a few buildings, which are valued at about $100,000. In fact, to speak plainly, they imitated the Georgia peculators, and divided the money among themselves.

The exhibit as regarded the State expenses is equally pitiful. The expenses of the State government should not, it is estimated, in a simple agricultural community like Arkansas, exceed $300,000 a year all told. The carpet-baggers, however, actually levied in taxation about $1,100,000 per annum during their six years' reign, or $6,674,511 in all; of this, $515,204 went, during the whole period, to pay interest and keep up the sinking fund, and the rest, or

about $1,026,551 per annum, went for the ordinary expenses of the government. Add to the amount received in taxation during the six years the amount of the floating debt created, and we have a total of $8,539,232 spent by these wretched adventurers in keeping up a kind of caricature of government, with the United States at their back, when a good government ought not to have cost over $1,800,000 for the whole period. In fact, their six years' rule has cost this young State, just emerging from backwoods barbarism, over $17,000,000, and they have actually had the audacity to go to Washington, after having made away with the money, and ask the Government to use the army and navy to put them once more in possession of the treasury they have plundered.

The new State government, which has been elected by the people and is composed of honest men, is now trying to infuse order into the finances. It has not only found the treasury empty, the State credit gone and its bonds unsalable, but has found the revenues anticipated for three years at least by outstanding auditor's warrants and treasurer's certificates, which had been made receivable for all public dues except interest on the public debt.

In order to fund this floating debt, and so obtain control once more of the State revenues, the present government proposes to issue bonds, for which these warrants and certificates shall be receivable, fixing a rate at which they may be sold for cash, the money to be used in taking up the warrants and certificates, and, as part of the contract, pledging the State to levy a special tax every year sufficient to pay the interest on the bonds and create a sinking-fund for their final redemption. The Governor is also authorized to have the lands of the State, except the school lands, sold for the same purpose. We believe that under the new constitution the State has been rapidly reviving. It has been brought into railroad connection with a great market at St. Louis within the last year; and as its natural resources are vast, and the great bulk of the population really sober, honest, and peaceable people, emigration is beginning to find its way in very rapidly, and it is safe to predict for it, as soon as Congress adjourns and all fear of the army and navy is removed, a career of great prosperity. With the growth of industry and of material wealth and the spread of education—for it has now its schools—the manners will undoubtedly improve, and the habits of turbulence bequeathed by slavery and frontier life gradually disappear. The great forces of civilization are nowhere dead among the race which has reclaimed this continent and is now founding a great empire in another wilderness in the Southern seas. It may sometimes seem as if a passing wave of barbarism, like slavery, would overwhelm them; but we shall only have to wait a few years to find them working once more with remorseless and untiring energy, building up prosperity on character and covering liberty with law. The unfortunate condition of the Southern States will seem, a few years hence, but a trifling episode in the history of that majestic progress. The scalawag and carpet-bagger will have followed the slaveholder into the limbo of half-forgotten curiosities, and people will smile over the hallucination by which many of us in this generation are possessed, that it is possible for a few smart attorneys to provide by bill and resolution a governmental substitute for the austere courage which turned the tide of battle at Naseby, and the splendid political sense which has created the American Republic. It will be said of the Republican party, too, which is now passing from the stage of events, that, while it had the rude and fanatical energy which was needed to suppress the rebellion and extinguish slavery, it had neither the wisdom nor the skill nor the foresight to assist the unfortunate communities which the struggle had devastated to build up a new and better civilization on the ruins of the old one, but that it hindered and vexed them in their very first efforts to rise, by maxims and expedients borrowed from the arsenals of ruined monarchies and the dreams of sentimental philanthropists. That the chapter which tells the story of reconstruction should have to follow in American history the chapter which tells the story of the war and of emancipation, is something over which many a generation will blush.

## AN INSTRUCTIVE RETROSPECT.

ANYBODY who will take the trouble to turn to the files of the daily press for the year 1867, and will read in them the reports of the impeachment of Andrew Johnson and the editorial comments on it, will find in them much matter for serious though by no means melancholy reflection. In fact, most of it will, we regret to say, furnish food for exceeding merriment. According to most of the leaders of opinion in the Republican party at that period, the trial of Johnson for high crimes and misdemeanors was the most tremendous legal process ever undertaken by a civilized people since the condemnation of Socrates, and for two reasons. The first was that Johnson's crimes and misdemeanors actually beggared description. They made the nomenclature of criminal jurisprudence seem feeble and trivial. Many of the orators and newspapers tried to give some faint idea of them by calling him "the greatest criminal of this or any other age," which was tantamount to saying that, in order to form a fair estimate of the depths of his guilt, you would have to ransack the history of crime since the first recorded Olympiad, even if you took no count of the iniquities of the antediluvian population. No ancient or modern tyrant or conspirator could, to speak familiarly, hold a candle to him when he was at his worst, and doing the things he most loved. The second reason was, of course, that his retention of the Presidency endangered the existence of the Republic. It was declared boldly that he would probably, if let alone, use the army and navy to overthrow the Government and establish himself as some kind of despot, and repudiate the public debt. It was useless to point out that as Congress was very hostile to him, and as the country stood by Congress, he would probably be worsted at a very early period of an armed struggle—not being himself much of a strategist, and having no resources beyond his farm in Tennessee. The great minds of the party would not hear of his being let alone. Thaddeus Stevens said that his "corrupting of the voters of the nation by seducing them with offers of office and intimidating them by threats of expulsion, was more heinous than that which brought many ancients to the block." As this—viz., the use of the patronage of the Government to reward his own supporters—was the very least of his offences, the gravity of the weightier ones may be imagined.

They accordingly got up a tremendous trial of this Tennesseean Catiline. They had "articles" and "managers of impeachment," and a "high court of impeachment," and an "Apostle John of Salvation by impeachment" in the person of Butler, and a "cold and classical Demosthenes" and a "black-haired Energy," and "a steady Wind blowing aft," in the person of Mr. Boutwell, among the managers; and Butler opened the case in a speech which, one impeachment paper said, "sounded like the screeching of a hundred saws commingled with the rumbling of an artillery carriage across rough pavement," and when he got to some portions of the President's career even his resources failed him, and he threw round the criminal "the mercy of his silence." Boutwell, "the black-haired Energy" of the case, was so overcome by the spectacle of Johnson's crimes that he uttered the wish that the unhappy culprit could be projected into that portion of space in which the astronomers discover a remarkable lack of stars, and which the orator called "the hole in the sky"—this being, in his opinion, the only portion of the universe in which such a wretch could be properly and safely accommodated. Other papers called on the pious people all over the country to offer up prayers to Almighty God for the conviction of the monster and to "burden the mails" with letters to senators begging them to find him guilty, no matter what the law or the evidence might be; and our readers will all remember the coarse and brutal bullying of the minority of the Senate which was practised by a portion of the press and of the politicians, under the lead of the "Apostle John," in order to press them to vote "yes" on some article or other.

Turning to the charges contained in the articles, they have at the short distance of even seven years a very comic air. The Great Criminal had dismissed an officer of his Cabinet who opposed his "policy," and tried to put another man in his place. He had told

the commanding general in Washington that the law directing orders for a change in the disposition of troops to be sent through the general of the army was unconstitutional, and he had made several foolish and violent and abusive speeches about Congress "in a loud voice." These were the whole of his high crimes and misdemeanors. He was not convicted, and he went out of office peacefully, and went back to his village in Tennessee. Ben Wade did not take the Presidential chair in his stead, to be used as the tool of a band of unscrupulous and reckless politicians, and Butler's powers of mischief were not increased, and his great coadjutor, Mr. Boutwell, had to turn to the novel subject of finance to quench the flames of his zeal. In fact, the whole affair passed off like a noisy supper-party, leaving a large number of philosophers and patriots with aching but wiser heads; and now, after seven years' retirement, Johnson comes back to the Senate amidst the good-humored laughter of the people whose ruin he was accused of compassing. There has rarely been a more amusing episode in the history of any people, nor a better illustration of the way in which an incident of really trifling importance can be worked up by the efforts of unscrupulous politicians, supported by unscrupulous newspapers, so as to wear the look of irretrievable disaster.

When Johnson himself now takes up the old articles and reads them his grim features must, in spite of his want of humor, often be lighted up by the broadest of broad grins, and, unless he has in his seven years' retirement lost some of his old fire, he will, when Congress next meets, treat the Senate to a speech in substance somewhat as follows: "I felt when I was under accusation that my enemies were making themselves ridiculous, and that I had done nothing wrong, and that though I was perhaps not one of the greatest or most decorous men who ever sat in the Presidential chair, nevertheless not only was I not the monster that I was painted, but worse men might come after me, and without being prosecuted or denounced. It is true I advocated a plan of reconstruction of which the party did not approve, but it was one which Lincoln devised, and which he, had he lived, would have carried out, and which it is now plain an honest and patriotic man might very well have supported. You have carried out your own plan, and you are actually boasting of its failure, and trying to prove to us every day that it has resulted in leaving the South in the worst possible condition. You confess that it has deprived the negroes of all protection for life or property and has impoverished the whites; and you must admit that a worse result than this mine could not have had. You said I was corrupt; but while I was in office I never accepted a gift, and I never put a relative in any place of trust or profit, or used the public service to promote my private interests or those of my family. I pardoned, doubtless, some very bad criminals, but no criminals of my pardoning ever found their way immediately afterwards into Government offices. I never offered to a prisoner under trial the hospitality of the national mansion in which I lived; nor had I ever the audacity, much as I despised Congress, to nominate for high civil functions a man whom it had just legislated out of office for gross corruption. My views on the national finances may not have been sound in all respects. I had not the advantage of all the discussion which the subject has since undergone, but I put the Treasury in charge of an experienced financier—not of an ordinary politician—who advocated and carried out as long as he was allowed the very policy for which the wisest of you are now striving. The Treasury was never made in my day the headquarters of a ring of informers and peculators, and, though you thought I was regardless of law, I never permitted such a tremendous assumption of power as issue of paper-money for political purposes, by a single man and in defiance of the opinion of a committee of the Senate. Nor did I ever take the funds belonging to the foreign service of the Government from the hands of a great banking-house, and give them to a Wall-Street adventurer with small capital and less credit. It is true I told Emory that the law directing orders to pass through the general of the army was unconstitutional, but I never shelved the general of the army completely and sent orders without any regard to him, nor did any army officer, with my permission, ever interfere with the organization of a State legislature or issue vituperative proclamations directed against whole classes of citizens. Moreover, although I was not successful in bringing our differences with England to a happy termination, I honestly strove for that end as well as I knew how. I selected for the English mission one of the most distinguished lawyers in the country, who had half-a-century of honored private character behind him, and who, though he doubtless was over-gushing in his relations with our enemies, came back without leaving a stain on his name or on that of his country. No speculator or adventurer ever dared to approach him with any scheme for the spoliation of unsuspecting foreigners, and, so far as he was known in the society of the capital to which he was accredited, he was known for learning and ability and for an illustrious professional career; and if he did not conclude a treaty, neither did his successor. I made, it is true, some foolish and vituperative speeches; but you had in Congress plenty of men as foul-mouthed as I, whom you honored or laughed at; and if you expected me to become polished and self-restrained, choice in my language and in my company, you were more exacting toward me than you have been since towards others. My tongue may have been loose, and my temper bad; but I can at least say for myself that the affairs of state were the subjects of which I most loved to talk and think; that for forty years they had been my main interest; and that my own comfort or gratification or enrichment was never allowed to prevent any absorption in them; and that my friendships, such as they were, grew neither out of toys nor lust nor wine, but out of sympathy and agreement about public concerns."

## ENGLAND.—WORKING-CLASS CANDIDATES.

London, January 16, 1875.

IT is curious to notice from time to time how strongly English institutions are influenced by fictions and traditions which have no substance in them, but which nothing short of a revolution would induce English people to change. You find them in all the paths and even the byways of English life, and in every profession and nearly every trade. But, not to dwell upon a subject which might be spun out almost indefinitely, let me take one of the most common and least understood of these fictions, viz., the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds, and explain what it means. If, I suppose, a member of any representative body in any civilized country of the world wishes to cease being a member, and to retire into private life, he sends in his resignation, and there is an end of it. But a member of the British House of Commons cannot resign his seat. He may become disqualified from sitting in that assembly by accepting some place of honor or profit under the crown, or by some other cause, but Parliamentary law does not permit him to resign. If, therefore, a member desires to retire from the House, he must set about and find an office which he can ask, even from his political opponents, without much risk of refusal, and, having got his office, he is disqualified as a member of Parliament from sitting in the House of Commons, and then, by resigning his office, he is at liberty to retire from public life. It seems a roundabout way of doing a simple thing, but it is the only way of doing it. The Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds is the office generally applied for in the circumstances. The Chiltern Hills are in the centre of Buckinghamshire—Mr. Disraeli's county—and Buckinghamshire is perhaps the most benighted county in England. The country people there know all about Hampden, and something about Oliver Cromwell, but about more modern English celebrities they are profoundly ignorant. If you speak to a Buckinghamshire peasant, for instance, about "the Prince," meaning "the Prince of Wales," he gapes at you, and, if he answers at all, will show that his mind, or what for courtesy we will call his mind, is running on Prince Rupert. "Parliament," if it suggests any sort of idea to such a peasant, suggests old traditions which he has heard from his progenitors of the Long Parliament and the Protector. But, however backward the Buckinghamshire rustics may be in the appreciation of modern history, they have their Chiltern Hills, covered still with beautiful beech forests, and in the old days these forests were infested by robbers. To restrain the robbers and to protect the peaceable inhabitants of the neighborhood from their inroads, it was usual for the crown to appoint an officer, who was called the Steward of the Chiltern Hundreds. Though the beech forests remain, the robbers have withdrawn from them to the more perfect seclusion of the slums of East London, and the office is now an ob-

solete sinecure, and but for the secondary object of enabling a member of Parliament to adopt a roundabout way of resigning his seat, it might be abolished to-morrow. But we cling to our fictions, and for the last century and a quarter, whenever a member of the House applies for the Chiltern Hundreds, it is granted (generally, though not invariably), on the understanding that the member instantly resigns it, and, his seat being vacated by his acceptance of office, a new writ is issued for the constituency which he had represented.

This roundabout process has just been gone through by Mr. Melly, the member for Stoke-upon-Trent, a borough among the potteries in Staffordshire, chiefly remarkable for having been at one time represented by Josiah Wedgwood, a descendant of the creator of the celebrated Wedgwood ware. Mr. Melly was a fussy, voluble politician, who will be no great loss to the House of Commons, but the contest for the seat which he has vacated promises to be a not unimportant one in English politics, inasmuch as by it the future attitude of the Liberal party towards what are called "workingmen's candidates" may be decided. Stoke contains a population of about 131,000, and the registered electors number 18,607. It has always been regarded as a Liberal borough, and, with one or two trifling infidelities, it has been generally faithful to that party. So confident were the local Liberals in their strength that they suffered three candidates—two moderate Liberals and a "workingman's candidate"—to stand for the two seats at the late election. The Tories, who are always alive to the chance of stealing a seat, and who have got a party organization infinitely superior to that of their opponents, brought forward one candidate, and secured one seat; the Liberals with their three candidates gaining the other. For the contest that is now impending the "workingman's candidate" has again come forward, and, up to the present time, no other Liberal has been entered. If things therefore remain as they are, there will be a fair fight with no favor between a strong local Tory and a workingman—the latter having been for thirty years a journeyman mason, and having been one of the working masons employed in building the Houses of Parliament. The House of Commons has never been closed against representatives of the working-classes. Before the old Reform Act (not to mention other cases), Orator Hunt of Preston notoriety represented that borough, and contributed more than one criticism, more candid than complimentary, to the Bill of 1831. At the general election which succeeded the passing of the act in 1832, William Cobbett, originally an unlettered private soldier in the army, and of the humblest origin, was elected to represent the borough of Oldham, and during the short time that he was in the House—for he died in 1835—he had earned for himself no small political distinction. From time to time since his death an occasional labor candidate has succeeded in finding his way into what is not unjustly considered "the pleasantest club in the world." But until the passing of Mr. Disraeli's Reform Act in 1867, by which the franchise was lowered to household suffrage, the attempts made by labor-candidates have been fitful and only rarely successful. There was little or no desire on the part of the working-classes to be represented; they had no organization for election purposes; and the race of paid and unpaid agitators for the representation of labor was not in existence. We have changed all that. There is now a "Labor Representation League" with a paid secretary and a squad of paid orators, and a local organization by means of trades-unions in nearly every important borough in the country. The "workingman's candidate" is fast becoming a formidable animal, and the hearts of the wire-pullers of the old Liberal party are failing them for fear when they see the ravages made in the most trusty constituencies by this new candidate for the suffrages of the householders. At the general election, no fewer than nineteen workingmen were put forward in England alone, and, although only two succeeded in securing seats, the success of the Liberal candidate in each constituency where they were put forward was imperilled, and in about half the constituencies thus embarrassed the Tory party gained seats, where, but for the workingman's candidate, they would have had but little chance. The most remarkable instance of Tory success achieved in this way was at Nottingham, where no less than four Liberal candidates stood, and two Tories were returned. Since the general election, the borough of Northampton, which of old was among the staunchest of Liberal constituencies, has been lost to that party and gained by their opponents through the candidature of a Mr. Bradlaugh, who calls himself the workingman's friend; and now there seems every probability that the borough of Stoke-upon-Trent, which has been as the apple of the Liberal whip's eye among boroughs, will be wrested from the Liberal party. Like the patriarch of old, the excellent whip of the party is going about wringing his hands and saying: "Nottingham is not, and Northampton is not, and they are going to take away Stoke-upon-Trent also."

To any one who watches the different phases of English political life, this attitude of the "workingman's candidate" presents some interesting considerations. Mr. Rathbone Greg, in his recent book of sinister augury called 'Rocks Ahead, or the Warnings of Cassandra,' dwells with emphasis on the fact that political power in this country has been taken, by Mr. Disraeli's Reform Act, from the propertied classes and handed over to the proletariat. The wage-earning class in the kingdom who are enfranchised by that act number about five million, against two million which represents the propertied or wage-paying class. Thus it is manifest that, if the proletariat care to do so and will work together, they have the power to return to the House of Commons, not a majority only of our legislators, but almost the entire body. Up to the present time they either do not know their power, or do not care to use it. But they are learning all about it rapidly. Six months ago they thrust their candidate into the field at Northampton, and now they have thrust the other Liberal candidate out of the field at Stoke. At first, this policy can have but one result. It "dishes" (to borrow the late Lord Derby's now hackneyed expression) the moderate and middle-class Liberals, and brings about the return of the Tory candidate. The middle-class electors will not vote for a workingman or a trades-union candidate, many of them being themselves master-tradesmen or small employers, in a state of chronic warfare with the operatives. They will either support the Tory or abstain from voting. In some constituencies the Tory wire-pullers, looking only to the present election and seeing the chance of snatching a victory, are short-sighted enough to favor the overtures of the labor candidate, and even to initiate them, with the view of dividing the Liberal interest. But this is a suicidal policy for the Tory party to adopt. They are the propertied classes in the country, and the more they encourage the proletariat to come to the front, the faster will that class of the community appreciate the full strength of its power. And who will chiefly feel the exercise of that power? Not the middle-class shopkeepers and master-tradesmen and small employers who make up an important section of the Liberal party. It is not material to them, as their earnings and modest fortunes will not excite the cupidity of socialistic agitators. But the great landowners, the old aristocracy, and the wealthy mercantile classes who make up the heart of the Tory party—they are the people who will suffer, and who will have to thank their own too clever wire-pullers for their sufferings. In a small country like England, with a circumscribed territory and an enormous population containing the richest and the poorest human beings in the world, all closely packed in a small island and almost rubbing shoulders with each other, attacks, direct or indirect, on property are sooner or later almost inevitable. It shows a lack of wisdom on the part of the propertied classes to help to hurry on so grave a contingency for the temporary gratification of winning a seat or two in the House of Commons.

There are, as I have said, some among us who look upon this severance of the working-classes from the political party to which they appear naturally to belong as embarrassing, and as another and a serious element in the Liberal disunion of the time. There are others, mainly the few restless, bitter spirits of the Positivist persuasion, represented by Professor Beesly and Mr. Harry Crompton, who hail the severance with joy as tending, no matter how remotely, towards the realization of their spiritual and political aspirations. But the majority, I think, of political observers look with equanimity upon this new departure, and would not be sorry to see a proportion of workingmen in the House of Commons, provided that they were bonâ-fide workingmen (such as Mr. Burt, the member for Morpeth) and not unscrupulous agitators or mere political adventurers. The aristocracy, they consider, have had their day, and the old Reform Act curtailed their privileges by admitting to the legislature the representatives of the middle classes. The middle classes have had their swing during the five-and-thirty years which elapsed between the passing of the two Reform Acts, and now it is only fair that the working-classes should have a turn. Lord Grey's Reform Act did not destroy the influence of the aristocracy. It only clipped their wings, and, arguing on the same analogy, they say that Mr. Disraeli's Reform Act will not destroy the influence of the great middle class. It will only lessen its omnipotence. This seems to me a not unreasonable way of looking at the matter.

P.S.—Since this letter was written, Mr. Gladstone has definitely resigned the leadership of the Opposition, and the newspapers and the clubs are singing a requiem over his political ashes, and are abusing, openly or covertly, those of his own party who have helped to dethrone him. Sir William Harcourt is at this moment the most unpopular man in England, but he will, I dare say, survive his unpopularity, It is a pity to make so much of him. What will be the next paragraph in the Liberal programme it is difficult to say. Lord Granville is the acknowledged leader of the

party, but who will lead in the Commons? Such opinions as I have been able to gather point to something like a Whig revival such as I suggested in my letter of October 29, under Lord Granville in the House of Lords and Lord Hartington in the House of Commons. The political history of the last forty years, if it is to repeat itself, points at something of the kind. After the old Reform Act a strong Radical government, which did great things, was followed in 1841 by a strong Tory government like the present. That was followed by a political lull under the management of the Whigs. Then came the new Reform Act, the late Radical government which did great things, and a strong Tory government which is now in power and likely to remain. If in the ordinary cycle of events we are to have a political lull under Whig management or its modern equivalent, we cannot have better managers than Lord Granville and Lord Hartington. It may, however, be under the Liberal-Conservative management of Lord Derby and Sir Stafford Northcote, but in this case I should anticipate that Lord Salisbury and Mr. Gathorne Hardy would be independent members of their respective Houses, and Sir William Harcourt and not improbably Mr. Lowe would occupy their places in the administration. And though I should not despair of the commonwealth in either of these contingencies, I should be curious to see the permanency of the revival tested when the Radicals are sulky, the working-classes in open hostility, and Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright sitting, not on the front bench but in the body of the House, and candidly criticising the management of affairs.

# Correspondence.

## A DISPUTED RAPHAEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An acquaintance with Mr. Morris Moore, extending over the greater part of a year (1870-71), during which time I enjoyed frequent opportunities for the study of his very beautiful Raphael, the "Apollo and Marsyas," gives me a right to ask for space in your columns to reply to an article on the subject of Mr. Moore and his picture printed in the *Nation* of December 31. You place Mr. Moore's conduct and temper, in the controversy that was raised over his picture, in a very unfavorable light. But, granting that what you say be true, I, for my part, cannot see what a combative temper, and an old-fashioned liking for calling "a spade" "a spade," can possibly have to do with the genuineness of his Raphael or with his merits as a connoisseur. Different people have different ways of meeting assaults upon their characters and efforts to ruin their fortunes; but the list of good men and true who have expressed their feelings toward their enemies in Old-Testament English and in the Old-Testament temper is too long that Mr. Moore need be ashamed to add his name to it. If, however, he should see your notice of him, and should feel the need of a friend to sympathize with him as he reflects upon it, he may perhaps find some comfort in reading, a little further on in the same number of the *Nation*, your opinion of General Butler, whom you call—in English that I, for one, being no prude, do heartily approve—"one of the greatest rascals in the country—a liar, a cheat, and a demagogue." But when you try to put Mr. Moore in an unfavorable light by quoting the rough words he used towards Passavant, Waagen, and the rest of the "honest Germans" whom Prince Albert brought into England and set up in business, to England's great detriment, you leave the impression that Mr. Moore was a wolf, snarling and showing his teeth at a soft flock of gently-bleating German lambs; whereas the truth is they were as rough as he, and repaid him curse for curse, with usury thereto. "Vil menteur," "infame espion," "idiot and liar," cries Mr. Moore. "Libeller," "shameless," "base calumniator," "no lying invention too base," shout, in high German chorus, the lambs aforesaid. "Mr. Moore," however, as you justly observe, "seems to have had a bellicose temper," and the vituperations of his adversaries were the result, no doubt, of their German honesty. But let all this pass. Now that you have borne your testimony, pray allow me to bear mine, and to declare that, while everybody who knows Mr. Moore personally knows that he is a gentleman, accustomed all his life to the society of gentlemen, to which he was born and bred, he is also, not merely, as you charily allow, "a gentleman with some claims to a knowledge of art," but a true connoisseur with, in addition to great natural sensitiveness in art and a trained judgment, a wide and deep acquaintance with Italian art. He has gained this acquaintance in the only way in which it can be gained—not from the depths of his moral consciousness, not from books, though he is a close student, but at first hand, in the course of a long life spent in galleries and churches, not only in Italy—which he knows from end to end—but in England, France, and Germany. He is the most unassuming of men, and will talk about anything with strangers rather than about art. He worships his Raphael, it is true, but he never asked anybody to come and see it—he has denied formally, over his own signature, that he ever asked Passavant to come and visit him or to give his judgment on the "Apollo and Marsyas"—and you might be all day in the room with his pictures, where they stand closely curtained, and never see them unless you asked permission.

Mr. Moore does not need my defence, and perhaps will not thank me for it. Nor would his Raphael need vindication any more than he if he had not brought down official ire on his head by his long, persistent, and partly successful war against Sir Charles Eastlake, who, as Director of the National Gallery, was responsible for the ruinous "cleaning" of the finest pictures in the collection. Mr. Moore twice compelled a Parliamentary enquiry into this matter of the "cleaning," and twice brought about Eastlake's resignation; but, as the protégé of Prince Albert, he was immediately reinstated (an English counterpart of Boss Shepherd and the Court of Claims), and that, too, in spite of remonstrances from men and journals that ought to have been listened to. Eastlake, besides his share in the ruinous picture-cleaning, had wasted the nation's money and lost its opportunities. He had bought for £600 a spurious Holbein, which was found out too late, got rid of at a heavy loss, and the blunder bundled out of sight. He had failed to buy the "Manchester" Michelangelo (always called a "Ghirlandajo," till Mr. Moore, in 1853, declared its true authorship), which was offered him for £500, and which he would not have at any price. It was in the thick of this losing battle of his with Mr. Moore that a double misfortune befell him: first, the discovery by Mr. Moore of this exquisite Raphael, and, on the heels of that, the discovery in the Venice Academy of the original drawing for the picture. The whole force of Government and official lie-power was turned on to prevent people from believing that Mr. Moore had bought a Raphael, at auction, and for a small price. And certainly, if ever lying were justifiable, it was in order now, when there was question of a picture admitted even by "honest Germans" to be "unquestionably a first-rate specimen of the finest period of Italian art," which had been on view for six whole days at Christie's, free in the sight of all London, and seen there by Eastlake himself, who pooh-poohed it and passed it by with "curious," thus adding another to his already fatal list of sins of omission and commission. Led solely by my interest in this picture, and with no personal end in view whatever, I have studied this uncomfortable story from end to end in blue-books, newspapers, and pamphlets, and my own mind is clear that if Passavant, or Waagen, or Eastlake had discovered the "Apollo and Marsyas," it would have been at once awarded its true rank and name, and been lodged in the National Gallery as one of its choicest treasures.

Permit me, too, a word about Passavant. This is not the place in which to show him up fully, but every one who goes to it for information he cannot find elsewhere will learn for himself the value of his absurdly overrated book, the 'Life of Raphael.' For a foot by which to judge this dry-asdust Hercules, take the following bit of independent testimony: Mr. George Edmund Street, the distinguished architect, in his 'Gothic Architecture in Spain' (Preface to Ed. 9, 1869, p. vii.), writes: "Passavant, who has published some notes on Spanish architecture ('Die christliche Kunst in Spanien'), is so ludicrously wrong in most of his statements that it seems probable he trusted to his internal consciousness instead of to personal inspection for his facts." And Mr. Wornum ('Life of Holbein,' p. 50) exposes the ignorant credulity of Passavant and Waagen in another matter. As for the 'Life of Raphael,' it is not, in any true sense, a life at all, but a mere catalogue of Raphael's works, often incomplete, often wanting in essential facts—an ash-heap, where no ember of sympathy with his subject, no spark of perception, no living suggestion, rewards the searcher. The book itself is unsatisfactory enough, but you must permit me to wonder at your remark—"in the English translation published in 1872, no attempt is made by the translator to dispute Passavant's opinion"—that is, the opinion adverse to Raphael's authorship of the "Apollo and Marsyas." This English translation is a mere piece of hack-work made for the Christmas holidays by some person whose name the publisher has not thought it worth while to give, and who evidently knows only enough German to put it into awkward English with the help of grammar and dictionary. The author of this piece of not very creditable job-work doubtless little thought that he would ever be called into court as a witness.

As briefly as I can, I will now take up the remaining points in your article to which I demur. You assert that the picture "was ascribed to Mantegna." For the credit of connoisseurship, I am glad to be able to assert most positively that this manifestly absurd ascription was never made by anybody. For I do not call that an ascription which

comes in such an accidental way as this. The picture belonged to a Mr. Duroveray, who was never "a dealer," I believe, but, if he were, this picture was never offered for sale by him; but, having a particular affection for it, he always kept it hanging in his dining-room. When he died, it was sent to Christie's with his other pictures to be sold. The "Apollo and Marsyas" came to the auctioneer without any artist's name attached to it; but the exigencies of catalogue-making demanded a name, and some one suggested that of "Montagna," an early Italian engraver, remembering, no doubt, his little etching of "Apollo and Marsyas," of which a facsimile may be seen in Ottley's 'Early Italian Prints.' In the MS. of the catalogue, this name was accordingly given to the picture; but between the printer and the proof-reader it was changed in the printed catalogue to the more familar "Mantegna." I have seen a letter from Mr. Christie himself to Mr. Moore, giving this simple explanation, and this is all the foundation there ever was for the statement that the "Apollo and Marsyas" was ascribed to Mantegna.

Nor did Count Cicognara, a justly-esteemed connoisseur, ever attribute the *drawing* in the Venice Academy to Benedetto Montagna. He, too, in examining the collection of drawings, and coming upon this one, remembered that Montagna had engraved the same subject, and, merely as a memorandum, wrote on the margin, "B. Montagna." Only this and nothing more. If, however, Cicognara did intend to attribute this drawing to Montagna, what must be thought of his claims to connoisseurship? Count Henri Delaborde, a good authority, thus disposes of this matter in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July 15, 1858: "Il est au moins vraisemblable qu'en inscrivant le nom du graveur sur le dessin, Cicognara aura voulu noter un souvenir personnel ou indiquer une comparaison à faire entre les deux ouvrages. Comment supposer en effet, qu'un juge aussi expert ait cru reconnaître ici la manière de Montagna, manière bien différente à tous égards, bien éloignée de cette délicatesse et de cette grâce?" We are not left, however, to suppositions. The sub-director of the Academy, M. Andrea Tagliapietra, who was present when Cicognara wrote the name of Montagna on the drawing, has testified that it was merely a memorandum of reference, and M. Francesco Zanotti, who was secretary to the Academy during Cicognara's presidency, has also asserted the same thing.

Let me now select from the mass of testimony for Raphael's authorship, from the list of names that among others contains those of Minardi, Flandrin, Delaborde, Paul Mantz, Steinle, G. B. Cavalcaselle, Marianecci, J. J. Jarvis, W. W. Story, Seymour Kirkup, Cornelius, and Overbeck, the last two, as being Germans, as "honest," no doubt, as Passavant, and certainly as good judges as he of painting. Cornelius writes, "It would have been a piece of the highest good-fortune for art if there had existed another painter equal to Raphael who could have executed such a work as this." And Overbeck exclaims, "We have no need of documents, signatures, sketches, or studies of any sort to assure us that this precious painting, the 'Apollo and Marsyas,' is from the very hand of Raphael himself. In this work the young master cries with a lofty voice to all the world, 'As here Apollo presents himself already sure of the victory over Marsyas, so my genius here exalts itself above all comers, to conquer everything that ever was created in art.'"

As to the question, what is the money-value of this picture, supposing it to be allowed a work of Raphael, I would offer the following considerations. I never heard Mr. Moore say what he would sell the "Apollo and Marsyas" for, nor did I ever hear any of his friends say. In fact, well as I knew Mr. Moore, I never spoke to him on the subject. He is not a dealer, nor ever was, but a poor man living on a small inherited income, and yet rich in the possession of some valuable pictures which his skill as a connoisseur and his intimate knowledge of Italy have enabled him to acquire. He has occasionally sold a picture to raise money, just as Mr. Ruskin sold the "Slave-ship," and is all the time selling Turners and copies of Turner to raise the money when he needs it. But I never heard Mr. Ruskin sneered at as "a dealer," nor insulted as valuing his Turners at *bric-a-brac* prices. I do not believe that Mr. Moore ever tried to sell his picture for 500,000 francs. But, if he did, it is certainly not too high a price. There are few Raphaels more beautiful; none that can now be bought. It belongs to his best time. It contains the most considerable landscape he ever painted—a landscape, to use your own words, "rich, varied, and exquisite." It contains two figures, each full-length. It is in perfect condition, the panel on which it is painted being neither warped nor shrunk nor cracked; and the picture itself has never been touched by the cleaner or the restorer. It is one foot three and a half inches in height by eleven and a half inches wide, exactly the size of Raphael's "Vision of Ezekiel" in the Pitti Palace. These being the facts, compare with it the "Madonna del Libro," formerly the chief treasure of the Connestabile palace in Perugia. This is a little circular picture, seven and a half inches in diameter, about the size of the top of a man's hat. The Virgin is shown at half-length; she holds the Child upon her lap, who is shown in full. There is but little landscape seen. This picture was for a considerable time offered for sale, and when it was bought in 1870 by the Empress of Russia as a birthday gift for her husband, she may be said to have bought it in open market, and to have competed with all the galleries, private collectors, and crowned heads of Europe. Yet she paid for this little piece 330,000 francs. If the "Apollo and Marsyas" be certainly by Raphael, it would seem to be worth at least 220,000 francs more than the "Madonna del Libro," supposing that you are rightly informed as to Mr. Moore's estimate of its money-value.—I am, Sir, respectfully yours,

CLARENCE COOK.

NEW YORK, January, 1875.

---

[We are glad to print Mr. Cook's testimony to the excellence of the little picture which, as we understand, Mr. Moore proposes to offer for sale in America. But we must repeat what we said in our original note concerning it, that there is *no* historical evidence to support the claim that it is the work of Raphael. On the assumption that it was painted by so famous a master, this lack of external evidence and the entire absence of tradition are difficult to account for. The temper of Mr. Moore, as shown in the manner of his assertion and maintenance of his conviction that the picture is by Raphael, is of more importance in the question concerning the authenticity of the work than Mr. Cook allows. It affects the confidence to be placed in Mr. Moore's judgment. The ablest connoisseur, free from all prepossession, is often at fault in the determination, from internal evidence alone, of the author of a work of art. In the present case the bias of possession and the personal interest at stake, both in respect to reputation and to money, must be taken into account. They would weigh for little had Mr. Moore, in the controversy that has been carried on concerning his picture, exhibited a calm and judicial temper. His ill-temper and bad manners have very likely done him wrong; they have certainly done harm to his cause, for the loss of temper by an advocate is apt to be regarded as a sign of his consciousness of the weakness of his case. Our correspondent must pardon us for remarking that the vulgar abuse of a respectable opponent is hardly to be excused on the ground that such phrases as "vil menteur" and "infame espion" are "Old-Testament English." The picture must stand on its own merits. They are doubtless great. An agreement of connoisseurs in respect to its author is not to be expected. The question whether or not it came from the hand of Raphael will remain an open one till evidence of a different sort from any now known to exist is brought forward. We can print nothing more on this subject from any quarter.—ED. NATION.]

---

# Notes.

KNIGHT'S 'American Mechanical Dictionary,' published by subscription by J. B. Ford & Co., and issued in parts, is now in its third volume, and will make about 2,500 pages in all, being completed probably in June. The engravings are most profuse (no less than 4327 up to the word *Rifle*), and none of them superfluous. The author is editor of the Patent Office *Official Gazette*, and has had unusual facilities for becoming acquainted with the achievements of American inventiveness.——Gen. James H. Wilson, writing from London, calls our attention to a typographical error in our necrology for 1874 (p. 10 of No. 497). The name of the late U. S. minister to Bolivia was there given as Gen. John T. *Cuxton*, instead of Gen. John T. Croxton—"a true patriot, a good citizen, an accomplished scholar, and a most gallant soldier, whose merits were only surpassed by his modesty."

—We are informed by Mr. Henry Wallis, who writes from 24 Brecknock Crescent, London, N.W., that the Mantegna photographs have been delayed by the ordinary mechanical difficulties in printing from such large plates by the permanent process, as well as by the very unfavorable light of the present winter season. "During the last four months," says Mr. Wallis, "our photographer has hardly succeeded in finishing as many sets. The one satisfactory thing is that the series makes a splendid work of art. Of

course the decay of the original pictures must be regretted. Still, enough remains adequately to show Mantegna's genius." Due notice will be given American subscribers when the prints are ready for delivery.

—The Philadelphia Board of Public Education have put into practical operation the method of enquiry as to public-school health suggested by Dr. Lincoln, of the American Social Science Association, and urged upon the Board by the Philadelphia Social Science Association. Two circulars have been issued, one addressed to the principals of the public schools in that city ; the other to the local boards of school directors, requesting the appointment of a competent medical man to pursue the investigation of the hygienic conditions of the schools and the scholars. The first is arranged in seventeen questions, bearing upon the number of scholars and their distribution in rooms, the means of ventilation, the arrangement of light, the condition of the eyes of the pupils, the desks and seats in use, the general health of the school, and the average temperature of the rooms. The second is intended to be answered by a physician, and the questions, thirteen in number, are more technical—as to the average number of cubic feet to each pupil, the sensible condition of the air, the sufficiency of light, the system of ventilation, the appearance of the scholars, the kind of desks in use, and the cleanliness of drains, cellars, and privies. If the returns to these circulars are full and complete, the amount of information obtained will be very great, as the city of Philadelphia has four hundred public schools and one hundred thousand pupils. In order to attract attention to this enquiry, the Philadelphia Social Science Association will hold a meeting, at which Dr. Castle, an ophthalmologist of recognized skill, will read a paper on diseases of the eye peculiar to schools, illustrated by diagrams and drawings.

—It is Winnecke's comet and not Encke's, as the Boston papers have it, which has appeared lately in the morning. Encke's comet does not appear in the morning, but after sunset, and will soon be bright enough to be seen with an ordinary telescope ; whereas Winnecke's is so faint, even at its maximum brightness, that fears were entertained by European astronomers that it might not be found at all, even by the most powerful glasses. Fortunately it has been found and observed, as we learn from the Boston *Transcript*, at the Harvard Observatory, and found "very near the predicted place," which we suppose must refer to the carefully computed ephemeris of Dr. Oppolzer of Vienna, who has given special attention to the theory of this comet. Winnecke's comet owes its importance not to its magnitude or brightness: it furnishes new material for determining by its perturbations the mass of Jupiter. It will appear again in 1880, but as the conditions for observing will be more unfavorable than at this appearance, it is well that it has been observed now.

—The *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 1 contains an interesting article on the eucalyptus globulus, or blue-gum of Tasmania. It will be read with disappointment, however, by cultivators of the tree in this country who hope to obtain some light on the climatic conditions essential to its flourishing away from its native seat. The writer, M. Planchon, insists on the distinction that trees may be naturalized but not acclimated. They will either grow or not grow in a given locality, and experience alone can determine what region is suitable for them. Nor is there necessarily a reciprocity in this naturalization of plants and vegetables. From England, for example, numerous wild and cultivated plants have passed to Australia and thriven there, though generally deteriorating ; but not a single Australian species has yet been propagated in England outside of ornamental gardens, where they are cultivated by thousands. Even in Southern Europe and Northern Africa, all that can be said of the eucalyptus is that it has been introduced but not yet naturalized—in other words, it still requires the care of man. The experience of the Cape of Good Hope, the Argentine Republic, of Cuba and California, is passed over by M. Planchon, who confines his attention to the shores of the Mediterranean. In Algiers the giant tree has prospered wonderfully, and already has given a new character to the landscape. Twenty years ago it grew there unknown, but cultivation on a large scale and with a purpose was not attempted till 1861–62. It now lines the railroads and highways, and is observable singly, in clumps, and in groves, so that it seems like part of the indigenous vegetation. In the south of France it thrives only where the orange tree does without artificial shelter, *i.e*, in the Eastern Pyrenees, the Var, and the Maritime Alps ; the best-known sites being Hyères, Cannes, Antibes, Nice, Villefranche, and Monaco. Open-air cultivation has been tried at Montpellier, Marseilles, and Narbonne, but not without great risks and disappointments ; and M. Planchon decides adversely on the climate of Languedoc and even of the western portion of Provence.

—In our Southern States the chief hope reposed in the eucalyptus is that it will overcome miasmata ; and not without reason. The "fever-tree" is the name given it in Spain by the people of Valentia from a practical acquaintance with its properties. Not only does it absorb immense quantities of moisture from swampy soils, and give off a balsamic effluvium, but it furnishes the *materia medica* with a substance which is a febrifuge in the case of a large number of intermittent fevers ; it has disinfecting and antiseptic qualities ; topically applied to wounds it promotes cicatrizing ; its leaves in a moderate infusion will supply the place of tea as a stimulating beverage, and rolled into cigarettes they have a soothing effect on the respiratory organs. Prosper Mérimée is said, in his last illness at Cannes, to have derived benefit in this way from the smoking of them. The eucalyptus essence has also been administered for bronchial affections in the form of lozenges; and a toilet article, of a powerful and very persistent odor, has been made of it. Great as are these uses, the tree is perhaps still more to be welcomed for its timber. Its rapid growth is not incompatible (as is usually the case) with a compact texture, whose value is heightened by the presence of resinous substances, eminently adapting the wood to resist salt water, and thus to play an important part in naval architecture. For the same reason it does not rot in the soil, and is used for railway sleepers, for posts and piles, for bridges, viaducts, etc., etc. Some of the allied species of the eucalyptus globulus are taller than it is, though mention is made of a blue-gum plank nearly 170 feet long. A single eucalyptus amygdalina has been known to surpass in height the Strassburg spire and even the Great Pyramid. For further particulars respecting the subject of this Note we must refer to M. Planchon's article, which is remarkable, considering that the author is a Frenchman, in suggesting how certain peculiarities of the blue-gum lend support to the development theory of the natural creation.

—On the 1st of January the thaler ceased to be the monetary standard of Germany, and the mark valuation was generally introduced. Three German *Reichsmark* in gold are equivalent to a thaler, 1,395 of the former being coined from a pound of fine gold. As the change now introduced still involves the gradual withdrawal of silver currency to the amount of three hundred million thalers, some time will elapse before the thaler will be virtually displaced by the reichsmark, and thus for the present in Germany, as in France, Belgium, and Switzerland, the double standard of gold and silver may be said to exist. And like these countries, Germany experiences at the outset considerable difficulty in maintaining the equilibrium between the two standards, owing to the disturbance in the relative values of gold and silver. France, Belgium, and Switzerland coin 200 francs from a kilogram of silver, $\frac{9}{10}$ fine, and 3,100 francs from a kilogram of gold of the same fineness, thus legally fixing the relative values of gold and silver as 1 : 15½ ; and Germany, in substituting the gold for the silver standard, has taken the same proportion as a basis. Now, in reality, silver has for the past few years been steadily declining in value, so that a kilogram of fine gold has actually been worth more than 15½ kilograms of fine silver, and speculative bankers have not been slow in taking advantage of this decline. They have found it quite profitable to buy silver at its present low price in London, paying for it in Napoléons d'or, and having it coined in France into five-franc pieces. In this way they have received for a kilogram of gold at least 16 kilograms of silver, the gain amounting to ½ kilogram of silver, the expenses incurred being inconsiderable. The consequence of this continued exchange of gold for silver has been that France, Belgium, and Switzerland have been all but completely drained of their gold. The reverse took place in these countries at the time of the discovery of gold in California and Australia, when gold rapidly declined in value, silver almost disappearing from circulation. With the introduction of the gold standard in Germany a new field of speculation has been opened to English bankers, who, ostensibly for their trade in India and China, have lately bought large quantities of silver thalers, and now, by exchanging them in Berlin for gold at the rate of three marks for one thaler, derive a handsome profit from the operation. The German Government discovered too late that it had committed a great mistake in not melting its superfluous silver, and selling it in bars to London bankers, thereby preventing its reflux into the German Treasury.

—There is, in fact, no good reason why Germany, in establishing the relative values of its gold and silver currencies, should have adhered to figures which are so much at variance with the actual market value of the two metals, and disregarded the example offered by other countries. In the United States, since Congress first fixed the relative values of gold and silver at 1 : 15, the figures have been repeatedly changed to 1 : 16, 1 : 14.88, and 1 : 14.95. So great has been the demand for gold on the Prussian bank that its provisions have been found quite unequal to the occasion, and

in consequence there is a project on foot to hand over the entire administration of monetary affairs in Germany to a new *Reichsbank*, with the power of increasing or decreasing the currency in circulation, as occasion may require. The new bank is to have a capital of 40,000,000 thalers, the Government guaranteeing to the shareholders 4½ per cent. interest on their shares, and reserving to itself one-half of the profits above this percentage. Along with the change in its monetary affairs, a curious reform has taken place in the postal service of Germany. All the foreign words of which until now the German postal vocabulary has been composed have been carefully weeded out of the language, and are replaced by purely German words. But the innovations are not in all cases happy, and some of them, such as the barbarous *postlagernd* for the universally-used *poste restante*, the German *Schulmeister* ought to look after.

—The historical literature of the year 1874 is unusually rich. Of writers who are recognized as standing in the first rank, or nearly so, in this department, we have new works or new instalments from Mr. Motley, 'History of John of Barnevelt'; Mr. Bancroft, Vol. X.; Mr. Parkman's 'Old Régime in Canada'; Vol. V. of the translation of Curtius's 'History of Greece,' closing the work; Von Sybel, 'Die Revolutionszeit,' Part 1 of Vol. V., embracing the year 1798; Giesebrecht, 'Die Deutsche Kaiserzeit,' Vol. IV., Part 2, completing the reign of Conrad III. The fifth volume of Long's 'Decline of the Roman Republic' finishes his work at the death of Julius Cæsar; the fifth volume of Ewald's 'Volk Israel' does the same, reaching the time of Christ; Hausrath's 'Neutestamentliche Geschichte' is also brought to a close with the time of Hadrian (Vol. III. Part 2), as is Eberty's 'Geschichte des Preussischen Staats,' whose seventh volume comprises the period from 1815 to 1871; J. G. Droysen's 'Geschichte der Preussischen Politik' has reached the time of Frederick the Great; and the most important recent volumes of the new edition of Ranke's collected works are the 'Twelve Books of Prussian History'—nine in former editions, the enlargement being chiefly in the earliest times; Hefele's 'Conciliengeschichte' ends (Vol. VII.) with the Council of Florence (1439), and the first volume has already reached a new edition; Arnold Schäfer's 'History of the Seven Years' War' has reached the second part of Vol. II. In the field of constitutional history we have at least four books of the very first rank—the first volumes of Marquardt's 'Römische Staatsverwaltung' (Organization of the Empire); the first part of the second volume of Mommsen's 'Römisches Staatsrecht' (the Magistrates); the fifth volume of Waitz's 'Deutsche Verfassungs-Geschichte,' embracing the period of the Saxon House; and Vol. I. of Stubbs's 'Constitutional History of England,' reaching the Magna Charta. Mr. Freeman has published very little during the year—a ground for hope that his fifth volume is making progress. His 'Historical Series' has had added to it histories of Italy, by Mr. Ward, and Germany, by Mr. Syme. The commencement of Mr. Morris's series, 'Epochs of History,' is an event of no slight importance; the volumes, although small, contain the ripe results of men who are authorities in their respective fields. The four volumes already published are 'The Protestant Revolution,' by Mr. Seebohm; 'The Crusades,' by Mr. Cox; 'The Thirty Years' War,' by Mr. Gardiner; and 'The Houses of Lancaster and York,' by Mr. Gairdner. Mr. Cox has also published two volumes of a history of Greece, reaching to the year B.C. 404.

—Of other histories of value we may mention Lenormant's 'Les premières Civilizations,' being a presentation of the most recent results in the field of prehistorical archæology and in the histories of Egypt, Assyria, etc. Markham's 'History of Persia' also belongs to Oriental history, and Schneiderwirth, 'Die Parther,' and Hoffmann, 'Antiochus IV., Epiphanes.' In classical history there is little besides that already mentioned, except Stahr's 'Tiberius,' which has excited great attention on account of its attempt at vindicating the character of this emperor. Mr. Bosworth Smith's lectures upon Mohammed have received high praise. Simson's 'Jahrbücher' of the reign of Louis the Pious is a valuable addition to the valuable series of 'Jahrbücher' of the Emperors. Of local histories there are Ralston's 'Early Russian History'; Von Muchar, 'Geschichte der Steiermark,' Vol. IX. (finished); Sprecher, 'Die Republik der Drei Bünde'; Fock, 'Aus der letzten Tagen der Pommerschen Geschichte,' Vol. VI. Kraus's 'Lehrbuch von Kirchengeschichte' (Trier) is pronounced an excellent compendium from a Catholic point of view. Prof. Fisher's 'History of the Reformation' has received warm praise from nearly all quarters. Karl Fischer's 'Geschichte der auswärtigen Politik und Diplomatie im Reformationszeitalter' is a valuable contribution to the history of this period, and so are Maurenbrecher's 'Studien und Skizzen.' The eminent historian Gregorovius, having completed his 'Geschichte der Stadt Rome,' has published a life of Lucrezia Borgia, in which this notorious woman is shown to have been rather a commonplace character, and innocent enough, considering her time and surroundings. We describe below a life of 'Lorenzo the Magnificent,' by Von Reumont. Prutz's 'Geschichte des Kaisers Friedrich I.' is too important a work to be passed over, although it is thought hardly worthy of its subject. Mary Queen of Scots has received unusual attention in the third closing volume of Hosack's work in her defence, in Petit's 'Mary Stuart,' also in vindication of her, and in the publication of the letters of Sir Amyas Paulet. We will also mention a second series of 'Historical Essays' by Van Praet; a 'History of Japan,' in two volumes, by Mr. P. O. Adams, formerly British Chargé d'Affaires at Yedo; Mr. Stillman's 'History of the Cretan Insurrection'; Green's 'Short History of the English People'; Von Holst's 'History of the United States'; Otté's 'History of Scandinavia'; the commencement of Mr. Hubert H. Bancroft's 'Native Races of the Pacific Coast'; and 'The History of the Late War,' by the Comte de Paris. Works in this field are also Flint's 'Philosophy of History' (Vol. I.), and George's 'Genealogical Tables,' published by Macmillan. The most prominent of historians dead during the year have been Michelet, a brilliant and learned historian, who had, however, probably finished his work; Prof. Usinger of Kiel, an industrious and useful man; and above all Guizot, than whom no other living man ranked higher in this field, unless Ranke and Mommsen. His 'History of France' was left in a condition to publish to the end.

—The last number of the *Jahrbuch für romanische und englische Sprache und Literatur* (Neue Folge, II. Bd. 1 Heft), contains several articles of interest to students of English literature. The first is a new text of the Legends of St. Dunstan and St. Christopher, from the Laud MS. 108. The earlier text was from the Harleian MS. 2,277. The former, though somewhat fragmentary, is, as far as it goes, more complete and probably more like the original copy. In another article, E. Schmid discusses Marlowe's 'Faust' and its relation to the English and German Faust books. It has generally been supposed that Marlowe took the material for his play directly from the German popular Faust book. Schmid, however, shows by a collation of the play with the German and English Faust books, that Marlowe must not only have known the latter but used it for his tragedy. H. Böddeker contributes a valuable article on English Songs and Ballads of the Sixteenth Century, which are contained in a MS. (Cotton. Vesp. A. 25) of the British Museum. Some of these have already been published by Wright and Halliwell in their 'Reliquæ Antiquæ,' but most of them appear here for the first time. The editor reserves for a future number the question of the dialect in which these songs and ballads are written. One of the shorter ones is so pretty that it will bear repeating, although it has already seen the light in Halliwell's collection. It is entitled "Change":

> "After droght commythe rayne,
> After plesur commethe payne,
> But yet yt contynythe not so.
> For after rayne
> Commythe droyght agayne,
> And joye after payne
> And woo."

—Alfred von Reumont, the distinguished German diplomat and scholar, formerly minister at Rome and Florence, and author of numerous valuable works on Italian history, literature, and art, has lately published, in two volumes, a history of Lorenzo de' Medici ('Lorenzo de' Medici, il Magnifico,' Leipzig), which will justly rank as his greatest work. Thanks to Mr. Roscoe's entertaining but extremely partial book on the same subject, there is probably no Italian of the fifteenth century so well known to the English public as Lorenzo de' Medici. Von Reumont's work embraces all points of view—historical, political, and literary—and perhaps no one was so well qualified to combine them in one book. His previous diplomatic career and profound studies in Italian literature and art have enabled him to produce a work of singular completeness, and which will be indispensable to any student of the fifteenth century. The first book gives a condensed account of the history of Florence to the death of Lorenzo's grandfather, Cosimo. The second book embraces the period from 1464 to 1470, the life of Piero and Lorenzo's youth. The conspiracy of the Pazzi, the war with Sixtus IV., and Lorenzo's famous journey to Naples fill the third book. The most interesting portion of the work for students of literature is the fourth book, which treats in the most detailed manner (occupying over three hundred pages) of letters and art during the fifteenth century, and offers some admirable metrical translations of various poems of Lorenzo. The fifth and sixth books complete Lorenzo's history with many interesting details of Florentine life. In several valuable appendices are given bibliographical notices, a chronological table, and genealogical charts of the Medici, Pazzi, Soderini, and Visconti-Sforza families.

—'Ch'o hok kai' is the title of a new hand-book of the Canton vernacular of the Chinese language, composed for domestic and business purposes

by N. B. Dennys. Mr. Dennys, who, we understand, has had the degree of Ph.D. conferred upon him by one of the German universities in recognition of his services to Anglo-Chinese literature, has attempted to meet a growing want. Hitherto, nothing worthy of the name of a "method" of learning Cantonese has ever been produced. That the present work has been adopted by the Hongkong Government as the text-book for its interpreters, police, and Government schools, argues that he has met with fair success. The work is handsomely got up, being issued from the *China Mail* press, whence also comes the *China Review*, a publication we have frequently noticed. Messrs. Trübner & Co. are the London agents of the 'Ch'o hok kai.' The last number of the *Review*, by the way, which has come to hand (Vol. III., No. 2) is unusually interesting. The leading paper is an account of audiences granted by the emperors of China to Western envoys since 1820. This is followed by one on the "noble art of self-defence" in China, based on a Chinese pamphlet professing to teach the art, and illustrated by comical native views of the *modus operandi*. "The Hsi Yuan Lu, or Instructions to Coroners," and M. Gubler's report to the French Academy on the Chinese materia medica, give one a glimpse of Eastern knowledge of anatomy and therapeutics, and this knowledge is more respectable than might be supposed, and more closely parallel or identical with Western notions of medicine, historic and actual. One finds not only our obsolete "doctrine of signatures" in full force with the Chinese, but also anæsthetical surgery of very ancient date. "Verily," as M. Gubler says, "we behold strange illusions; but they deserve indulgence, especially on the part of those whose ancestors have participated in them. When it was formally believed that Lungwort was a cure for phthisis, that Stone crop or Orphine expelled the gravel, and that the carrot dissipated the jaundice, modesty is a virtue indispensable to all."

## MILL'S ESSAYS IN RELIGION.*

MR. MILL'S theological speculations cannot be properly understood unless account be taken of his education and of his philosophy. Being educated outside all existing religious beliefs, he never dissented from creeds the truth of which he never admitted. He approaches every form of religion in the spirit in which an unbiassed enquirer might, say in the time of Cicero, have weighed the respective claims of Stoicism and Epicureanism, and hence occupies a position quite different from that of a man like Mr. Greg, whose whole views are by his own honest avowal colored by the influence of early association and training. His attitude is even more different from that of theists like Theodore Parker, whose vehement dissent from orthodoxy is in part an expression of fervent belief in the dogmas of theism. Mr. Mill, again, devoted his life to assailing all the forms of *à priori* thinking, and hence, when dealing with theology, naturally refuses all confidence to the *à priori* theories either of dogmatic orthodoxy or of equally dogmatic scepticism. All theological problems are therefore, in his view, simply forms of the one great question, What are the religious truths (if any) which men can discover by the application of reason to the phenomena of the universe and of human nature? and his conclusions are the natural, if not the inevitable, results of his position and his philosophy.

The first question for every religious enquirer must be, What ground (if any) is therefor the belief in the existence of a Creator? There are philosophers who answer this and every similar enquiry by the dogmatic assertion that all speculation about the nature and attributes of the Deity is futile, and ought to be cast aside by men who perceive the inherent weakness of the metaphysical method. Mr. Mill at once rejects the easy method of solving great problems which consists in the bold assertion that they are incapable of solution, and, after weighing the various arguments in favor of the existence of a Creator, pronounces them all worthless with the exception of the so-called "argument from design." To this argument he ascribes sufficient force to make the existence of the Deity, at any rate, highly probable:

"In the present state of our knowledge, the adaptations in nature afford a large balance of probability in favor of creation by intelligence. It is equally certain that this is no more than a probability, and that the various other arguments of natural theology which we have considered add nothing to its force. Whatever ground there is, revelation apart, to believe in an author of nature is derived from the appearances in the universe."

The belief in the existence of an intelligent Creator being granted, what are the Creator's attributes? This enquiry is one which has rarely received the full consideration devoted to it by Mr. Mill. For deists have, as a general rule, when once they have convinced themselves of the existence of God, been content to ascribe to him all the characteristics, such as benevolence, wisdom, and omnipotence, which religious persons consider the natural attributes of the Deity. That men should so easily have assumed that if a Creator exists he must infallibly possess the qualities both of omnipotence and perfect benevolence, is a curious proof of the slight extent to which even sceptics have attempted to form what we have heard described as an "inductive idea" of God. The easy assumption by which the mere existence of a Being, however great and powerful, is taken to be proof of his possessing certain attributes, is at variance with Mr. Mill's fundamental principles. Any one, he in effect argues, who infers the existence of a Creator merely from the phenomena of the universe, must of necessity attempt to discern his character by studying the nature of the universe, and by that process alone. If you "work through nature up to nature's God," you must infer him to be of such a character as he exhibits in the works of nature. Once admit this, and you are (as Mr. Mill maintains) driven to the conclusion that the Being by whom the world was created cannot be at once absolutely benevolent and omnipotent. The existence of any suffering whatever is sufficient to support this thesis. The admitted existence of a vast mass of suffering proves it to demonstration.

"Writers on natural theology have exhausted the resources of sophistry to make it appear that all the suffering in the world exists to prevent greater; that misery exists for fear that there should be misery—a thesis which, if ever so well maintained, could avail to explain and justify the works of limited beings, compelled to labor under conditions independent of their own will, but can have no application to a Creator assumed to be omnipotent, who, if he bends to a supposed necessity, himself makes the necessity which he bends to. If the maker of the world *can* all that he wills, he wills misery, and there is no escape from the conclusion."

From this hateful inference Mr. Mill escapes by the bold denial of the hypothesis on which it depends. That the Creator is infinitely more powerful than man must be conceded by any one who believes in his existence; but that the Creator is, strictly speaking, "omnipotent" is a dogma not supported by the appearances of nature, inconsistent with the very argument from design from which the existence of creative intelligence is inferred, since that argument implies a subordination of means to ends, and, lastly, opposed not indeed to the verbal statements, but to the religious consciousness of even the most orthodox believers, who have in effect always been prepared to save the goodness of the Creator at the expense of his power. "There is, further, a distinct preponderance of credence that the Creator desired the pleasure of his creatures." His works, in other words, give proof of the benevolence of God. His omnipotence is a mere fiction formed by the human imagination. Reject the belief in his absolute power, and it is possible to entertain a creed which is at once rational and moral:

"One only form of belief in the supernatural . . . stands wholly clear both of intellectual contradiction and of moral obliquity, which, resigning irrevocably the idea of an omnipotent Creator, regards nature and life not as the expression throughout of the moral character of the Deity, but as the product of a struggle between untiring goodness and intractable material, as was believed by Plato, or a principle of evil, as was the doctrine of the Manichæans."

All Mr. Mill's powers of lucid exposition and happy illustration are devoted throughout at least two-thirds of his essays to establish the doctrine that a belief in the Creator's benevolence can be maintained only by disbelief in his omnipotence. A mere abstract gives a most inadequate idea of the skill and zeal with which this doctrine is enforced. It is obviously the central dogma of Mr. Mill's theological belief, and is, in *his* eyes, the sole refuge from either atheism or a creed far more painful to every good and benevolent man than atheism itself.

If the probable existence of a benevolent, if not omnipotent, Creator can be safely assumed, what are the grounds for belief in the immortality of the soul?

Mr. Mill's reply to this enquiry is in effect that no conclusive answer is possible. Independently of the existence and benevolence of God, no proof of man's immortality can be given, and the assumption both of the Deity's existence and of his good-will to man cannot afford any sure ground for the belief that he is able, even if he wishes to do so, to endue mankind with immortal life. "The benevolence of the Divine Being may be perfect, but his power being subject to unknown limitations, we know not that he could have given us what we so confidently assert that he must have given; *could* (that is) without sacrificing something more important. . . . One thing is quite certain in respect to God's government of the world, that he either could not or would not grant us everything that we wish. We wish for life and he has granted us some life; that we wish (or some of us wish) for a boundless extent of life and that it is not granted, is no exception to the ordinary modes of his government. Many a man would like to be a Crœsus or an Augustus Cæsar, but his wishes are gratified only to the moderate ex-

* 'Three Essays on Religion. By John Stuart Mill.' London: Longmans; New York: Henry Holt & Co.

tent of a pound per week or the secretaryship of his trades-union." Though there be no ground for believing in the immortality of man, there is also, it should be noted, no ground for disbelief. This is one of those rare cases in which there exists a total lack of evidence in favor either of an affirmative or of a negative conclusion. "There is in science no evidence against the immortality of the soul, but that negative evidence which consists in the absence of evidence in its favor." The attempts to prove that the soul cannot survive the body are, in fact, attempts to give to the teaching of a limited experience the force of absolute demonstration. "We must beware of giving *à priori* validity to the conclusions of our *à posteriori* philosophy. The root of all *à priori* thinking is the tendency to transfer to outward things a strong association between the corresponding ideas in our own minds; and the thinkers who most sincerely attempt to limit their belief by experience, and honestly believe that they do so, are not always sufficiently on their guard against this mistake." This caution, which is valuable in itself, has a most direct bearing on Mr. Mill's treatment of the last main topic of his essays, the right attitude of a rational man towards religious dogmas.

What should be the position taken up by a man anxious to believe the truth, and the truth only, towards the supernatural? This enquiry is the most interesting, and for practical purposes the most important, with which Mr. Mill deals. His answer is, however, by no means so clear as are the replies which he generally gives to the questions which he raises. It must, in fact, be admitted by any candid reader that Mr. Mill treats his topic in a different spirit in two different essays. The general effect of the treatise on the "Utility of Religion" is that a belief in the supernatural is, though permissible to a rational being, still of very dubious utility or advantage to mankind. The desire for immortality may, Mr. Mill urges, gradually expire, and the loss of this desire may, on the whole, be a benefit to the human race. "It seems to me," he writes, "not only possible, but probable, that, in a higher and above all a happier condition of human life, not annihilation but immortality may be the burdensome idea, and that human nature, though pleased with the present, and by no means impatient to quit it, would find comfort and not sadness in the thought that it is not chained through eternity to a conscious existence which it cannot be assured it will always wish to preserve." The tone of the later essay on Theism is different. The belief in the divine government and in the immortality of the soul is, if it can be rationally maintained, most beneficial to man. The truth of such belief, though only maintainable as a hypothesis, is still a supposition which cannot be disproved, and may be cherished by the most sober thinkers, not as a creed, but as a hope. This, which is true with regard to all the main doctrines of supernatural religion, is, as Mr. Mill contends, specially true of the hope of immortality. "The possibility of a life after death rests on the footing of a boon which this powerful Being who wishes well to man may have the power to grant, and which, if the message alleged to have been sent by him was really sent, he has actually promised. The whole domain of the supernatural is thus removed from the region of belief into that of simple hope, and there, for anything we can see, it is likely always to remain; for we can hardly anticipate either that any positive evidence will be acquired of the direct agency of divine benevolence in human destiny, or that any reason will be discovered for considering the realization of human hopes on that subject as beyond the pale of possibility." An indulgence in such hopes is, "while we recognize as a clear truth that we have no ground for more than a hope, legitimate and philosophically defensible. The beneficial effect of such a hope is far from trifling; it makes life and human nature a far greater thing to the feelings, and gives greater strength as well as greater solemnity to all the sentiments which are awakened in us by our fellow-creatures and by mankind at large." The following sentences conclude the essays, and sum up the last result of Mr. Mill's religious speculations: "To do something during life, on even the humblest scale, if nothing more is within reach, towards bringing this consummation (the final victory of good) ever so little nearer, is the most animating and invigorating thought which can inspire a human creature, and that it is destined with or without supernatural sanctions to be the religion of the future I cannot entertain a doubt. But it appears to me that supernatural hopes, in the degree and kind in which what I have called rational sceptism does not refuse to sanction them, may still contribute not a little to give to this religion its due ascendency over the human mind."

Nothing in the essays is more characteristic of Mr. Mill, and nothing of more permanent value, than the attack on the easy-going aquiescence with which mankind accept the dogmas of divine omnipotence without even perceiving the difficulty of combining it with a genuine faith in divine benevolence. What should be specially noted is, that Mr. Mill's attack on optimism is grounded not on a logical utility but on a moral feeling. The strongest and noblest sentiment of Mr. Mill's mind was a passion for justice. If such a feeling can by any possibility be termed exaggerated, we might say that his hatred of oppression reached excess. What he objects to in the popular view of the divine character is, that it is opposed to all sound ideas of justice. That any one man or Deity should cause or suffer to exist needless pain is, according to all human ideas, the height of cruelty and wrong. Pain, Mr. Mill argues, exists. The Deity is, according to the popular creed, omnipotent in the strictest sense of the word. He therefore causes pain to exist which is needless; since even supposing that the pain has an object, an omnipotent being must, *ex hypothesi*, be able to attain the object without causing the pain. You may, Mr. Mill in effect adds, go a great deal further than this. Not only does pain exist, but the whole universe is full of suffering, and of suffering which is manifestly unjust. If nature be looked upon as the simple expression of the Creator's character, the Deity may be feared for his power, but he cannot be adored for his goodness.

"Nearly all the things which men are hanged or imprisoned for doing to one another are nature's everyday performances. Killing, the most criminal act recognized by human laws, nature does once to every being that lives, and in a large proportion of cases after protracted tortures such as only the greatest monsters whom we read of inflicted on their living fellow-creatures. . . . Nature impales men, breaks them as if on the wheel, casts them to be devoured by wild beasts, burns them to death, crushes them with stones, starves them with hunger, freezes them with cold, poisons them with the quick or slow venom of her exhalations, and has hundreds of other hideous deaths in reserve, such as the ingenious cruelty of a Nero or a Domitian never devised."

The passage of which these sentences are a small portion constitutes a long and bitter indictment against the injustice of nature. In several ways it throws strong light on the extent to which Mr. Mill was influenced by the combined sincerity and passion of his mind. His sincerity makes it absolutely impossible for him to pass over or ignore the existence of bitter pain and suffering throughout the universe. But while Mr. Mill's attack on optimism has a force which will be recognized by many of those who do not agree with his theological speculations, no admiration for a great teacher can conceal from any candid critic that in his view of nature Mr. Mill suffered unconsciously from the bias of overwrought feeling. In the sentence already quoted, his passionate rhetoric conceals what is very rare with him—distinct inaccuracy of thought. Killing is not the most criminal act recognized by human laws. A soldier or an executioner kills, and he commits no crime whatever. Murder is a crime, but murder is not killing, but killing under certain circumstances and with certain feelings and intentions. To give pain, and even the most excruciating pain, is not necessarily, if one speaks accurately, to torture. Everything depends upon circumstances and motive. Similar criticisms may be applied to almost all of the charges preferred against nature. What Mr. Mill does show is, that nature causes agony of all kinds to living beings. To show this is to point out, if not an insuperable, yet a very considerable difficulty in the creed which attributes at once unlimited benevolence and unlimited power to the Creator; but when Mr. Mill proceeds to treat nature as a criminal summoned before the bar of a court of justice, he passes from the domain of reason to the realm of rhetoric, and, moreover, fails in making out his case; because whilst he does show that nature causes pain (which is only asserting in rhetorical language that animated beings suffer pain), he cannot prove the existence of a wrongful intention, without which there can be no crime. Nature, further, like the devil, may be painted far blacker than she is, and Mr. Mill, it must in fairness be admitted, has in drawing her picture laid on dark colors with much too unsparing a hand. The indignant strain also in which he writes is not at bottom consistent with his view of the Creator's attributes, for if his power be limited there is no ground for indignation at the existence of evils which, it is highly probable, are irremediable. Mr. Mill's sensibility, if it sometimes leads him astray, certainly widens his sympathies. In his last work there is traceable a very distinct leaning towards orthodox Christian doctrines. Christianity, whatever its defects, cannot be charged with optimism.

The belief in an evil spirit, which is, of all orthodox dogmas, the most repulsive to modern deists, has some attraction to a writer who sees in the universe a constant struggle of good and evil. Mr. Mill rejects it, but only after examining its claims to reception with calm consideration. His moral feelings kindle in his mind an admiration for the teaching of Christ, which is expressed in terms which obviously excite some astonishment among those who are the most ardent disciples of Mr. Mill's philosophy. Carlyle showed his insight when he described his friend as an unconscious mystic. In Mr. Mill's fervent admiration for the teaching and mind of Christ, in his manifest inclination towards the Comtist worship of humanity, in the outbreaks of passion which are to be found mixed up with his driest logical or economical speculations, there are abundant traces of

indisposition towards what in a very wide sense of the term might be called mysticism. Yet the character of Mr. Mill's intellect, if not of his disposition, was strictly logical, and he entertained and through life acted honestly on the conviction that the attainment of truth was a matter of the reason and not of the heart. Hence he sympathized with Christianity, and he examined its evidences with respectful attention; but when he found that, according to his tests of truth, these evidences were unsatisfactory, he refused his belief to a creed which appealed to some of his strongest sentiments. Orthodox critics may understand Mr. Mill's attitude towards orthodoxy by comparing it with his relation towards the dogmas of Comtism. That Mr. Mill was much attracted by some of those doctrines is past a doubt, and, if other evidence were wanting, the 'Essay on the Utility of Religion' is conclusive proof that at one time, at any rate, he swayed very far towards the religion of Positivism. It is equally clear that he did not accept the creed of Comte's later disciples. He tested its claims by his canons of truth, and in the case of Positivism, as in the case of Christianity, refused belief to a system which pleased his imagination without satisfying the requirements of his intellect.

It is, of course, open to any one to maintain that Mr. Mill's criteria of truth were unsatisfactory, that the premises from which he started were too narrow, or the conclusions which he drew from them unsound. All these are matters well worth the consideration of any who investigate the truth of his theological doctrines. With these matters we have no concern. Our object is not to defend or assail Mr. Mill's teachings, but to explain his attitude towards religious belief, and to call attention to the honesty with which, despite the influence of feeling, he adhered to his convictions. This sincerity, combined with his logical acuteness, has led to one result which perturbs his more sceptical admirers. He has applied to the favorite formulas of his own school the same canons by which he has tested the most orthodox and generally accredited doctrines, and has frankly pointed out that these formulas are often unsound. Nothing, for example, is a more decisive mark of so-called scientific thinkers than their readiness to dispose of the whole question of miracles by the summary assertion that a miracle is, from the very nature of things, impossible. Such off-hand solutions of difficult problems are Mr. Mill's abhorrence. He rejects the dogma on which so many of his followers rely, and, with something like grim humor, treats it as a specimen of that "*à priori* thinking" which, in his view, is the main source of philosophical errors. In the same spirit he rejects as untenable the assertion often made, and still more often confidently assumed, that life and consciousness cannot possibly exist apart from material organs. Here he sees not an undoubted truth but simply an example of the "tendency to transfer to outward things a strong association between the corresponding ideas in our own minds." But what gives the greatest shock to advanced thinkers is that Mr. Mill in effect, if not in so many words, throws doubt on the validity of one of their favorite laws of history. Mr. Morley (of whose vigorous and honest criticism no candid reader can speak without deep respect) is perfectly right in the assertion that Mr. Mill's language with regard to Christ is inconsistent with the doctrine that even the greatest men are simply the expressions of their age. Mr. Mill obviously saw the difficulty over which his follower stumbles, and would, it may be presumed, have replied to Mr. Morley's attack, that if the laws of history did not conform to known historical facts, this might be a reason for correcting our notions of historic method, but was not a ground for shutting our eyes to the result of satisfactory investigation. Mr. Mill, in fact, throughout the whole of his writings, occupies substantially the same position. He gives the greatest scope to the imagination. On the other hand, he systematically attempts to regulate his belief in accordance with the conclusions of the intellect. In his own case, his character and training made it possible to preserve the nice balance between sentiment and reason, and his own exceptional experience led him into what must fairly be termed the delusion that the mass of mankind could safely cherish hopes for which there is (on Mr. Mill's theories) no rational foundation. This illusion gives an appearance of moral casuistry to one portion of his last work, but attentive readers easily perceive that Mr. Mill's advice to cherish hope, though it may lead to intellectual dishonesty in others, is given by him in perfect good faith. What will be the permanent effect of his religious speculations neither assailants nor admirers can at the present moment predict. It is possible that he may induce some few of his sceptical disciples to reconsider the value of their formulas. But the main effect of his work will lie not so much in its direct teaching as in its indirect influence. It may be inadequate. As a theological treatise it will always be the weighty and impressive confession of an enquiring spirit, written by a man who has the intellectual clearness and moral honesty to state boldly what he does and does not believe, without concealing either the extent or the limits of his creed.

---

*Young Folks' History of the United States.* By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. (Boston : Lee & Shepard. 1 vol. 12mo. Illustrated).—Colonel Higginson's book is quite a model of its kind—compact, clear, and accurate. Even in our short-lived annals there are myths which, having done duty as history for past generations, are now made over to confiding young people as facts. Colonel Higginson relates none of these, unless we except the apparition of Goffe the regicide when the Indians attacked Hadley. This story has recently been challenged, and apparently shown to be without any better foundation than tradition. It belongs probably to a very old class of myth. Castor and Pollux were seen at the battle of Lake Regillus ; a pair of saints fought in the air for Constantine against Maxentius at the Milvian Bridge ; and the army of Cortes was saved in Mexico by San Iago in person. It is only remarkable as having originated so recently and in New England. Many of our books for children are disfigured by Americanisms and colloquial vulgarisms, and some writers for the young adopt the sort of patronizing, jocular tone which visitors of ragged-schools are apt to assume when addressing the pupils of these institutions. It is kindly meant, no doubt, but instinctively irritating to any boy not descended from a long and unbroken line of paupers. This history is free from such blemishes. Its tone is always quiet and gentlemanlike, without exaggeration or conceits of language. There are no symptoms of rampant patriotism or spread-eagleism ; even manifest destiny has been omitted. It is especially grateful not to be told that America is the home of the oppressed of all nations, and the only hope of liberty and civilization.

Unless we are mistaken, children of a larger growth will find this little book a most useful manual of American history. Nowhere can they get the facts so well stated in so small compass. The first three chapters treat of the "pleistocene" aborigines, the mound-builders, and the Indians ; the next three relate the apocryphal story of the Norse colony, the voyages of Columbus and of his successors. These are followed by an account of the settlement of the thirteen colonies, which gives a clear and comprehensive view of the subject, and by capital sketches of colonial life and customs in New England, among the Dutch in New York, and the Friends in Pennsylvania. The narrative of the French and Indian wars, from 1689 to 1763, closes the history of the ante-revolutionary period, all of which is comprised in 158 12mo pages ; but Colonel Higginson has selected his incidents with so much judgment and arranged them so skilfully, that a careful perusal of this half of his book will give the ordinary reader all that he would probably take away, or care to remember, if he had the time and courage to master the eight volumes of Bancroft on the same subject. In the remainder of the volume the history of the country is brought down to the election of Grant. In our own times and in the war of secession, the author is as impartial as in his earlier chapters. There is no trace of party feeling or prejudice.

We will notice one passage only, because it seems to give President Jefferson praise to which he is not entitled, and in our opinion Jefferson has been too long worshipped by a party for attributes he did not possess. On page 237, speaking of the quarrel with the Barbary States, Colonel Higginson says : "President Jefferson resolved to bear this humiliation no longer. The American navy consisted at that time of but six vessels, and he sent four of them to the Mediterranean," etc. Many thousands of dollars had been paid for peace to the Barbary powers, and many insults meekly submitted to by the Government of the United States, when, in the year 1800, the United States ship *Washington*, Captain Bainbridge, lay in the port of Algiers about to sail for home. Suddenly the Dey ordered the United States consul to send her to Constantinople with the Algerian ambassador to the Sultan on board, or he would declare war against the United States. The consul protested but submitted, and the ambassador with his suite amounting to two hundred persons, their luggage, stores, and horses, and their presents of wild animals to the Sultan, were shipped on board the *Washington*, and she sailed for Constantinople carrying the Algerian flag at the main. When the news reached America Jefferson was President. He was not roused, but "hoped that time and a more correct estimate of interest would produce justice in the Dey's mind." He contented himself by sending a protest to the consul in Algiers. It was not until the Pacha of Tripoli declared war against the United States that anything was done for defence. Even then, if Jefferson could have had his way, not a ship would have sailed from these shores. But the merchants insisted upon protection in the Mediterranean, and with great reluctance he sent out three frigates and a sloop under Commodore Dale. But Dale's hands were tied by his orders, and he was instructed not to overstep the

strict line of defence. Dale returned home after taking one Tripolitan schooner, which he disarmed and returned to her crew. The year after, Commodore Morris came to the Mediterranean and did nothing at all. The next year, 1803–4, Preble was in command, a man who would not be prevented by instructions from doing his duty. When the news of the burning of the *Philadelphia* reached home, the blood of the nation was up, and the administration had to yield to the popular feeling; but the credit is due to Preble, not to the President, who never contemplated or desired any such violent proceedings.

There are good monographs on particular periods of American history, but neither Graham, Hildreth, nor Bancroft is entirely satisfactory. This unpretending little book is the best general history of the United States we have seen. It contains all of it that the average citizen requires in order to go through life comfortably and creditably. With this well-drawn outline fixed in his mind he will always know where to place any additional facts that may be brought to his notice; and we hope that Colonel Higginson's readers, both young and old, will take pains to imitate his simple, straightforward style, which is not the least attractive feature in the work.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* | |
|---|---|---|
| Allen and Greenough, Selections from the Poems of Ovid | (Ginn Bros.) | |
| Angell (J.), Elements of Magnetism and Electricity | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) | $0 75 |
| Beecher (Catharine E.), Educational Reminiscences and Suggestions. | (J. B. Ford & Co.) | 1 00 |
| Bossuet and his Contemporaries | (Pott, Young & Co.) | |
| Collins (J. H.), Principles of Metal Mining | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) | 0 75 |
| Clarke (Mrs. M. C.), A Rambling Story | (Roberts Bros.) | 1 50 |
| Financial Review Annual | (Wm. B. Dana & Co.) | |
| Fitzgerald (P.), Romance of the English Stage | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Furman (G.), Antiquities of Long Island | (J. W. Bouton) | |
| Gordon (A. J.), Congregational Worship | (Young & Bartlett) | |
| Gross (E. J.), Algebra, Part II. | (Rivingtons) | |
| Huntington (Rev. J. T.), Select Orations of Lysias | (Ginn Bros.) | |
| Hyacinthe (Father), Catholic Reform | | |
| Jones (C. H.), African Exploration and Adventure | (Macmillan & Co.) | 2 00 |
| Lilly (W. S.), Characteristics from the Writings of J. H. Newman | (Henry Holt & Co.) | 2 50 |
| | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) | 2 50 |
| Lubbock (Sir J.), British Wild Flowers in relation to Insects | (Macmillan & Co.) | 1 50 |
| Macleod (Rev. N.), Character Sketches | (Dodd & Mead) | |
| Marshall (J. M.), Quinti Horati Flacci Opera, Vol. I. | (Rivingtons) | |
| Martin (T.), Life of H. R. H. the Prince Consort, Vol. I. | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Martineau (J.), Religion as Affected by Modern Materialism | (G. P. Putnam's Sons.) | 1 25 |
| Masson (Prof. D.), Three Devils, and other Essays | (Macmillan & Co.) | 1 75 |
| McLain (Mary W.), Wedding Garments | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) | 1 50 |
| Meredith (Isabella G.), The Old House on Briar Hill | (Dodd & Mead) | |
| Newman (Rev. J. H.), Letter on occasion of Mr. Gladstone's Recent Expostulation, swd. | (Cath. Pub. Soc.) | 0 50 |
| Portfolio, No. 61, swd. | (J. W. Bouton) | 1 00 |
| Prescott (W. H.), Robertson's Charles V., Vol. I. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Rice (H.), Nature and Culture | (Lee & Shepard) | 1 50 |
| Sargent (J. Y.) and Dallin (T. F.), Materials and Models for Latin Prose Compositions. | (Rivingtons) | |
| Schlegel (Prof. C. A.), A First German Book | (L. W. Schmidt) | |
| Seguin (Dr. E. C.), Series of American Clinical Lectures, Vol. I., No. 1, swd. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) | 0 40 |
| Sidgwick (H.), The Methods of Ethics | (Macmillan & Co.) | 4 00 |
| Smith (G.), Assyrian Discoveries | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) | 4 00 |
| Steiner (Prof. J.), Compendium of Children's Diseases | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Stretton (A.), The Wonderful Life | (Dodd & Mead) | |
| Supernatural Religion, 2 vols. | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Swedenborg (E.), Apocalypse Revealed, 2 vols. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Sweet (S.), History of English Sounds | (John Wiley & Son) | |
| Venable (W. H.), Dramas and Dramatic Scenes | (Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) | |
| Walker (Gen. F. A.), Statistical Atlas of the U. S. Part I. | (Washington) | |
| Washburn (Rev. E. A.), The Social Law of God | (T. Whittaker) | 1 50 |
| Whyte-Melville (G. J.), Katerfelto: a Story of Exmoor | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) | 4 50 |

# Fine Arts.

A NEW French periodical, *L'Art*, edited by M. Eugène Véron, and issuing from No. 3 Chaussée d'Antin, Paris, is represented by an address in almost every capital of the globe, among others that of F. W. Christern in this city. It is in ample folio form, the page giving room for very large etchings when necessary. Of the two which accompany the first number, one is rather rococo, being a beribboned, fluttering, voluptuous group after Boucher, called the "Happy Mother," and the other daintily Dutch, being a household scene after De Hooghe. The latter, etched by Rajon, is the better specimen of aqua-fortis work, though both are good interpretations in their styles. There are woodcuts in all profusion, those illustrating Pompeii art being not very novel and not very well printed. The text is of good artistic tone and agreeable, and includes music among its subjects.

—The representatives of Goupil in New York have made an exhibition in which, abandoning all concealment, they lay bare to the public gaze whatever they have of water-color art. Little sketches by Greuze and Joseph Vernet, snuff-box-lid painting by German miniaturists, the stippled rustics of English pastoral art, are brought into juxtaposition with the most brilliant examples of the Roman and Parisian schools. No part of the display is more interesting—though there is a Meissonier, and a radiant little landscape by Français—than the works of that small, audacious, and dazzling group, which, starting from the example of Fortuny and Villegas, have disported with so much effect as the Roman-Spanish colorists. Several of these painters, seizing with avidity upon aquarelle as the readiest means of expressing their peculiar researches, have brought up to water-color art the training and resources acquired in works of a larger scale, and touch the cartoon with all the ease of careless mastery. The specimen in the Goupil collection of Fortuny, though small and representing but a single figure, is a lesson in its technical specialty; the face, modelled in single plans and without correction, and the deep tint of the robe—it is an Arab in a mosque—are laid upon the sheet in direct breadths and touches, the purity of color being never endangered by going over and over; and the vigorous relief and roundness of the resulting figure, with its sombre splendor of tint, are triumphant. The others of the Roman-Spanish group—comrades or imitators of Fortuny and Regnault, and generally established in studios at Rome, are represented in a cluster, and include such names as Detti, Peralta, Filosa, Rossi, Ettore and Attilio Simonetti, and Ximenes—or, as usually written in modern spelling, Jimenez. The large Simonetti, representing an intrigue between a languid beauty and an *incroyable* during the somnolence of the husband, is a marvel of lustre and flash, entirely appropriate to the butterfly life depicted; quite in contrast, and recognizing an older system of instruction, is the school-scene with a culprit pupil, by Bianchi of Milan, in which the broad and delicate tones have more the effect of fresco. In fastidious contrast, again, is the work of Edouard Frère, who never took kindly to aquarelle, and who hardly permits the most reserved wash of color to blur the lines of his tender cottage group. The contrasting texts furnished by so complete and representative an exposition as this are almost puzzling to the tyro in water-color, while the advanced connoisseurs have wherewithal to sustain prolonged controversies according to their several tastes. The collection occupies the Kurtz gallery, and is arranged preparatory to a sale which will begin on the 15th.

—That Turner's pictures should come to be copied with sympathy and affection by French etchers would have seemed a thing almost impossible in his lifetime, considering the hostile distance then maintained between the artists of the two countries; yet in the English *Portfolio* for the past year there are several very beautiful copies of the sort, such as the "Téméraire" and "Wilkie's Burial"; and the motive cause of this good result, it is not too much to say, is primarily the existence in life of Mr. Hamerton, the editor of the periodical in question. The peculiar international education of this gentleman has really been of incalculable advantage to several of the arts, and has especially subserved the abatement of prejudice on the two sides of the Channel. The *Portfolio*, under his care, has been a very admirable master of ceremonies between the countries, and has harmonized the results of British and Gallic art in one chronicle of representative works. During the year covered by the volume that is now just bound, not only have prominent engravers of both races been introduced laboring side by side in all harmony; but the editor has rather slily inserted a choice lot of French scraps as arbitrary illustrations to his own serial of "The Sylvan Year." This is a narrative that almost any possible print would go with, being the dreamy record of idle months spent in lolling under trees or hanging over streams with books of poetry in hand; it is the reverie of an obstinate landscapist, and the impartial reader will be amused to see how triumphantly Mr. Hamerton drags in the Greek and Latin poets, who wrote before landscapes were felt or examined, in the character of singers of scenery, for all the world as if they looked at nature like Rossetti or Tennyson. "The Sylvan Year" closes with the volume. The monthly number for January introduces, along with etchings of the usual high quality, a photogravure after one of Jules Breton's paintings. The picture, a lovely group of peasant girls at a spring, is copied touch for touch, and is even happy in tone; it is probable, however, that the most valuable extremes both of light and shade are omitted, for the print has a non-committal, regular, cautious, safe style, like a timid mezzotint, and shows somewhat poorly beside the dazzling black and cream of the best etchings in the collection. It is to be acknowledged, however, that the method is the only one that can copy with precision the expression of a face, or other such close indication of the very soul with which the artist is creating his subject. Of the *Portfolio* altogether it is to be said that not only is it the first periodical in the English language devoted to fine-art, but that it leads all others by a very great distance, whatever the second and third of such publications may be taken to be. What with the erudite catalogue-making of Mr. Wornum, who annotates the series of etchings after the National Gallery pictures, the clear and attractive contributions of Mr. Hamerton, and the writings of other critics, a journal is made up which, if it be not quite so technically strong as

the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, is decidedly less Chinese and coast-bound in policy than that blindly national publication. The *Portfolio*, since the beginning of the year, has an American imprimatur in addition to its old one, being published in this country by Mr. J. W. Bouton. The number for January closes with some technical notes on painting methods, by Mr. Calderon; this feature is intended to be continued as a series of monographs, and will be especially valuable if the invitation to contribute is extended to Continental artists.


The attention of all readers of books of travel is invited to

*AFRICA:*

The History of Exploration and Adventure, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and numerous Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

"This has been compiled from the whole range of African literature, Livingstone's last journals included. . . . Each of the leading explorers has a chapter, and Livingstone four. Barth, Overwung and Richardson, Anderson, Du Chaillu, Burton and Speke, Grant, Baker, Stanley, Schweinfurth, and Bartle Frere, are among the explorers whose books are summarized at length, and there is also a valuable chapter on Christian Missions in Africa."—*New York Tribune.*

RECENTLY PUBLISHED:

A new and thoroughly-revised edition of

*ADAMS'S DEMOCRACY AND* Monarchy in France. From the Inception of the Great Revolution to the Overthrow of the Second Empire. 8vo, $2 50.

*GAUTIER'S A WINTER IN* Russia. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE MAD-* ding Crowd. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*MILL'S THREE ESSAYS ON RE-* ligion. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Issued February 10.

*DAYS NEAR ROME.* By Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Walks in Rome,' 'Memorials of a Quiet Life,' etc. With 100 illustrations, mostly from the author's own Sketches. Crown 8vo, 2 vols., $5; bound in 1 vol., $3 50.

"The ground, in many instances, had been almost untrodden; several of the places described are difficult of access, and have never before been visited by foreigners; and, in most cases, published descriptions either do not exist at all, or are so inaccurate and untrustworthy as to be only misguiding. A great field for discovery still remains, even within a day's journey of Rome; and if, in opening the way to others, I lead them to enjoy half the pleasure I have received from my own researches, I shall be more than rewarded."—*Extract from the Preface.*

PORTER & COATES, PUBLISHERS,
PHILADELPHIA.

In press, and will be sent free of charge to any address,

*PRICED AND DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE*

Of a large Collection of
SCARCE, STANDARD, AND CURIOUS ENGLISH AND FOREIGN BOOKS,

Memoirs, History, Poetry, the Drama, Shakspere, Works in French and Italian, Travels, Ana, Anecdote, Bons Mots, Books of Prints, Science, Medicine, Dentistry, Belles Lettres, etc., etc.

FOR SALE BY
A. DENHAM & CO.,
Importers and Publishers,
17 MURRAY STREET, NEW YORK.

*The Reader on Sir John Lubbock's Insects, Mr. St. G. Mivart's Frog, Professor Forbes's Transit of Venus, Mr. William Spottiswoode's Polarization of Light, Mr. J. Norman Lockyer's Spectroscope, Mr. G. F. Rodwell's Birth of Chemistry, of "Nature Series," and Messrs. Macmillan's Announcements, are on page* 104.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

*WILSON, HINKLE & CO.,*

PUBLISHERS,

CINCINNATI AND NEW YORK.

NEW BOOKS.

*ECLECTIC HISTORICAL ATLAS.* Full 8vo, cloth, 18 double-page Maps, accurately drawn and engraved. A hand-book for general readers and students in Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History. $1 50.

*DRAMAS AND DRAMATIC* Scenes. Edited by W. H. Venable, author of 'School Stage,' 'Amateur Actor,' 'U. S. History.' 20 plays selected from the writings of Standard Authors. Illustrations by Farny. 12mo, cloth, 336 pages, $1 50.

*ELEMENTS OF PHYSICS.* For Academies and Common Schools. By S. A. Norton, A.M., Professor in Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College, and author of 'Elements of Natural Philosophy.' 12mo, 286 pp., $1 15. Supplies for first introduction into schools, and single sample copies for examination with a view to introduction, 84 cents per copy.

*PESTALOZZI, HIS LIFE, WORK,* and Influence. By Herman Krüsi, A.M., Instructor in Philosophy of Education at the Oswego Normal and Training School. Cloth, 8vo, 248 pp., Portrait and Illustrations, $2 25.

WILSON, HINKLE & CO., PUBLISHERS,
Cincinnati and New York.

*A NEW SUNDAY-SCHOOL* Magazine. To be published monthly. For Pastors, Superintendents, Normal-class Teachers, etc. Not to interfere with the *Sunday-School Journal.* To begin January, 1875.

*THE NORMAL CLASS:* A Monthly Magazine for the Discussion of all Sunday-school Topics; the Publication of Normal-class Outlines; Normal-class Text-papers; Descriptions of Sunday-schools; Institute, Convention, and Sunday-school Programmes; Sunday-school News; Notes from all Parts of the World; Valuable Papers on Teaching; Sunday-school History, Administration, etc., etc. J. H. Vincent, editor. First Number ready Dec. 20.

Size of 'The Normal Class,' 48 pages, 12mo.

Price of 'The Normal Class,' $1 50 per year.

Address
NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

BOOKS FOR THOUGHTFUL READERS.

*CULTURE AND RELIGION* in some of their Relations. By J. C. Shairp, Principal of the United College of St. Salvador and St. Leonard, St. Andrews. Sixth edition, cloth, 16mo, $1 25.

*STUDIES IN POETRY AND PHI-* losophy. (Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Keble.) By Principal J. C. Shairp, author of 'Culture and Religion.' Second edition, cloth, 16mo, $1 50.

For sale by Booksellers. Sent, postpaid, on receipt of price, by the Publishers,

HURD & HOUGHTON, NEW YORK.
THE RIVERSIDE PRESS, CAMBRIDGE.

*A PASSIONATE PILGRIM,* and Other Tales. By Henry James, Jr. $2.

The volume contains six stories, namely: 'A Passionate Pilgrim,' 'The Last of the Valerii,' 'Eugene Pickering,' 'The Madonna of the Future,' 'The Romance of Certain Old Clothes,' 'Madame de Mauves.' These tales comprise some of the most clever studies in character I have seen anywhere. They are full of fresh description, of that vein of half philosophy, half speculation, which is so taking just now; and the plots are eminently original and unhackneyed. —*New York Tribune.*

*PARNASSUS.* Edited by R. W. Emerson. Revised edition. $4.

*A FOREGONE CONCLUSION.* By W. D. Howells. 3d edition. $2.

☞ For sale by all Booksellers. Sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, by the Publishers,

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

*THE HISTORY OF SWITZER-* land. By Heinrich Zschokke. New Edition. 1 vol. 12mo, $1 75.

*A FREE LANCE IN THE FIELD OF* Life and Letters. By Prof. W. C. Wilkinson. 1 vol. 12mo, $1 50.

"Mr. Wilkinson wields a free pen, bravely, effectively, and brilliantly."—*N. Y. Evening Mail.*

*THE CRITICAL AND HISTORI-* cal Essays of Lord Macaulay. In 1 vol., extra cloth, $2 50.

*AN IDIOMATIC KEY TO THE* French Language. By Profs. Lambert and Sardou. 1 vol. 12mo, $1 50.

ALBERT MASON, PUBLISHER,
13 Astor Place, New York.

The new work by Paul Lacroix.

*XVIIIme Siecle,*

INSTITUTIONS, USAGES ET COSTUMES,

France 1700–1789. Illustrated with twenty-one chromo-lithographic plates, and three hundred and fifty engravings on wood after Watteau, Vanloo, Rigaud, Boucher, J. Vernet, Saint-Aubin, Eisen, Gravelot, Moreau, Wille, etc., etc. A handsome vol. 520 pp., imperial 8vo, half red morocco, extra gilt, gilt leaves, $15. Paris, Didot, 1875.

Imported and for Sale by
J. W. BOUTON,
706 Broadway, New York.

*Checkmate.*

By J. S. Le Fanu, Author of 'Lost Name,' 'Tenants of Mallory,' etc., etc. 1 vol. 8vo, paper, 75 cents.

"A very pretty society story. In some parts it is intensely dramatic, reminding one of Wilkie Collins's best novels."—*Press.*

ESTES & LAURIAT,
143 Washington Street, opposite Old South, Boston.

*TEN CENTS PER BOOK.*

SELECTED POEMS.

(*ILLUSTRATED.*)

PRINTED ON HEAVY TONED PAPER.

No. 17.—'Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.' Will be ready on Feb. 15th.

"WORTH READING."

JUST READY:

No. 5.—The Funeral Solemnities of the English—Their Passion for Flattering Epitaphs (Oliver Goldsmith).

On Burial Societies and the Character of an Undertaker (Charles Lamb).

KILBOURNE TOMPKINS,
16 Cedar Street, New York.

☞ Sent, postage paid, on receipt of price.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE single bill of importance, except the Indian Appropriation Bill, which has passed the House during the past few days, is a measure for the equalization of bounties, which would increase the debt by $100,000,000 or so; but it was passed for buncombe, and it is said cannot get through the Senate. Several bills have received a quietus, among others the "Choctaw Claim," which would have taken $3,500,000 out of the Treasury, though it appears from the debate that this money is detained in the Treasury somewhat in the way that the *Alabama* fund was invested in United States bonds, rather in the interest of economy than of justice or morality. The arguments principally used against it were that the Choctaws had enough provisions already, and that the money would chiefly go into the hands of speculators. In the Senate, on Wednesday, the Steamboat Bill, which is said to have been in Congress for four years, was recommitted to the Committee on Commerce, and the Senate also discussed Mr. Morton's amendment to the District of Columbia Bill, making the government elective instead of appointed. On the same day, in the House, Mr. Dawes, from the Committee of Ways and Means, reported the new Tax and Tariff Bill, taxing, first, distilled spirits one dollar a gallon, with an additional tax of fifteen cents over and above the present tax of seventy cents on all spirits now on hand; second, imported liquors $2 50 a gallon; also, increasing the tax on tobacco from twenty to twenty-four cents, and, further, repealing the ten per cent. "horizontal reduction" of a few years ago on manufactured goods; and, finally, abolishing the tax on lucifer matches. The bill was referred to the Committee of the Whole, and made the special order for the next day. The House also finally killed, by an almost unanimous vote, the Pacific Mail contract and subsidy of 1872. On Thursday, the Senate rejected Mr. Morton's amendment to the District of Columbia Bill by a vote of 28 to 28. The House then went into committee of the whole on the Tax and Tariff Bill, Mr. Dawes making a speech in its favor, and Mr. Wood against it. On Friday, the Senate made short work of the Portland, Dalles, and Salt-Lake Railroad and Telegraph subsidy, Mr. Frelinghuysen first explaining that the Committee on Railroads, which had six or seven subsidy bills before them, had determined not to report any of them. The bill was voted down by yeas, 21, nays, 46.

On the same day the Republican House caucus, very thinly attended, adopted substantially the bill for the government of the South reported by the joint caucus committee. The debates of the caucus showed that the more prudent Republicans are beginning to get alarmed at the direction things are taking. Mr. Garfield and Mr. Blaine are both opposed to the bill, the former having remarked that, if it means anything, it means "third term." The bill as agreed upon revives the power of the President to suspend habeas corpus whenever he is convinced that there is a rebellion going on in any State. On the question of the suspension of habeas corpus, we quote the very significant language of Mr. Blaine, as given by a party organ in Washington:

"He could not see why Southern States like Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, that were now trying to sustain good governments, should be menaced and excited by a suspension of habeas corpus. Moreover, the pending proposition was unlimited as to territory and unlimited as to time. The bill, if it should become a law, would confer upon the President of the United States for all time to come, whoever that President might be, the right and power to suspend the habeas corpus at his sole and absolute discretion in any city, county, district, or State within the Union."

On Saturday, in the Senate, the District of Columbia Bill was discussed and amended, and in the House the Equalization Bounty Bill was passed. On Monday, nothing of importance was done in either House, except that the Senate made a beginning of Mr. Pinchback's case.

The details of the Southern bill are as monstrous as its general spirit. The first section makes it a felony for two or more persons to "interfere," even, in an "unlawful manner" with the "due execution of the laws of a State or of the United States"—a clause which would make all the railroad officials who resist what they believe to be the unconstitutional laws of Wisconsin or any other State liable to be thrown into jail for ten years and fined ten thousand dollars apiece; the second section, however, is more lenient, for it makes the punishment in case these two or more persons actually conspire to overthrow a State government, or do "actually overthrow" it, only $5,000 and two years in jail; while apparently all these things, if done by a single person, would not be a crime at all. The third section provides that no United States voter who can now vote shall ever be deprived of the right by any State; the fourth makes it presumptive evidence of an attempt to "intimidate" if any one is found with firearms on election day or registration day, and makes intimidation of State voters a crime against the United States. The fifth and sixth and other sections put the State elections generally under the control of the United States officials, while the seventh section provides that it shall be murder to kill anybody who is carrying out the provisions of this law.

The financial debates of the last week or two have been in many ways singular. In June of last year Mr. Dawes, as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, made a speech on the estimates, in which he said that our receipts for the preceding fiscal year overran our expenses by $5,000,000, that our expenses had for the coming (the present) year been cut down by $26,000,000, and that therefore, supposing our receipts were no better this year than they were last, we should still not only make ends meet, but have a surplus. In other words, our receipts would have to fall off this year by over $31,000,000 to make a deficit. It is now said that receipts for the seven months of the current fiscal year which have already elapsed have fallen below those of last year by $3,379,000; but even if this rate of diminution is maintained to the end, which is unlikely, we shall still have a surplus, supposing the expenses have not increased, and the revenue is almost certain to be as good as ever during the year beginning June next. To what extent the expenses have increased we do not know, but either they have increased enormously or the increase of taxation now proposed of $40,000,000 is totally unnecessary. The talk about the Sinking Fund is only darkening counsel, because the Sinking Fund obligations, whatever they are, were in existence last year when Mr. Dawes made his speech.

The fact is, however, that there is no such thing as a "Sinking Fund" in existence, and there never has been. The origin of the belief in it is this: The provision of the Loan Act of February, 1862, section 5, looking to the establishment of such a fund lay dormant until the Secretary of the Treasury in 1869 began to buy bonds, a portion of which, as appears by his report to Congress in December of that year, he designated as Sinking Fund Bonds. Congress then, in pursuance of recommendations in the same report, passed the Act of July 14, 1870, to authorize the refunding of the public debt, but added thereto, in the 6th section, provisions of the highest importance, both to the country and its creditors. By those provisions, all bonds that had been or should be applied to that fund, and all other bonds redeemed or purchased by the United States, were required to be "cancelled and destroyed," and the amount of them to be deducted from the outstanding public debt. By force of the two Acts, then, the Government has

entered into an engagement with its creditors—not that it will maintain a sinking fund to accumulate for the future payment of its debt—but, what is a great deal better, that it will absolutely pay and extinguish, once for all, an amount of its debt equal to one per cent. for each year. This engagement to its creditors the Government has fully kept and performed, and there does not seem to be any present necessity to add taxation on that account.

We have not at this writing got the report of the second committee which went down to Louisiana to investigate the state of things there, but Mr. Frye, one of its members, has been talking freely as to the results of their researches, and gives a very bad account of the state of things there—substantially the same, however, as that reported by the sub-committee. Business is prostrate, the laws silent, the people unhappy and hopeless. He thinks there has been great intimidation of voters, but not on election-day—the intimidators, according to him, taking great pains to suspend their labors on the day of voting. The Returning Board was not, he thinks, guilty of any fraud, but the Conservatives had a legal majority in the House, and were therefore entitled to the Speakership. On this point, however, Mr. Frye must excuse us if we wait until we hear from General De Trobriand, as it was he and fifteen soldiers who passed on the qualifications of the members. The troubles in New Orleans Mr. Frye ascribes not to the real Conservatives, who are very respectable men, nor yet to the Radicals, who are *ex officio* respectable, but to a body of young men called "the wicked element," who have attained their majority since the war, and have no regular occupation, and whose feet are now swift to do evil. It appears also that General Sheridan is insulted by anonymous letters, by hissing in the street, and by talk directed at him at the hotel table. If this be a true account of the state of things in the city—if it contains a "wicked element," and General Sheridan is hissed in the streets, and talked at at the *table d'hôte*, we ask no more. Bring up the guns, away with the Constitution, suspend the habeas corpus.

The Burlington (Vt.) *Free Press*, Mr. Trenor W. Park's home organ, has published a letter about the Emma Mine signed "P," which appears to be written by the only "P." in the United States capable of asserting that "all who are acquainted with the history of the transaction [the sale of the mine] know how groundless the charge [of fraud] is." We need hardly say we mean the eminent Park himself. The sale has been pronounced fraudulent already in the English courts, and we venture to say that not one of the principals would venture to show his face in England at this moment. "P.'s" version of the transaction, as he relates it in the *Free Press*, is, as his readers will find out before long, an amusing and impudent fiction, which he has already published several times. He flatters himself that the suit brought against him and his confederates by the English stockholders is "a sham, never intended to be brought to trial." This is what he would doubtless like it to be; few of his kind really believe that they will be brought into court—if they did they would behave better; but he never was more mistaken. He also says that there are two actions for libel pending arising out of the affair, one brought by Professor Silliman, and the other by Mr. Silas Williams, Park's manager at the mine, against the *Nation*. In this "P." is again in error. Professor Silliman threatened us with an action, and we invited him to bring one, as did the Springfield *Republican*, but he did not do so. Mr. J. D. Whitney, the geologist, then brought him before the National Academy of Science, on this and other charges affecting his professional conduct, but that body has, we regret to say, declined to investigate the matter, as beyond its competence. His share in the Emma Mine affair, however, will of course now be investigated in the pending suit. Mr. Silas Williams has brought a suit against us—as we believe, instigated by Park, who hoped doubtless that the whole affair might thus go off on a side issue, and that he himself might escape under cover of Williams's dust. But we now assure our readers that, though Williams's case will be tried, Park will not escape; that he and his confederates, Stewart and Baxter, will really be brought to book; that the evidence against them is, we believe, conclusive, and that the overhauling they will get will be a great thing both for the politics of the country and its commercial honor.

We ought to add here that the public must not be deceived in this Emma Mine matter by the notion, which forms the main point in Park's newspaper defences, that the vendees in London were a different party from the vendors, and that therefore, if the latter were satisfied (and it was they who employed Professor Silliman), there was no fraud in the sale. The fact is that the vendors and vendees were to all intents and purposes confederates, and where the fraud began was really in the sale of the shares to the general public. Park and Stewart got up the company, of which they were part, in order to sell the mine to it, and then the company cheated the public. General Schenck, for instance, was one of the vendees, but nobody supposes he was a good man to sell a mine to. He was engaged by the vendors to be a vendee in order to secure the use of his name in aid of the sale of the shares. What stock he held he had either to borrow the money for from the vendors, or had it allotted to him by them as a reward for his services. The affair was managed by Albert Grant in the usual manner of "bubble companies," and he received, we believe, $500,000 for carrying it through.

The meeting of the Liberal members of the House of Commons to elect a "leader," which our correspondent discusses in another column, has excited a good deal of sensation in England, and forms the subject of one of Mr. Bagehot's lucid articles in the last number of the *Economist*, as the first open departure from a constitutional usage established ever since 1688, but which, as Mr. Bagehot points out, has really been extinct for some time, though its extinction has never been recognized in practice until now. That is to say, the usage has been, ever since the revolution of that year, for the King to select the person who should form the Cabinet and appear for the Government in the House of Commons, and the person so selected accepted the place at first in any case, but more recently only in case he thought he could command the majority of the Lower House. In short, the King designated the leader of the House, and the majority accepted him. As time wore on, the House threw up into prominence three or four persons, among whom the King found himself obliged by circumstances to make his selection, but still the selection was his. More recently, the House really presented the only person whom he could select, but the choice continued to be his *in appearance*. Now, however, for the first time, even the appearance of deference to the royal authority is thrown off, and the party meets out of doors and chooses the man who must be Prime Minister if it comes into power, leaving the Queen no choice in the matter. In other words, the Premier is selected by a party caucus.

The progress which the French Assembly seemed to be making towards the adoption of a constitution was rudely interrupted on Thursday of last week by the adoption of an amendment to the Senate bill which made the members of that body elective by universal suffrage in the same manner as the other House, thus making it impossible to give it a different character or composition, except by exacting qualifications for eligibility to it. This was accomplished by the support of the Bonapartists, and the minute it took place the Right broke up its alliance with the Left, and when the bill came up for a third reading it was rejected by 357 to 345—a result which was hastened by an announcement that if the bill were passed in that shape the Ministry would resign. The situation, however, as the defeat of the bill left it, was by no means reassuring, as the defeat seemed to put a stop for the present, if not for good, to all attempts at constitution-making on the part of the present Assembly. The excitement was accordingly very great, and in the midst of it M. Busson, of the Left, moved for a dissolution and the election of a new Assembly in April, but was badly defeated, and M. Wadington of the Left Centre came to the rescue with another bill making the Councils-General, the Colonies, and the In-

stitutes the constituency of the Senate. This was referred to the Committee of Thirty. Sunday seems to have been given up to rumors, one of which was that the Ministry had resigned, but the probabilities are that they will stick to their agreement to stay in office until the Assembly either drafts a constitution or definitively fails to do so. It is safe to say that no Second Chamber elected by universal suffrage will ever be accepted by MacMahon, and there is no reason why it should, for such a body would be a useless appendage to the government. A Senate elected by a selected constituency would, doubtless, not be as strong as the Assembly, but it would be as strong as the constitution, and would at all events introduce a steadier and more intelligent element into the administration and legislation than the Assembly could supply. Of course no such body would have great weight until it had lived long, but this is true of any institution that can be set up in France, and the problem of French politics just now seems to be to set up anything that *will* live.

---

The situation is, however, very critical. The debates have been marked by extraordinary violence, and a duel arising out of one of them involving so considerable a person as the Duke Decazes was at one time impending. The Duc de Broglie, it may be remembered, refused to take office until the constitutional bills were disposed of, being unwilling to face this ordeal, and was by implication supposed to be ready to do so when this was over. Unluckily, however, he took part in the discussion, and was so badly beaten on one of his motions that he is considered *hors de combat* as regards the formation of a new ministry—a fact which makes the present crisis somewhat more serious, for there does not seem to be anybody else for Marshal MacMahon to turn to. The position of parties may be summed up by saying that just as each is willing to have the present Assembly exercise constitutional powers, if it will only exercise them in what each considers the right way, so each party is willing to abide by the principles of the Ventavon bill if they are applied in what it considers the right way. For instance, both Right and Left agree that the present Assembly should provide for the "transmission" of the President's powers, but disagree about the method. Both think there ought to be a Senate, but disagree as to its composition and the manner of its election. Each is willing that the Senate should, with the President, have the power of dissolving the lower house, if it can have the kind of Senate it wants. The Bonapartists in the meantime act in all this turmoil the part of the mocking fiend. Their policy is to use their forces in such a way as to prevent any final arrangement, because they believe, and rightly, that the prolongation of confusion tells in their favor, and so, they think, does what has recently happened in Spain. Isabella has written to Eugénie, hoping that the piece of good fortune which has befallen Spain is soon to befall France. The revenue, in the meantime, is feeling the effects of the uncertainty, and the financial outlook for the ensuing year is "blue."

---

The German Parliament has carried through one other piece of legislation which forms a most important step in that secularization of the Empire of which the war against the Catholic Church is really only a part. Hitherto the laws relating to marriage have, of course, been different in every state, little and big. The new law enables people to have their children baptized or not as they please, and to be married without the aid of a minister of any denomination and before a civil registrar, if they prefer it, or, in other words, assimilates the law of marriage to that of France, against which the church at first kicked vigorously, but to which it now quietly submits—the priest making no objection to giving the nuptial benediction to couples who have been already legally married before the maire. In Germany, now, a woman must have the consent of her father if she marries before twenty-four, a man if he marries before twenty-five; but, the "Suffragists" will be shocked to hear, the mother's consent is not required unless the father is dead. Should he refuse his consent, the candidate for matrimony may get a dispensation from the courts. A person divorced for adultery cannot marry his or her paramour, and widows cannot remarry for ten months after the death of the husband. Any clergyman who marries a couple without the previous performance of the civil registration can be fined $75 or sent to jail for three months. All jurisdiction of marriage and divorce is taken away from the clergy, and priests, monks, and nuns may legally marry if they please. A similar act was passed for Prussia some time ago, and since it has been in operation only 25 per cent. of the marriages in Berlin have been celebrated in churches and only 30 per cent. of the children born have been baptized by clergymen—a striking illustration of the smallness of the aid which the state can render the church in retaining its hold on the popular conscience.

---

The Landsturm Bill lately passed places every man in the country between the ages of 17 and 42 in the army; and whenever the Government "thinks an enemy is invading or threatening to invade the country," the whole force may be called out for active service, and the act may be enforced in any one province of the empire the Government may select, and not in the others. This will raise the German army, should only the first ban of the Landsturm be called out, to 1,750,000 men and 45,718 officers. Should the whole of the Landsturm be called out, the total will be 2,800,000. Under the existing French law, when working up to the maximum, the total French force will be 1,698,000 men and 36,000 officers. The Russian force, under the new military law, reaches, or will reach in ten years, 3,376,000 men and about 100,000 officers. The small powers are fast following in the same path, with ruinous influence on their finances, though doubtless with—particularly in Italy—excellent effect on the morale of the population. But what a difference in some important respects there is at present between the armies may be guessed from the fact that Germany has only 4 per cent. of illiterates among her rank and file; while France has 23, Austria 54, and Russia 87.

---

The Montenegrin quarrel with Turkey, arising out of an affray at a fair at a town in Turkish Albania, called Podgoritza, in which several Montenegrins were killed, has just been settled, but, like the dispute in 1852 about the Holy Sepulchre, it shows on what slight matters the peace of Europe in the East may be said to depend. Turkey tried and convicted her own murderers, but as some Turks were killed too, she demanded that the Montenegrins who killed them should be surrendered for trial before her tribunals also. This the Montenegrins considered a mere pretext to avoid any satisfaction whatever, and there was for a long time danger of a popular rising in Montenegro for a raid over the frontier, in spite of the efforts of the Prince to keep the peace, and of the German and Russian Ambassadors to make Turkey yield. The outbreak would have imposed on Austria the almost impossible duty of preserving her neutrality on the mountainous frontier of Dalmatia, and would have tempted Russia into supporting her co-religionists, and so on. Luckily, however, both Austria, Russia, and Germany found it possible to act together, but the danger is not over. The inhabitants on both sides of the Turkish frontier are fiercely hostile, as they have been for ages. Collisions are constantly impending, and the Montenegrin population is increasing in their little nook of barren mountains, and the temptation to push over the line therefore increasing also. Moreover, the thing which the Montenegrins most desire is a seaport, which, though they are in sight of the sea, they do not possess; and yet on the little slip of territory which cuts them off from the water, and which naturally belongs to them, Turkey has three harbors which she never uses and cannot use, and which the Montenegrins long for, and the sight of which infuriates them. The recent dispute was settled by Turkey agreeing to have the Montenegrins tried in Montenegro for offences committed on Turkish soil, and to send the Turkish witnesses over the border—a concession to Montenegrin subjects of the ex-territoriality enjoyed by those of other Christian powers which is, all things considered, no slight concession.

## THE DESPERADOES AND THE HABEAS CORPUS.

WHEN the first Ku-Klux Act was passed in 1871, daring as were its violations not only of the Constitution but of all sound and valuable political usage, the country bore with it, owing to the facts that the outrages committed in South Carolina seemed to call for violent measures, and that the Act was to expire in a year. We pointed out at the time the ingenious fraud by which it evaded the plain prohibition of the Constitution that the "habeas corpus shall not be suspended except when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may seem to require it." The way the majority got over this, and provided that the habeas corpus should be suspended in time of peace, was fully as dishonest as many of the acts for which men are sent to the penitentiary. It consisted in giving a new and previously unheard-of meaning to the words "rebellion and invasion"; that is to say, the Act declared that the term "rebellion" should, on this occasion, no longer signify what it had always signified, both in the nomenclature of jurisprudence and in popular usage—an actual war carried on by organized bodies of men against the Government—but a concourse of "insurrections, domestic violence, combinations, and conspiracies" (terms defined by the Act itself), either carried on against the State authorities, or by them. In short, the majority in Congress, by an unwarrantable perversion of the language, invented a new offence, unknown to the Constitution, and declared that whenever the President saw or thought he saw this he might suspend the writ. The Constitution and the law, as they had previously stood, allowed him no such discretion. They only authorized him to call out the militia and proclaim martial law when certain well-known and easily recognized phenomena, which stopped the ordinary social machinery, presented themselves. That is to say, they left him no more discretion than they would have left him had they said that the habeas corpus could only be suspended during a famine or after a destructive earthquake. What Congress did was to step in and declare that, if pie was scarce, it should be held that there was a famine, or that, if strange noises were heard in the night-time, it should be deemed to all intents and purposes that an earthquake was raging.

It was originally intended by the Desperadoes of the party in 1871 to bestow this tremendous and fraudulent discretion on the President not for one year only, but for two, or, in other words, until after the Presidential election, so that he might have the power, during his own canvass, to place half the country under martial law on any pretext which he chose to consider sufficient. This monstrous proposal was only defeated in the Senate by the strenuous exertions of Mr. Schurz and a few others of the saner members of the party. The plan has, however, evidently lingered in the minds of the originators as something it was desirable to bring up again if possible, and they accordingly brought up and carried in the Republican caucus in Washington, the other day, the draught of a bill giving the President this extraordinary power for an indefinite period. The project was of course resisted and denounced by Mr. Blaine and such other Northern members as have not lost their heads, and still retain some susceptibility to the working of public opinion at home, and we have no fear that it will be possible to embody it in legislation. But that it should have been seriously proposed as a party measure, by a majority of the Republican members, to bestow the power of arbitrary imprisonment on an elective officer during a period when he will or may himself be a candidate for re-election, not in time of war, but in time of peace, and for the ordinary purposes of internal police, and in direct defiance of the Constitution, is perhaps as striking an illustration as any one could wish for of the sort of mental and moral derangement into which the prolonged absorption in wild and impracticable schemes is apt to throw people. That the Republican party should pass out of power while pushing a bill differing little from the French Law of Public Safety, and really converting the President into a sort of tawdry Cæsar, is perhaps as unusual an incident as could be found in political history, and yet it is a by no means unnatural result of the confusion of judgment into which it allowed itself to be irritated after Mr. Lincoln's death by Southern recalcitrancy. The first plan for protecting the negro, the bestowal of the suffrage, may not have been wise, and was sure, like any scheme, to be only partially effective; but it was not unreasonable or illogical. It was doing for the negro the best thing, and indeed one might say the only thing, within reach of the party which emancipated him; and if the attempts for his relief had stopped there, there would be little to be now said. But the not by any means extraordinary and somewhat obstreperous resistance of the whites to having their old slaves made equal to them, and in some cases put over them, at one stroke, completely threw the Republican majority off their balance, and seems indeed to have plunged them in temporary madness. The more the South kicked, the more the Republican party determined to do by legislation for the negro, until it soon found itself directing the President to work miracles for him with the aid of the army and navy. It was not enough to give the colored man the ballot and full standing in the courts—the party was soon goaded into trying to make Southern whites look upon him as a superior being, and treat him with a respect and consideration and forbearance which they have never shown even to men of their own race. Attempts were made to achieve for him by bill and resolution, and committees of investigation, in a wild and half-civilized social state, what legislation has never done for white men in any state—that is, to save him from the ordinary results of weakness and poverty and ignorance, and enable him to govern people stronger, wilier, richer, more astute than himself. Whites, in his condition, are always more or less "intimidated" and oppressed and "ostracised," even in the most highly civilized and best governed countries. They could not escape it except by a change in human nature; and the most that rational legislators usually attempt by way of remedy is to encourage religious and moral influences, and provide upright administration of justice, and then wait patiently for the Kingdom of Heaven. But neither experience nor common sense made any impression on the men who are now winding up their political career in Washington. They seemed to suppose that as the black man had been so badly oppressed, and was ready to vote the Republican ticket, Providence would somehow interfere directly on his behalf.

The truth is that, what with the irritation caused by the white resistance, and the humanitarian enthusiasm excited by the war, the Republican party has been undertaking tasks by which, among a rational people, any party was sure to be ruined before long. The schemes of the more advanced members of it have all along had a flavor of Jacobin indifference to time and place and circumstances. Many of the provisions of the Enforcement Acts are as comic as the famous proposal to expel all the rascals from France. The utmost that was possible to accomplish by legislation after the war, was to make the colored people as comfortable as the condition of a barbarous and impoverished society, in which they formed the lowest stratum, would permit, and trust to the great but slow working forces of civilization for the rest. But our Washington statesmen would not be content with anything short of the immediate regeneration of Southern society in time for the celebration of 1876. They would not even be content with the cessation of acts of violence. They insisted on all Southern whites providing themselves at once with a new social ideal like that of Massachusetts. They wanted to have all Southern villages at once modelled on Concord or Natick. Men who had four years before considered the negro a beast of burden, were expected suddenly to treat him as a friend and fellow-citizen. Men who were bred in no more respect for free discussion than a Montenegrin, were suddenly to display as great a faith in "the interchange of views" as Henry Wilson or Horace Greeley. A society in which physical courage held the highest place among the virtues, and private war had for two hundred years been an honored custom, was to become in a year as peaceable and long-suffering and tolerant as a Methodist conference. A society whose politics had during all that period been regulated by "intimidation," and based on "intimidation," was expected to treat intimidation as a disgraceful offence on hearing that Northern moralists thought ill of it. At this moment there are plenty of half-cracked zealots

in Congress, not without influence either, who will declare that they are ready to suspend the Constitution, or overturn it, until such time as an orator can abuse the South as freely in New Orleans as he can in Boston. There is no answer to be made to such people. There is only one way of dealing with them, and happily that is likely to prove effective, viz., to ask the American people to send them home and commit the Government to those who have some faith in the progressive instincts of human nature and in American political principles. The Southern problem is not one to be solved by Jacobin commissaries, with "troops" at their heels. "The army and navy" have not made the North what it is, and they cannot make the South what it ought to be. Great and free and flourishing societies are not called into existence by sounding a cavalry trumpet, and the poison of two hundred years of slavery cannot be extracted from any body politic by the sword. There is no medicine for this but time and patience, and the growth of wealth and population; the sense of mutual dependence, and the kindliness which this sense generates; and the removal as far as may be of all reminders of the tremendous conflict in which slavery perished. The Southern negro cannot in one Presidential term, or in one generation, be converted into a person whom Anglo-Saxons like to have govern them; and the Southern white cannot in one generation be made to feel that it was a great mistake that he did not let the negro govern him sooner. If it had been easy for men of his race to take this view of the black man, doubtless the lot of the latter would have been much happier; but doubtless, too, the American Union would never have existed to shelter him, for nothing is more certain than that the Southern stiff-neckedness which is now troubling us so much has its root in the noble temper which gave us Hampden, and Cromwell, and Washington.

## MR. GLADSTONE'S RETIREMENT.

IT would be difficult for a politician in any country to secure a more gratifying triumph than Mr. Gladstone has had in the effect produced by the news of his retirement from the leadership of the Liberal party in England. It has been treated on all sides as a political event of great moment, and rightly so, for his resigning of the leadership evidently means that his political life is practically at an end. There has been a great deal of gossip about his motives and the nature of the special piece of work which, as he incidentally remarks, is now occupying his time. Abdications by great statesmen have been as rare in England as abdications by monarchs, and of late so many Parliamentary leaders have remained in harness till past eighty years of age that people are surprised when a man so full of vigor—physical as well as mental vigor—as Mr. Gladstone, talks of passing his declining years in peace and meditation. His friends, however, have no cause for surprise, for he intimated long ago that he always intended to preserve, if he could, the last years of his life for rest and seclusion, not only to prepare himself for quitting this world, but to find some leisure for projects of study which he had looked forward to ever since youth, and which the pressure of business had forbidden him to carry out. His enemies and detractors, of whom there are plenty among his nominal supporters, insist that he is moved by mortified pride and resentment at his defeat a year ago. Others complain that he forsakes his party in adversity, just when it wanted all his powers to rally it and reunite its discordant sections. But the truth is that he was tired of politics some time before the fall of his ministry, and had stated explicitly then that he would never form another; and though he would probably have continued to lead had the Liberals been still in power, he doubtless feels that to lead them in Opposition is not specially his vocation—not a task for which he is as well fitted as some inferior men might be. He is a great statesman, a great orator, a great administrator; but he is not, he has never been, a great party leader. At supreme moments he is able to rouse the mass of his followers to enthusiasm, but in ordinary times he is too much occupied by his own ideas to feel the pulse, so to speak, of a party and keep himself quite *en rapport* with them. He wants many of the ordinary sentiments and prejudices of Englishmen, and has no taste for many of their pleasures; and this is one of the causes which have prevented him from being personally popular outside a small circle of intimate friends. In fact, he is not distinctively an Englishman at all, but a Scotchman—a good specimen of the Scotch character on its fervid Celtic side, which is quite as truly Scotch as the cautious Teutonic side. Fervor was all very well when he was carrying through great measures, but now a different sort of general is needed for the defeated and dispirited army; a general who will be calm, watchful, crafty, patient, prepared to take advantage of every slight mistake, and to win back his ground by frequent skirmishes rather than by attacks in force. Now, this is just what Mr. Gladstone is not suited for, and he knows it himself. He would tire of a merely watching policy, and would feel that his powers were being wasted with no corresponding result. The premiership—that great prize which dangles before the eyes of an Opposition leader in England—he has already enjoyed, and would not care to regain. The questions which have now most interest for him are ecclesiastical questions, and his views on these are opposed to those of the great bulk of English Liberals, two-thirds of whom are prepared for the disestablishment of the Church of England, from which Mr. Gladstone recoils, and nearly all of whom are opposed to those High-Church or sacerdotal theories to which he still clings. He would, therefore, in those very discussions that most keenly interest him, either have to sacrifice his own feelings to those of his followers, or submit to see himself deserted by them. However much, therefore, one may regret his retirement from public life, it cannot be considered a mistake; and still less can we believe that it is due to mere spleen and disappointment.

It is not the less a great loss, a great misfortune, to England. He has been far the greatest public man of his own generation, and greater, so far as one can judge, than any public man since the days of the second William Pitt, or, at any rate, of George Canning. Wiser and more far-sighted statesmen she may perhaps have had, and she has certainly had more popular and adroit ones. Peel, Lord Melbourne, Lord Palmerston, men themselves very different, were in these qualities his superiors; while in single flights of eloquence Mr. Bright seems to most of us to surpass, and Mr. Lowe almost to rival, his best performances. But Mr. Gladstone, taken all in all, overtops every and each of these contemporaries and predecessors. There is a largeness, a force, a versatility, an ardor about him which appeals far more powerfully to one's imagination than does Peel with all his frigid dignity of wisdom, or Canning with his somewhat superficial brilliancy. There is also a moral elevation about him, an imaginative amplitude of conception, a sensitiveness of conscience, which, though they have sometimes led him into mistakes, have been of the greatest service in raising the whole tone of English politics and public men. There is a "note" of purity about his words and acts rare at all times, and rarest in a man whose whole life has been passed in seeing and dealing with many of the meanest sides of human nature.

"Why, then," it may well be asked—"why, with all these gifts, has he excited so much personal hostility? Why was he driven from power by so decisive an expression of the opinion of the country a year ago?" The general political causes might easily be stated, but they are at this moment less interesting than the causes personal to himself. These are worth examining. No man has more conspicuously than Mr. Gladstone what the French call *les défauts de ses qualités*. His force spends itself on occasions when it is not really wanted. His ardor runs away with him, betrays him into imprudences, causes him to attach an undue importance to things the rest of the world cares little about. The wonderful activity of his mind makes him anxious to exhaust the possible views of a question; and he often goes on stating one proposition after another with so many qualifications and restrictions that his hearers become altogether puzzled. Mr. Cobden once said, "There is no one whom I listen to with more constant pleasure and admiration than Gladstone, but I mostly ask myself, when he sits

down, what, after all, did he mean to say?" This complexity of mind—people call it subtlety, but it is really rather a sort of manifoldness—inspired distrust in some Englishmen and anxiety in others. The suspicious thought that it covered crafty designs, and that he was preparing to desert his former principles. The man of ordinary common sense got lost in the maze of apparently conflicting views, and did not know what to expect. He wanted from his leader a simple Yes or No, and this was the very thing Mr. Gladstone would not give him. There were also two classes of Englishmen, both influential, to whom he was specially offensive—the luxurious London world which calls itself "society," and the sceptical cynics of the press. His private life was known to be singularly pure and not untinged by asceticism; he showed none of that sympathy with the turf or any of the numerous forms of English "sport" which made Lord Palmerston popular. He took no pains to win over the plutocracy by social attentions, and refused to sanction those bits of military or naval or civil-service jobbery to which the aristocracy thought itself by long usage entitled. The plutocracy and the aristocracy, therefore, disliked him, and all the more because he did not himself belong to one of the old houses. Then the Liberal, or the nominally Liberal, dailies and weeklies are chiefly in the hands of men specially hostile to Anglicanism and to sacerdotal pretensions generally—hostile, also, to anything like the expression of emotion in political matters. In their eyes, Mr. Gladstone's ecclesiastical views and his sentimental tendencies (though it is fair to admit that these latter never affected his economical policy) were not merely obnoxious but almost contemptible. They resented even his expressing an interest in theological questions, and were never tired of contrasting Mr. Lowe's cynical contempt for such matters, and Mr. Disraeli's well-assumed philosophical airs, with what they called the obsolete mediævalism of Mr. Gladstone. And even outside this circle there was a good deal of the feeling which made the Athenian farmer ostracise Aristides because he was tired of hearing him called the Just. The tone of society in a luxurious metropolis is never very high. Mr. Gladstone's private virtues were too frequently turned to account for political purposes by his less judicious supporters, and the *Daily Telegraph* in particular, the most tasteless of all English newspapers, did its best to make him ridiculous by its gushing praises. These may seem slight things, and so they were separately, but taken together their effect was considerable. At first they operated exclusively in London itself among members of the two Houses. There was a good deal of latent disaffection in the House of Commons even before the last general election, when Mr. Gladstone was nominally in a large majority, and it was no secret that many Liberal members were kept from deserting by the fear of their constituents. By degrees, however, the same sort of feeling stole over England (though Scotland remained faithful); people suspected the Premier of not being a sound Protestant, and many who could not have given any definite reason for their slackened zeal admitted that they were less enthusiastic for him than they had been at the election of 1868.

Unjust as most of the charges brought against him have been, it must be confessed that he was too neglectful of the small but legitimate arts by which popularity is won and retained. More might have been done to humor ordinary members of Parliament, and conciliate them by the social attentions of which Lord Palmerston was a master. More might certainly have been done to rear up a school of young statesmen like that formed by Peel, of which Mr. Gladstone himself was the most brilliant member, but which included also Mr. Cardwell, Sidney Herbert, the Duke of Newcastle, in a certain sense Lord Selborne, and other less distinguished persons. Mr. Gladstone was too much absorbed in great administrative schemes and in his own studies to attend to this; but the unfortunate consequences are seen now in the absence of the youthful champions by whom he ought to have been surrounded and defended. This is the stranger because he is himself of a far more sympathetic nature—a man who would naturally inspire more enthusiastic attachment—than the cold and stately Peel. One of the most ominous features in the present political condition of England is the difficulty which young men of ability and high education experience in finding a seat in Parliament, and the increasing proportion there of persons who enter it either to promote their commercial schemes or to improve their social position and gratify the vanity of their wives. This is a danger to whose existence Mr. Gladstone has shown himself alive. But no Liberal Government has done anything to meet it. It was, according to English arrangements, a matter not falling within his own department, so that he cannot be directly blamed. But a word from him would have gone far to influence the party managers, and it does not appear that any one reminded him to say that word. The party managers have, as a matter of fact, been content to get in men on whose votes they could count without thinking of the quality of the men themselves. And so it happens that at present there are in the House of Commons very few men of promise below the rank of cabinet or ex-cabinet ministers, and of these few scarcely any under the age of forty-five. This is about as true of the Conservative as of the Liberal side. Ministers and even leaders for the next generation will of course be found when the time comes, but to all appearances they will be intellectually inferior to those of the generation that is now beginning to pass away. There will at any rate be no one among them to be for a moment compared to Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Disraeli remains to amuse the House of Commons, though even he will not now have the same motive to exert his full powers; and he too is hardly like to remain long. Of the rest, there is no one to whom it is any pleasure to listen, for Mr. Bright seldom appears, and still more seldom speaks. Political life in England, to all appearances, is at the beginning of a long reign of mediocrity. There are solid thinkers; there are smart debaters; there are skilful administrators. But there is no man of genius.

## ENGLAND—LORD HARTINGTON AND HIS FOLLOWING.

London, January 30, 1875.

THE question of the leadership of the Liberal party has been agitating the country during the last fortnight, and as I write it is no nearer solution than it was the day that Mr. Gladstone announced his retirement. The choice has been (unfortunately, in my opinion) limited to two men, Mr. Forster and Lord Hartington, while the fittest man in the late Cabinet to meet the present emergency, Mr. Göschen, has been passed over. The newspapers have been so full of criticism upon the social, political, parliamentary, and personal qualifications of the two candidates (if those can be so called who are sought after rather than seeking), that I do not propose to trouble you with any views of mine on such a delicate subject, worn threadbare as it is. But I may put shortly such opinions as I have been able to gather of what will probably take place, according as the one or the other is selected, at a meeting which has been called for the purpose.

Let us suppose the meeting over (as it will be before you get this) without superfluous scandal, and the decision given in favor of Mr. Forster. What effect will this produce on the ranks of the party? The Nonconformists outside the House of Commons—Mr. Forster's own constituency at Bradford taking the lead—have openly, ostentatiously almost, announced that they will own no allegiance to him who was the author of the Education Act, which was passed in defiance of their views and in the interest of the Established Church. This Nonconformist body is the backbone of the Liberal party as at present constituted, and without them the Liberals—in so far as they are a party—may throw up the sponge and retire from active political life. It is true that they are not very numerous within the House of Commons, nor so practical as they are outside, but the desertion of even forty or fifty true-hearted Liberals is a solemn fact in the present state of matters.

More determined, even, than the Nonconformist enmity is the deep-rooted aversion to Mr. Forster of the old aristocratic Whigs. He might in time conciliate the Nonconformists, because their objection to him is based on acts and facts which might be got over or condoned. In natural disposition and general political leaning, outside the sphere of education, he is probably more with them than with the Whigs. The latter cannot or will not put their feelings into language. But the separation between them and Mr. Forster is deeper already than it ever was between them and Mr. Gladstone, and it is hardly possible that it can fail to increase. Mr. Gladstone was a churchman, a distinguished university man, a man of birth and high connections; and, in addition to all those merits in the Whig estimate, he

was a man of genius. Mr. Forster is essentially a middle-class man, with sympathies which, rightly or wrongly, are supposed to be not unlikely to lead to Radicalism. Hence the Whig aversion to him. These two sections of the party—the Nonconformists and the Old Whigs—being thus clinched, who would be left for Mr. Forster to lead? The Irishmen—for what they are worth—would be more likely to follow Mr. Forster than any other leader, on account of the favor he has shown to the Denominationalists. The Scotchmen have ever been amenable to reason, and will probably follow the man who is selected, whoever he may be, with a fair amount of unanimity; and then he has the section of the party who are urging on the meeting—men of some influence and, for the most part, of advanced opinions. But against this following, such as it is, must be put the "caves" and combinations which the Whigs, led not improbably by Sir William Harcourt, will form, and the antagonistic attitude of the Nonconformists.

And now let us suppose that Lord Hartington has been elected. The Whigs will support him with something as near to enthusiasm as their natures will allow them to display. With an earl leading in the Upper House and a marquis in the Lower, the country in a sleepy and contented state of torpor, and a government of Liberal-Conservatives passing Whig measures, it will appear to them as if something like the good old times had come back again, and the Whig millennium—in opposition though they be—had recommenced. The Nonconformists will be ready to give allegiance just at first, provided Lord Hartington does not throw too much cold water on their pet schemes for dismembering the Church of England. But his frank announcement this week at Lewes that he did not agree with Mr. Bright's attack upon the Church last Monday at Birmingham, will damp some of the ardor in his favor which the name of Mr. Forster has engendered in the Nonconformist mind. The Scotchmen would follow Lord Hartington if he showed capacity, and so would all the moderate-minded men. The Irishmen liked him when he was Irish Secretary; but his outspoken condemnation last year, in the best speech he ever made, of the Home Rule project to disintegrate the Empire, has rather alienated the most ferocious and patriotic among the Irish members. The extreme men, and many of those who got up the requisition for the public meeting, and who are mainly Mr. Forster's partisans, will be opposed to him—not a few for a similar ground to that taken up by the Whigs against Mr. Forster, the fact mainly of his birth and bringing up. The Whigs will not follow a Bradford manufacturer, and the Radicals will not follow the son of a duke.

It is a curious episode in the history of English politics. But it brings out in bold relief the fact that has too much escaped attention in this country, though noticed by Mr. Disraeli long ago in 'Coningsby'—the fact, namely, that the old division of parties is flickering out its existence, and that we are arrayed against each other not so much as party against party as class against class. The old Liberal party, now disorganized, was not a party. It was a coalition of classes combined for a particular purpose under one great leader, and so soon as that purpose was accomplished and that leader's magical influence removed, the coalition of classes fell back into its constituent elements. The animosities which exist between the various sections of the coalition are, at least, as bitter as any animosity that exists between the old Liberal and Conservative parties. For some time to come and in the freedom of opposition we shall find these sectional animosities asserting themselves recklessly on the opposition benches. Many old scores, which were smothered when the members of a nominal party sat together on the ministerial side of the House, will be wiped off before the fragments of the party cohere again. Prospects of regaining power may in time bring together the different sections of the party as then composed into a new coalition. Disestablishment may then come into prominence, or household suffrage in counties and redistribution of seats, or revision of the land laws, or whatever it may be. And with the question the leader will be found, not by competitive examination or by counting heads or by the ballot-box, but by the natural selection of the fittest. Till then it really matters little who is the nominal leader of a disorganized opposition. But in the meantime the Conservatives, if they use their opportunities wisely, will have an easy tenure of office.

## GENERAL SCHENCK AND DRAW-POKER.

London, January 18.

I THINK we have touched bottom at last. It has for some time been a matter of curious enquiry among Americans in London how low the reputation of an American Minister could sink, and what new circumstances could provoke a more general derision of his name and office. A letter published in the *Morning Post* of to-day seems to have been composed expressly to answer these questions. It strikes me as likely to elicit some comment on your side, and I quote it in full:

"THE AMERICAN PRESS AND GENERAL SCHENCK.

"*To the Editor of the Morning Post:*

"SIR: It appears from recent files of American papers that many of the inquisitive journals of the United States are occupying themselves with a strange *canard* about the conduct of their Minister in this country, who is persistently accused of being a gambler, of introducing to us the game of 'poker,' and of having written 'a book on the art of gambling.' They consider this to constitute a great scandal, and even base upon the accusation a demand for his excellency's recall. The game of 'poker' is with them one of small repute, chiefly played in the West and on board the Mississippi steamboats, and is no doubt widely used by the gamblers of that region. In itself it is a simple combination of 'commerce' and 'brag,' with some few special technicalities. The mixture of chance and judgment renders it amusing, and some years ago it made its appearance here as a round game in social gatherings.

"Now, sir, it falls within my personal knowledge that one day in the drawing-room of a lady of high position in the London world, General Schenck, at her request, put down upon paper the rules of 'poker,' and these rules were printed without the knowledge of the General. The story of the 'book' is therefore quite absurd. But these accusations acquire importance on the other side of the Atlantic from the puritanical spirit so strong in the United States, and from ignorance of what is usual in English society. They do not understand that such a game as 'poker,' played, as it is here, for small stakes—usually counters representing pennies and sixpences—is perfectly admissible among ladies and gentlemen, and in the best company.

"Of course such attacks may be treated with the contempt they deserve, but it may be still better to enlighten the darkness whence they proceed, and to inform our cousins, at the risk of shocking them, that at Christmas parties ladies and children have indulged in such games as blind hookey, rouge-et-noir, and 'poker.'

"I am, sir, your obedient servant, FAIR PLAY."

I say that, assuming every word in this letter to be true, it is a degrading letter—degrading to General Schenck, humiliating to us his countrymen in London, and to his countrymen elsewhere. It is possible now to sympathize with the feelings of the indignant constituency which discovered that their representative at Albany had sold himself for a price ludicrously below the market rate of assemblymen in that year. So long as General Schenck's name stood at the head of one of the largest frauds ever carried through the London Exchange, he may have thought the magnitude of his offence some atonement for it with citizens of what he dilated upon at Sheffield as the biggest country in the world. But who can find pleasure in having his Minister publicly apologized for as a poker player? Let us see what the apology is.

"Fair Play" is either an Englishman or pretends to be one. I hardly think anybody but a genuine John Bull would have described poker as a game chiefly played "in the West *and* on board the Mississippi steamboats." He calls the story a "canard." The story is that General Schenck introduced here the game of poker, and wrote a treatise on it which was printed. That story is not a canard, but is true. I don't know where "Fair Play" got his variation of it, nor does it matter. The substance of the accusation is what matters, and that cannot be escaped from by a quibbling statement of it. Whether General Schenck wrote his treatise at the request of a lady of high position in the London world or not is of no consequence. "Fair Play" says it falls within his personal knowledge that he did. Be it so. And that these rules were printed without the knowledge of the General. Be it so again, if "Fair Play" means that that statement also is within his personal knowledge. But it is also within my personal knowledge that General Schenck's authorship of the poker pamphlet was notorious, and that copies of it were in his possession and were given away by him. That being the case, how is his responsibility for it to be evaded? I have seen a copy which had been presented by General Schenck to an English lady with her name in his handwriting on the cover. It is a little square, thin, pink-covered thing of—if I recollect rightly—fourteen pages. It is systematic; a collection of rules and maxims for the playing of the game, perfectly serious in tone, and by no means the sort of instruction given for a game to be played for amusement merely. You hear the clink of the dollar in every sentence. I could have sent you the whole of it for publication, but to what good end? There were scandals enough about General Schenck already. I have no wish to add to the number of them.

Let nobody suppose an American abroad can find any pleasure in attacking a representative of his own country. But the scandal has grown daily more rank; it was not honest to keep silence on such public matters touching so nearly the honor of the United States. For the same reason it is impossible to be silent any longer about this wretched poker-playing gossip. "Fair Play" says it acquires importance from our puritanical spirit, and from ignorance of what is usual in English society. I don't think it becomes an American Minister to put forward an apologist in an English paper. Nor do I think that a good apology which depends on a sneer at his own country. It is not true that the accusations against Gen-

eral Schenck acquire importance from ignorance of what is usual in English society. It is *not* usual in English society for a Foreign Minister to introduce draw-poker and publish a treatise about it. I do not know any other Foreign Minister who derives notoriety from an act of that kind. Nor is General Schenck believed to play usually for "pennies and sixpences." His reputation is that of a man who plays for more money than he can afford to lose. So true is this latter statement that certain other ugly stories about General Schenck's money affairs have been thought to be based on, or are confirmed by, the account of his gambling habits. Were it a mere question of playing for sixpences, or even whist with half-guinea points, the club limit, such talk would not have been heard. Yet a man may lose a round sum of money in a night even at whist with half-guinea points, especially if the bets are unlimited.

Further, so far from taking a "puritanical" view of this matter, I am willing to concede that nothing need have been said about General Schenck's play had he merely conformed to the habits of the society in which he mixed. But General Schenck places himself in a very different position when he avails himself of his ministerial position to introduce a game which is purely and simply a gambling game; and practises it, playing for money with those to whom he has taught it, and acquiring social notoriety from having introduced it, and from his repute of playing for considerable sums. Why does not "Fair Play" tell us it was to divert attention from that other ill-fame he won long before from the Emma Mine? It would be a much better excuse than the ridiculous palliations he asks us to accept.

I will not extend my comments. I leave much unsaid because, disagreeable as it is to hear such remarks as are habitually made in conversation about General Schenck, it would be more disagreeable to repeat them in print. I confine myself to such as he himself and his friend "Fair Play" have made public. It is needless to repeat that they must shock the moral sense of the American public, and that the relation of General Schenck here as Minister of the United States brings the Government which he represents into contempt. Suspicion of some complicity at Washington with Emma Mine rascalities was long rife. I do not know that it is yet allayed. I do know that the victims of that fraud have not forgotten or forgiven it, and that they hold Gen. Schenck morally responsible for their losses. All that is an old story, but old as it is you come upon it almost daily. You can scarcely hear Gen. Schenck's name mentioned without an explosion of wrath, or a sneer, or a laugh, or an expression of amazement that he is still kept here as Minister. Now that he—or a friend for him, which comes to the same thing—has begun explaining his poker performances, it may be that we shall have another series of letters and articles in the London papers on the Emma Mine. That would make it still pleasanter.

AN AMERICAN.

# Notes.

SOME weeks ago we referred to the severe criticism passed by Dr. H. Kiepert, in the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, on Dr. Wm. Smith's new 'Historical Atlas,' and particularly on the map of Palestine, which, as the reviewer said, neither embraced the latest discoveries of the Palestine Exploration Fund, nor even took advantage of his own labors in the same field. This map of Dr. Kiepert's has now reached its fourth revised edition, and bears the date of 1874. It is a large affair, in eight sheets, for hanging on the wall. No words of ours could add weight to the authority of the eminent compiler. The Berlin publisher is Dietrich Reimer, and the map may be had in this city of Mr. E. Steiger, 24 Frankfort Street.——An excellent feature of Col. Higginson's 'Youth's History of the United States' is the list, at the end, of works that may be read or consulted for each period; and among them the historical novel finds its proper place. The historical fiction of all nations has lately been made the subject of a Chronological Index, of which the second edition has been sent us, by the Boston Public Library. Like many others of the catalogues of this enterprising institution, the present is well adapted for circulation outside of the immediate patrons of the library. It does not profess to be complete, but it is remarkably full. The term "historical," applied as broadly as it is here, permits the most inveterate novel-reader to take shelter behind it, just as "opera" quiets scruples which exist against the "theatre." Poetry and the drama are included along with tales.——The January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, while possessing its usual interest for those immediately engaged in genealogical pursuits, has nothing more attractive for the general reader than the opening paper—a sketch of the descent and career of the late George B. Upton—and the annotated "Diary of Dr. Ezra Green," who was surgeon of the Continental ship-of-war *Ranger* during the cruise (November 1, 1777–September 27, 1778) which Capt. John Paul Jones led her about the British coast. Both these papers are worth reading.——Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger, Philadelphia, have in press 'Secrets of the Sanctum—an Inside View of an Editor's Life,' by A. F. Hill.

—A correspondent points out a curious blunder in Webster's Dictionary, by which, under the word *reins*, meaning the kidneys, etc., the following phrases appear as tropical uses of it: "*To give the reins*, to give license; to allow to be without restraint. *To take the reins*, to assume control." This would seem to be a mere transposition of the types were it not for the fact that the same usage is correctly given in almost the same words under "*rein*, the strap of a bridle, etc." Our correspondent continues: "It may also be of interest to note a series of marvellous blunders in a list of irregular verbs appended to Oehlschläger's English-German Dictionary, a work which I believe has at least a certain sort of popular authority, and which in 1869, as shown by the title-page, had reached its thirteenth edition. There are quite a number of such curious and obsolete forms as 'bake, baked, backed, baken, backen,' 'it betides, betid, betid,' 'fleet, flet, flet, etc.; but the climax is capped in 'wax, wox, waxen,' and 'it snows, snew, snown'! The title-page states that the author was "formerly Professor of the English language in the College of Quebec," and the query naturally suggests itself, did all the students of this institution talk out of the Canterbury Tales?"

—Gen. Hazen has followed up his instructive article in the *North American Review* on the "Great Middle Region of the United States" with a pamphlet entitled "Our Barren Lands" (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) This latter is in the nature of a personal defence against the imputations of Gen. Custer, who had denounced him for saying in a letter to the *Tribune* a year ago that "a large proportion of the lands of the Northern Pacific Railroad were worthless, both for agriculture and as a security for money." Gen. Hazen's object is to prove, and he does it in perfect temper, that his statements are fully borne out by the facts; that Gen. Custer spoke from an experience of only two years, quite exceptional for their rainfall; and that the vast interior region lying between the 100th meridian and the Sierra Nevadas, and stretching from the northern boundary to the Gulf, is an arid waste unfit for agriculture except in rare localities where mountains favor irrigation, yielding no profit and scarcely any returns to the farmer, and exposed to the mischievous effects not only of drought but of grasshoppers. As to the valley of the Upper Missouri the description of it given by Lewis and Clarke, which Gen. Hazen cites, holds good to-day: the bottom lands are narrow and hemmed in between the hills and the river; and though the soil is rich, the absence of timber and the scanty supply of good water "oppose powerful obstacles to settlement." From Oct. 15, 1804, to May 28, 1805, they had but one shower of rain. A more recent witness, who has resided nearly nine years in Montana and Dakota, avers that successful farming is an impossibility in these Territories without irrigation, which is out of the question in Dakota, and is only exceptionally available in Montana. To encourage emigration thither he pronounces a monstrous fraud. "When I think," he says, "of the enormous lies promulgated by paid advocates of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, who describe the land as 'a scene of never-ending beauty,' etc., I am constrained in charity to ascribe this not to a deliberate desire to falsify, but to the poetic tendency of the times." Gen. Hazen, however, has less faith in poetry than his correspondent has. He declares "the stories of the 'Tropical Belt,' the 'Continental Wheat Garden,' the 'Attractive Country,'" and the like, to be the "puerile inventions of the late witness, literary stockholder, and literary agent of the Northern Pacific"—the same who made public the "tripartite covenant" of Brooklyn notoriety—"aided by other writers of the country, both employed and volunteer," and "continued and animated through the instrumentality of that great moral power the *Independent*, for which services that leading Christian newspaper of the world was given a previously unheard-of compensation." Gen. Custer's rose-colored report of the country in his gold-hunting expedition to the Black Hills is dissected by Gen. Hazen, and shown to be false and misleading from a mere comparison of it with the accounts of other members of the same expedition.

—A matter of more than ordinary interest discussed in President Eliot's report on Harvard College, to which we recur once more, is the relation of the public schools to the college. From statistics given by Mr. Eliot, it seems that the high-schools of Massachusetts, though originally intended to fit boys for college, perform this function only to a very limited extent. There are, he says, good reasons for this. Most public schools being conducted with the settled object in view of bringing every

child up to a moderate standard of excellence, there is necessarily a great deal of repetition and drill, which involves a terrible waste of time for the more intelligent children. These children are, however, the very ones who ought to go to college, and the result is that it is seldom for their interest to remain in the regular classes of a public school. There is another reason :

"Again, all the colleges require for admission a knowledge of Greek, which it takes a boy of average intelligence a full year's study to acquire. Now it is plainly not the interest of the great mass of boys and girls who go to high-schools to study Greek at all, and they do not study it. The teaching of Greek must, therefore, be maintained in a high-school at a considerable expense for the benefit of only two, three, or four per cent. of the pupils. A large part of the time of the most expensive teacher in the school is thus lost to the many scholars and given to the very few. This immediate and certain sacrifice school-committees are less and less willing to make for the sake of a remote and contingent good. The difficulty is of course less felt wherever, as in Boston, a separate high-school is provided for each sex ; and it may be hoped that the day is not far distant when, with the spread of physiological and pedagogical information, the practice of providing separate high-schools for boys and for girls may, in the interests of both sexes, become universal."

It is of great importance, as Mr. Eliot very justly says, "that the way be kept wide open from the primary school to the professional school (*i.e.*, *via* the college) for the poor as well as the rich," and he suggests that the desired connection between the secondary schools and the colleges might, in part, be secured by changes in the requisites for admission to college on the one hand, and in the studies of the existing high-schools on the other.

"If the colleges would accept, at the option of the candidate, a year's work in French or German for the year's work in Greek which they now require, and the high-schools would make Latin a substantial part of their course of study for all pupils, the desired junction of the two classes of institutions would be practically effected. In the sole interest of the colleges there is much to be said in favor of such a change in their requisitions for admission, and in the interest of the high-schools there is much to be said in favor of making Latin an important part of their prescribed course of study."

This recommendation has, we believe, created a good deal of discussion in Cambridge among the friends of the college, who understand it to mean that Greek as a required study, either before admission or after admission, is to be thrown overboard, and who object to it that it is rather a proposal in the direction of lowering the standard of the college than of elevating that of the schools.

—The controversy which has long raged both in England and this country over the vivisection of animals by physiologists, and which, in this State, has recently threatened to produce prohibitory legislation, has led to the publication of an interesting little brochure on the subject by Dr. J. C. Dalton, Professor of Physiology in the New York College of Surgeons and Physicians, setting forth the character, necessity, and results of experimentation on animals (F. W. Christern). As an illustration of the needfulness of some such discussion of the subject as he offers, he quotes a writer on the other side in the *Evening Post*, who maintains that, even if vivisection is as useful from a scientific point of view as its advocates pretend, "mankind has no right to the knowledge thus acquired," and demands legislation "to put a stop to these wicked contributions to human knowledge which mankind would be all the better off for never knowing." The gentleman who said this is evidently not a person to be argued with ; but there is a large number of persons who, while holding liberal views as to the claims of science, labor under great misapprehension as to the character and utility of vivisection. Nobody who eats meat can well deny the lawfulness of making the lower animals subservient to the preservation of human life, and when we show the carnivorous, as Dr. Dalton does, that no more pain is inflicted in vivisecting animals for scientific, than in killing them for gastronomic purposes, and that vivisection has made, and is making, contributions of great value to the medical art, we do not need to argue, as far as they are concerned, whether there be any attainable knowledge which man has no moral right to acquire.

—In the first place, all experimentation on living subjects is performed by physiologists after the use of ether. There are often cases in which the object is the discovery of the existence of pain under certain conditions, but in these cases the pain inflicted is slight and brief, for it does not need to be either sharp or prolonged in order to attain the operator's ends. It cannot be said, in fact, that scientific men ever torture animals, in any proper sense of the term. In the second place, the phenomena of life, which are the main objects of interest to the medical man, can only be observed in living animals, especially in that most important field, the relation of the nerve system to the vital functions. Some of Dr. Dalton's examples of the contributions which vivisection has made to medical science in this field are highly interesting. Through some of the experiments now going on, for instance, it seems probable that we are on the eve of the discovery of the cause, and therefore, perhaps, of the cure, of that terrible disease diabetes. Then the circulation of the blood was discovered in this way ; so was the function of the lungs in aerating the blood ; so the possibility and value in certain cases of artificial respiration ; so the possibility and value of the transfusion of blood ; great light has been thrown on the digestive process in the same manner. Nearly all the knowledge we have of the nervous system comes from the same source, and particularly the fundamental and most fruitful fact of neurology, that "the anterior and posterior roots of nerves emerging from the spinal cord have distinct functions, the anterior roots being channels for motion, the posterior for sensation." The Hunterian operation for aneurism was made possible by previous experimentation on dogs ; and the regeneration of the bone, after fracture or disease, through contact with the periosteum (a fibrous covering in which it is encased), was ascertained in the same manner. The proper mode of treating venomous wounds, and the origin of parasitic diseases, are also among the contributions to human (and, let us add, also to brute) happiness made by dogs, mice, rabbits, pigeons, pigs, and other animals; and anybody who objects to experiments on them ought to be prepared manfully to have himself and his family treated, in case of accidents or disease, as if no vivisection had ever been performed. To protest against and denounce a thing, while profiting by it, is not only illogical but base.

—Miss Putnam is not satisfied with Dr. Ruffner's report, and writes to us :

"These are the distinct points at issue :

"The School Report (1871) shows, from a very thorough and complete census, there were 1,248 white and 1,097 colored children of school age in this county. The School Reports also show there has been expended in the four years, for school purposes, a total sum of $14,355 55. From the best data at my command, the sum expended for colored schools in the four years has been about $2,095, *one-seventh* of the whole, when an equitable share would have been *seven sixteenths*, or nearly one-half. There are in the county about five hundred colored men who pay their capitation-tax of one dollar each per year, and their property-tax, for school purposes, which for the four years would be equal, or more than equal, to the sum expended for their benefit. For three years the colored men of Wicomico, with 234 school population, paid their tax, *and had no school*. There was 178 white school population in Wicomico, who had expended for its benefit, in those three years, from the school fund, $1,776 49. The statistics in regard to Wicomico are all from the 'Virginia School Reports,' and should be conclusive evidence. The information I explicitly call for, and respectfully ask Mr. Ruffner to obtain from official record, is the *amount of money* expended and *to whom paid* for *colored schools* in Northumberland County since the introduction of public schools in the State. With this knowledge, and the statistics furnished by the annual State Reports, it can be easily determined how fair and impartial have been the distribution and efficiency of the school system for the colored children in this county, so far as the public money is concerned. I beg your readers will notice Mr. Ruffner is careful to say the colored children have 'one-third of the benefits,' having one-third of the 'number enrolled in the schools' in the State ; and not that they have *one-third of the school fund expended for their benefit!* The School Report for 1874 gives 19 white schools and 8 colored schools in Northumberland County, still showing unfairness, notwithstanding the 2 new schools in Wicomico."

It seems to us that Miss Putnam here makes up her charge by lumping together four years, during two of which the Virginia authorities admit that no provision was made for colored children. What they say is, that they are increasing their school accommodations, and that the law does not require it to be complete before 1876. The controversy, therefore, seems to us a barren one ; but, barren or fruitful, it ends as far as we are concerned. We wish, however, Dr. Ruffner would procure for Miss Putnam a sight of the County Treasurer's books, though we must decline publishing the result of her investigations.

—A correspondent asks for information on books relating to the development or evolution theory, especially for the book "which is not too partisan or too technical, but gives the facts and reasoning with reference to it on both sides." From a literature which has in the past fifteen years grown into an extensive department of bibliography, we ought to be able, if this were possible in any subjects of discussion, to select the book which fulfils these requisites. Yet it would be vain to seek, even in Germany, for one which surpasses in these qualities the foundation and first of the series, namely, Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' in which, and especially in the last edition, 1872, all the *scientific* objections that have been urged against the theory, as it is held by Darwinians, are more clearly put and fairly considered than in any treatise we could name. In no work on a subject of which the scientific evidence is essentially technical, is the fault of technicality less obtrusive ; and in late editions this is still further remedied by a glossary of scientific terms. But before we can clearly characterize other

books on this subject, it is necessary to make a grand division of the department into books that are strictly (like Darwin's), or predominantly, scientific and inductive; and those that treat their subject as a part, or as the foundation even (like Mr. Spencer's series), of general speculative philosophy, and in connection with theology and religion. Darwin's books have been improperly characterized as speculative. This is true of them only in the sense in which incompletely verified scientific hypotheses are called speculative; in the sense in which Newton's astronomy was, until completely, or very nearly, verified; or (by a fairer instance) Newton's optics, which, in a main point, is not verified, but reversed.* It is to the *subjects* of Darwin's books, and not to his opinions or treatment, that the term speculative is applicable, if at all; and so far as it is applicable as a reproach, it applies equally, or even more, to the opinions of his opponents. His mode of treatment is strictly scientific, Newtonian, or "positive"; nowhere dealing with disputed axioms, or with deductions from axioms laid down as *a priori* valid and as if they were not disputed; nowhere considering scientific theses as either favorable or unfavorable to general philosophical or religious conclusions, except, of course, where religious teaching, in having prejudged these questions on other than scientific grounds, is presumed to have exceeded by *obiter dicta* its proper jurisdiction. With the great majority, however, of writers on this subject the names of Darwin and Spencer are closely associated; though to more than one Aristotelian master, and to many scientific students of the subjects, no two names are more widely separated by essential differences of method. Mr. Spencer has lately put forward the claim that his method is justified by Newton's precepts and practice. But, according to the judgment of the more immediate followers of Newton, the leading physicists of to-day, this claim is not substantiated.

—The dispute is, however, quite aside from the reality of the distinction which, for bibliographical purposes, we here lay down. One of the requisitions of our correspondent is not fulfilled by any book of the properly speculative division. We venture to assert that in no department of speculative philosophy, either expository or historical, do treatises exist which fairly present the facts and arguments on both sides. This virtue is possible only within the limits which scientific, Newtonian or "positive" method imposes; and within his own proper department of natural science every expert authority is a positivist, whether on other subjects he denies, or ignores, or only waives the disputed axioms. The essential characteristic of properly speculative as distinguished from scientific method is, that the former seeks to expel doubt by the furcular force of the dilemma that unless one accepts as having universal validity certain axioms, which it is true are only illustrated, not verified by inductive evidences, one is not entitled to hold any beliefs at all with any certainty. Choice axioms are therefore presented, *illustrated*, and a universology is deduced from them. True scientific virtue, on the other hand, is to balance evidences, and to bring doubts to civil terms; to resist the enthusiasm of these aggressive axioms, and to be contented with the beliefs which are only the most probable, or most authentic on strictly inductive grounds. Now in the proper scientific theory of "evolution"—unhappily so-called, as confounding it with a different mode of treatment, when any of the successive preceding names, "descent with modification," "derivation," "development," or "transmutation" would on this score have been better, notwithstanding a temporary disrepute in the name—the scientific evidence is in great measure technical, and a considerable part of what has accumulated in the past fifteen years is buried from the general reader in monographs of scientific publications. Essays and discourses in exposition of Darwinism or natural selection are far too numerous; the majority being better calculated to make the author shudder than to illuminate what is best got from a careful reading of his original treatise. Among brief and good essays we may mention Professor Huxley's little books on the 'Origin of Species,' and 'Man's Place in Nature'; Mr. Wallace's collection of essays with the title of 'Natural Selection' (though some of these are too speculative to come under the head of natural science); and Mr. Mivart's 'Genesis of the Species,' which though learned in biological science, is in many parts too speculative or un-Newtonian to be mentioned under this head. We may add a little book called the 'Philosophy of Evolution,' by B. T. Lowne, published in 1873, by Van Voorst, London, which received one of the Actonian prizes of the Royal Institution for 1872. This is mainly scientific, though it touches on the general philosophical or speculative bearings of the subject. Of works more unequivocally of the speculative class, Mr. Spencer's generally, but more especially his 'Biology,' deserve a first place. We should not, however, in this case, as we do in Mr. Darwin's, recommend the original so much as a recently-published exposition, which, under the title of 'Cosmic Philosophy,' is given by Mr. John Fiske. In this book, the disciple far surpasses the master in readableness and skill of exposition. Of a large subdivision of the speculative class—the books whose aim is practical and religious, and opposed to theories of evolution—no one has come to our notice which fairly presents the exact points or the scientific arguments of the theory as it is now generally held by naturalists, and few of them apparently deem it essential to their aim to do so. Finally, we may add to the scientific division of books on the subject a recent edition of Darwin's 'Descent of Man,' renewed by the fiery ordeal of criticism to which the first edition was subjected, and perfected, so far as scientific fairness and method can go, by the author's unbounded patience of thought and research.

* Speculative philosophy is properly metaphysics, and proceeds deductively from axioms, like Plato's or Kant's, or Mr. Spencer's later form of *a priori* philosophy, which he professes to found, in part, on the empirical facts of heredity, and thus give it a scientific basis.

—Publication of the posthumous works of Fritz Reuter has been begun in Germany, and the first volume is accompanied by a very sympathetic biography of him by the editor, Adolph Wilbrandt. With the full consent of the poet's widow, a frank account is given of his passion for drink (*Trunksucht*), which is rightly regarded as a disease for which there was (after it had once been contracted) no moral responsibility whatever. In the beginning Reuter drank hard in order to forget his misery as a political prisoner in Prussia's clutches, and when after seven years (he had been condemned for thirty) his deliverance came, he carried into private life this periodical craving which must be satisfied, which ran its course like a fever, and from which his wonderful constitution rallied invariably with renewed vigor. But the habit nearly made a wreck of him. He wanted to become a painter, in opposition to his father's wishes, who sent him back to the University to study law. Here the temptation to spree was too much for him, and he next devoted himself to farming, with indifferent success, eking out his support by teaching. In this career he gained the friendship of a Pommeranian landowner, to whose confidence in him and shrewd knowledge of human nature Reuter owed the fortunate marriage which rescued him from an obscure and perhaps melancholy fate. This friend, knowing Reuter's betrothed to be troubled with scruples about the match, dared to lead her where he lay under the influence of one of his attacks. The result justified his calculations. She resolved to undertake the saving of a life; and though she failed, as other trusting wives had done before her, to destroy her husband's appetite for drink, she had the rare consolation of seeing neither his constitution nor his morals undermined by it. The wedding took place in 1851, and Reuter died only last July, of heart disease. At least as early as 1866, however, his powers as a writer had reached their climax. The history of Mecklenburg, which he left unfinished and which now appears in print for the first time, dates from 1859–62, and is pronounced not inferior to his best work. It is a singular circumstance that the dialect which contributed so much to his fame was not originally nor spontaneously employed by him. His earliest writings were in High German, including his masterpiece (1847), which was afterwards put into Plattdeutsch with the title 'Ut mine Stromtid.' The example which he followed so profitably at last was set him by Klaus Groth, whose 'Quickborn' appeared in 1852. The drollery which characterizes Reuter's works found ready acceptance with the Mecklenburghers, who are never weary of hearing and telling humorous stories; and Reuter not only had a great store of these but told them exceedingly well before he ever put pen to paper.

## PROFESSOR MASSON'S ESSAYS.*

WE always read Professor Masson with interest, but never without a certain feeling of disappointment. He is clear, shrewd, and vigorous, and his style (when it is not Mr. Carlyle's) is quite his own. He attempts to deal with subjects in a first-rate manner, and yet, at the last, he fails to give an impression of first-rate power. He is, in a word, in thought and expression the least bit vulgar. He is fond of rhetoric, which is perfectly legitimate; but his taste has odd lapses. He writes literary history in the picturesque manner; but it is amusing to have a writer of his apparent sincerity reminding us of Mr. Hepworth Dixon. When Chatterton, in the author's biography of the young poet, writes to Horace Walpole, we are told that "whether from the suddenness and naïveté of the attack, or from the stupefying effects of the warm air in his library of a March evening, Walpole was completely taken in." Dryden made an attack on Elkanah Settle, the bad poet. "Settle," says Professor Masson, "replied with some spirit,

* 'Three Devils: Luther's, Milton's, and Goethe's. With other Essays. By David Masson, M.A., LL.D., etc.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

with little effect, and was, in fact, 'settled' for ever." We doubt whether Mr. Hepworth Dixon, indeed, would have risked that. Professor Masson has been republishing some of his early essays, and one volume of the series was lately noticed in these pages. They were worth such care as he chose to bestow upon them; but it is a pity that this should not have included a little chastening of the style. The first of the volumes before us contains a study of the differences in Luther's, Milton's, and Shakspere's conception of the Devil, a parallel not particularly effective between Shakspere and Goethe; a sketch—the best thing, perhaps, in the book—of Milton's youth; an essay on Dryden; a "picturesque" account of Dean Swift; and some reflections, noticeably very acute, on "One of the Ways Literature May Illustrate History." These things are all entertaining, and some of them interesting. It is particularly interesting, perhaps, to investigate people's ideas about the Devil, and Professor Masson sets forth very justly the respective characteristics of Milton's Satan, Goethe's Mephistopheles, and the Foul Fiend who haunted the great Reformer. Luther's devil was properly the only real devil of them all, the only one who carried with him a need of being believed in. Milton's Satan was an exalted poetic conception, in which the idea of evil was constantly modified by the beauty of presentation. Mephistopheles was the exquisite result of Goethe's elaborate intellectual analysis of evil; but Luther's devil was the concrete embodiment and compendium of evil, the result of his intense *feeling* of evil. Luther's devil, indeed, was not an intellectual conception at all, but a huge, oppressive spiritual conviction such as only a man of marvellously robust temperament could have had the capacity for. Few men could have afforded to keep, as we may say, such a devil as Luther's—an engine, a machine, which required an inordinate amount of fuel. "Life," says Professor Masson, "must be a much more insipid thing than it was then." Certainly Luther's consciousness was a tolerably exciting affair; the nearest analogy to it that we can imagine is that of a commander-in-chief in the thick of a pitched battle. Suppose this to be chronic and lifelong, and we form an idea of Luther's state of mind. Like a general hard pressed, he had his strategic inspirations. "When he could not drive the devil away by uttering sentences of Holy Writ or by prayers, he used to address him thus: 'Devil, if, as you say, Christ's blood, which was shed for my sins, be not sufficient to ensure my salvation, can't you pray for me yourself, devil?' At this the devil invariably fled, *quia est superbus spiritus et non potest ferre contemptum sui?*"

Professor Masson writes particularly well about Milton, whom he has made an object of devoted study, and draws a very handsome portrait of him as he stood on the threshold of manhood. He was what would be called nowadays a very high-toned young man—what even in some circles would be termed a prig. But Milton's priggishness was in the grand style, and it had a magnificent consistency. It is on the pervading *consistency* of his character that Professor Masson dwells, while he attempts to reconcile his austerity, his rigidity, his self-complacency, his want of humor with his possession of supreme poetic genius. Milton records it as a conviction of his early youth that "he who would not be frustrate of his hope to write well hereafter in laudable things ought himself to be a true poem." "A certain niceness of nature," he elsewhere says, "an honest haughtiness and self-esteem either of what I was or what I might be (which let envy call pride), and, lastly, that modesty whereof, though not in the title-page, yet here I may be excused to make some beseeming profession; all these, uniting the supply of their natural aid together, kept me still above those low descents of mind beneath which he must deject and plunge himself that can agree to salable and unlawful prostitutions." "Fancy," Professor Masson comments upon this, "ye to whom the moral frailty of genius is a consolation, or to whom the association of virtue with youth and Cambridge is a jest—fancy Milton, as this passage from his own pen describes him at the age of twenty-three, returning to his father's house from the university, full of its accomplishments and its honors, an auburn-haired youth, beautiful as the Apollo of a northern clime, and that beautiful body the temple of a soul pure and unsoiled. . . . He had made it a matter of conscientious investigation what kind of moral tone and career would best fit a man to be a poet on the one hand, or would be most likely to frustrate his hopes of writing well on the other, and his conclusion, we see, was dead against the 'wild-oats' theory. . . . The nearest poet to Milton, in this respect, since Milton's time has undoubtedly been Wordsworth." As Professor Masson indicates, the danger that the extreme "respectability" of each of these great men might operate as a blight upon their poetic faculty was not averted by the interposition of the sense of humor. We know how little of this faculty they possessed. What made them great was what we have called their consistency—the fact that their seriousness, their solemnity, their "respectability" was on so large and unbroken a scale. They were men of a proud imagination—even when Wordsworth condescended to the poetry of village idiots and little porringers. In the day of Mark Twain there is no harm in being reminded that the absence of drollery may, at a stretch, be compensated by the presence of sublimity. The wild-oats theory, too, may probably be left to take care of itself, and the history of Milton's youthful rigidity be suffered to suggest that there is a fine opening for the next young man of talent who feels within him the spirit to risk something. If, as Milton says, "he would not be frustrate of his hope to write well hereafter in laudable things," he might try the experiment of ignoring trivialities. American readers will probably compare Professor Masson's disquisition on Dryden with that of Professor Lowell, and conclude decidedly in favor of the latter. Professor Masson's essay belongs to a coarser school of criticism, and he points out much less acutely than the American critic's remarkable insight in the poetic mystery enables *him* to do, why it is that in spite of the many accounts against him the balance, on the scroll of fame, has been in Dryden's favor. The present essay is readable, but Professor Lowell's is suggestive.

One may bestow the praise of suggestiveness, however, on the last paper in the volume—an ingenious plea for the *indirect* testimony of past literatures as to contemporaneous refinement and virtue. The accumulation of science, says Professor Masson, not only adds to the stock of what the mind possesses, but modifies the mind in what it is *per se*. Operating on its new acquisitions, the mental apparatus enlarges its functions and, as a greater quantity of grist is brought to the mill, becomes a more powerful machine. This at least is the common assumption, and this would prove that we of the present day are (besides our character as mere trustees of new discoveries) people of a higher intellectual value than our remote precursors. Professor Masson contests the deduction, in a spirit which most disinterested students of history and literature will probably sympathize with. "Shakspere lived and died, we may say, in the prescientific period; he lived and died in the belief of the fixedness of our earth in space and the diurnal whirling round her of the ten spectacular spheres. Not the less was he Shakspere; and none of us dares to say that there is now in the world, or has recently been, a more expert thinking apparatus of its order than his mind was, a spiritual transparency of larger diameter, or vivid with grander gleamings and pulses. Two hundred and fifty years therefore, chockful though they are of new knowledges and discoveries, have not been a single knife-edge of visible advance in the world's power of producing splendid individuals." And the author continues that, adding two hundred and fifty years many times over to that, and receding to the time of the great Greeks, we are obliged to admit that there has not been a knife-edge of advance in the same process since *that* period. Of course it may be claimed that the increase of science has raised the general level of ability—that the number of clever people is greater than formerly. The discussion of this question Prof. Masson waives; he confines himself to "the assertion that within historic time we find what we are obliged to call an intrinsic coequality of *some* minds at various successive points and at long-repeated intervals, and that consequently, if the human race is gradually acquiring a power of producing individuals more able than their ablest predecessors, the rate of its law in this respect is so slow that 2,500 years have not made the advance appreciable. The assertion is limited; it is reconcilable, I think, with the most absolute and extreme doctrine of evolution; but it seems to me both important and curious, inasmuch as it has not yet been sufficiently attended to in any of the phrasings of that doctrine that have been speculatively put forward." Those who are not ashamed to confess to a sneaking conservatism in their valuation of earlier ages than our own, will agree with Prof. Masson that his assertion is important, and they will do so the more frankly if they happen to be particularly struck with the cleverness of the present age. We ourselves find this very striking; the general level of ability seems to us wonderfully high, and we believe that really candid students of literature must often admit that we allow things nowadays to pass unnoticed which would have made the fortune of earlier writers. We not only beat them in knowledge, but we beat them in wit. And yet who does not know what it is to be divided, half painfully, between his sense of these facts and their brilliant and flattering meaning, and his sense, particularly tender as it often is, of the great movements of the human mind being, or at least seeming, great in virtue of a certain essential and unalterable quality? In some such clinging belief as this your genuine conservative finds a mysterious comfort, which it would take him a long time to explain. It would perhaps be, even to persons of a very discreetly and temperately sentimental turn, one of the most chilling and uncomfortable conquests of the doctrine of evolution, that we should have to reflect that the mind of Shakspere was not only different in degree from ours, but different in kind.

## THE GYPSY DIALECT IN ENGLAND.*

THERE is one class of the English community as yet unspoilt by ultra-civilization. We mean the Gypsies. Outcasts though they are, both by their own choice and by the verdict of the world at large, they are, nevertheless, a people by no means wholly void of virtues. The chief peculiarity about them seems to be, that, having wandered for untold generations, an uncontrollable love of vagabondism has become with them a second nature. For the pleasure attending the wild freedom of their existence they see no adequate compensation in the comforts enjoyed by those who have a fixed home. It is a pleasing picture, and yet not colored in excess of reality, that the authors of the book under notice draw of the Gypsy of England. Only want of space forbids our presenting it in full :

"No carpet can please him like the soft green turf, and no curtains compare with the snow-white blossoming hedgerow-thorn. A child of Nature, he loves to repose on the bare breast of the great mother. As the smoke of his evening fire goes up to heaven, and the savory odor of roast 'hotchi-witchi' or of 'canegri' soup salutes his nostrils, he sits, in the deepening twilight, drinking in, with unconscious delight, all the sights and sounds which the country affords. With his keen senses alive to every external impression, he feels that

> 'Tis sweet to see the evening star appear ;
> 'Tis sweet to listen, as the night-winds creep
> From leaf to leaf.'

He dreamily hears the distant bark of the prowling fox, and the melancholy hootings of the wood-owls. He marks the shriek of the 'night-wandering weasel,' and the rustle of the bushes as some startled forest-creature plunges into deeper coverts ; or, perchance, the faint sounds from a sequestered hamlet reach his ears, or the still more remote hum of a great city. Chilled from his infancy in such haunts as these, 'places of nestling green, for poets made,' and surely for Gypsies, too, no wonder if, after the fitful fever of his town life, he sleeps well, with the unforgotten and dearly-loved lullabies of his childhood soothing him to rest."

The genuine Gypsy is readily distinguished by his swarthy complexion, by his gait, and especially by his truly Oriental eye. His eye, above all, bespeaks him a wanderer from somewhere in the East ; and, but for the popular ignorance in past ages of the physical peculiarities of Asiatics, the French, and our forefathers in their track, would never have given him a name significative of origin from Egypt. As to the particular region of the East whence he emigrated, it is now determined, definitively, to be India. No position in ethnico-philology is more incontrovertible than this. When he came out of India is, however, a point not only as yet undecided, but destined probably to remain a mystery for ever. In basis and in bulk his dialect is Hindî, and the Hindî now existent. Whether the rest of it is not as well Hindî, but that of mediæval times, is a question on which we may possibly get some light if the poems of Chand are ever retrieved in their ancient purity. Hundreds of years must have elapsed after the Gypsy bade farewell to the plains of Hindustan before he reached the shores of Great Britain, where he has been known for upwards of three centuries. We have evidence that, in the course of this long period, as he receded from his home, and passed from land to land, his vocabulary was enriched from his contact with the peoples among whom he sojourned. That his mother-tongue was, in the meantime, otherwise modified, is not at all surprising. If it had not been for one consideration, he must, in the natural order of things, have lost it altogether. Choosing to dwell aloof from the rest of humanity, the Gypsies in keeping up their old speech acted from an instinct of policy. Strangers and aliens wherever they showed themselves, their very self-preservation, either collectively or individually, depended largely on their being able to hold converse in a tongue unintelligible to their neighbors. It is, we take it, from their having recognized this fact, and from their having acted in accordance with it, that their dialect still survives.

Observant of strict scientific method, and carefully discriminating what has fallen under their personal observation from that which they report on the authority of others, Messrs. Smart and Crofton restrict themselves almost wholly to the Gypsy dialect as known in England. And herein they have done judiciously. For in no two countries whose indigenous populations use different languages does the dialect of the Gypsies prove to be identical. When we possess monographs on the Gypsy dialects, treated country by country, executed as scrupulously as our authors have executed their monograph on the Gypsy dialect in England, it will be safe, and sooner it will not be safe, to speculate on the speech of our Ishmaelitish cousins in its generality. In the interests of exact knowledge, it is all-important, too, that writers on this subject should employ a uniform scheme of phonic notation. When, as in Dr. Paspati's elaborate 'Études sur les Tchinghianés, ou Bohémiens de l'Empire Ottoman,' we meet with Sanskrit, Hindî, Persian, Turkish, and other words, not to speak of Gypsy words themselves, Romanized after half-a-dozen systems, it is a rare chance that any but a very learned linguist indeed, if he ventures to dissert on what is presented to him, is not constantly betrayed into erroneous conclusions.

As the Gypsy dialect differs in different countries, so it may differ in one and the same country. Thus, in England, there is the ordinary form of it, and there is, also, an older form of it, now fast disappearing. As to idiom, and, most of all, as to verbal collocation, the latter is by far the more interesting of the two, from contributing to remind us more directly, when we consider the dialect in all its features, that, in it, we have to do with a speech of Asiatic extraction. It would be curious to ascertain whether the practitioners of the old dialect retain, as part of it, the Indo-Aryan distinction of two sorts of *r*, the distinction of *d*, *t*, etc., terminally aspirated and unaspirated, and the further distinction of *n*, *d*, *t*, *dh*, and *th* into lingual and dental. In our own intercourse with Gypsies we have noticed none of these niceties, as they seem to us occidentals. In their leisurely stroll through Continental Europe, the postfixed aspirate to which we have referred may have been smoothed away by surrounding influences, though we are not certain that the observation of Gypsyologists has been sufficiently accurate to leave no room for doubt on this head. Further, the letters *d*, *n*, and *t*, where lingual, were, we surmise, first dentalized, so as to conform to their character everywhere on the Continent, and these letters, on reaching England, where there are no vernacular dentals, were, in turn, lingualized. As confirmatory of what we have remarked with regard to the loss of aspirated consonants, we may add that the Gypsies, according to writers on their dialect, have, for instance, the words *bok*, *jib*, *kas*, *lik*, *nok*, *poos*, *rook*, *tan*, meaning hunger,' 'tongue,' 'hay,' 'nit,' 'nose,' 'straw,' 'tree,' 'place' ; and that the corresponding Hindî terms, *bhûkh*, *jibh*, *ghâs*, *likh*, *nâkh*, *phûs*, *rûkh*, *thân*, show, every one of them, aspiration. Oddly enough, however, the Gypsies cleave, in some cases, to the Semitic guttural equivalent to *x*, as in their *boxt*, "fortune," from the Persian *bakht*.

So little, very frequently, do Hindî words vary from their Gypsy counterparts, that, if pronounced by a Hindu, they could not fail of being understood by an English Stanley or Herne. To name a few of the most striking, such are *bahut*, *bâl*, *châm*, *chhurî*, *chûmâ*, *ḍorî*, *dosh*, *gon*, *kân*, *kaun*, *lâj*, *lon*, *mâns*, *manush*, *muṇh*, *naṅgâ*, *pânî*, *rât*, *sânp*, *sing*, *tale*, signifying 'much,' 'hair,' 'skin,' 'knife,' 'kiss,' 'string,' 'fault,' 'sack,' 'ear,' 'who?' 'shame,' 'salt,' 'flesh,' 'man,' 'mouth,' 'naked,' 'water,' 'night,' 'snake,' 'horn,' 'under.' The Hindî *kâlâpan*, 'blackness,' has become, among the English Gypsies, *kaulopen*, for which the Turkish Gypsies have *kalipe*. As between *-pen* and *-pe*, it is hasty in our authors, following Dr. Paspati, to consider the former as the older. The Dravidian originals of both, namely, *-pan* and *-pâ*—*-panâ* having been left unrepresented—came, almost unaltered, all the way from India. In *rattvalo*, 'bloody,' we seem to see a corruption of *raktwâlâ;* and, in *trooshloo*—or *trushalo*, as the Gypsies have it in Turkey—a corruption of *trishâlu*, which, though not in the dictionaries, is perfectly good Sanskrit and Hindî.

That the Gypsies took Persia on their way from India, or passed very near it, there are few, if any, clear indications in their dialect as now preserved in England. Such Persian words as *pashm* and *poshîda*, whence their *pooshom* and *posado*, 'wool' and 'hidden,' with many others which might be specified, have long been naturalized in India ; and the Gypsy *besh*, 'sit,' may more reasonably be referred to the Hindî *basnâ* than to the Persian *bishistan*. However, *hefta*, 'seven,' the Persian for which is *haft*, is asserted to be used, in some localities, by the Gypsies of England. On the poverty of their lexical capital, as compared with that of their Continental kinsmen, and on their almost total loss of inflections, still very numerous elsewhere, we cannot stop to dwell. For all this, like the old Arabs of the Desert, they pique themselves on their lingual legitimacy, and sturdily resist any innovations which palpably contravene established analogies. A Gypsy ventures a vocable of his own coining. "His comrades sit in judgment on the production, and, after a critical examination, 'welcome the little stranger,' and commend it as 'a good lav,' or crush it in its birth, and pronounce it to be 'not tatcho,' if it does not come up to average excellence." So say our authors ; and they ought to know.

The Gypsy prohibitive particle *maa* there seems to be as little ground for taking from the Persian *ma* as from the Greek *μή*. *Mâ* is pure Sanskrit, and is at once suggested by the Hindî *mat*. When *mat* was developed is unknown ; but *mâ*, now long obsolete, appears to have been in the vigor of life when the Gypsies left their ancestral abode. And so, we apprehend, was the Sanskritic locative case—which, by the way, our authors strangely call the "second dative"—at present well-nigh extinct. *Tire*, 'on the

* 'The Dialect of the English Gypsies. By B. C. Smart, M.D., and H. T. Crofton. Second Edition, revised and greatly enlarged.' London : Asher & Co. 1875.

shore,' is the sole univerbal locative (sundry postpositions excepted) that we ever heard in India: the lexicographers, a lazy folk, have overpassed it. Now, the Gypsies have *ker*, 'house,' and *kere*, 'at home'; *ghar*, in the Hindî of our time, and *ghare*, very probably, in the Hindî of bygone ages.

The dialect of the English Gypsies is made up of most miscellaneous constituents. Its *Anghiterra* and *Londeri*, for 'England' and 'London,' are of too unmistakable source to call for comment. *Fon*, the German *von*, is 'from'; and *stifo-*, as in *stifo-dad*, 'father-in-law,' is the German *stief-*. *Tood*, 'milk,' the Hindî *dûdh*, also intimates German influence. *Sapin*, 'soap,' ultimately traceable to the Greek σάπων, may have been picked up in any of half a score of Asiatic and European regions. *Chairus*, 'time,' is thought, by Dr. Paspati, to be from καιρός. *Quien sabe?*

*Dwâr*, 'door,' the Gypsies have changed into *wooder; ghâm*, 'sunshine,' into *kam*, 'sun'; *hast*, 'hand,' into *vast; him*, 'snow,' into *shiv* and *yiv; khânâ*, 'eat,' into *haw*. The processes, none of them unprecedented, involved in these transformations, we must abstain from detailing. Nor have we room to do more than barely touch on the Gypsy digammas, as we may designate them. These are seen in *vangar*, 'ember,' from *angâr; waver*, 'other,' from *aur; yog*, 'fire,' from *âg;* and *yok*, 'eye,' from *ânkh*. With *yog* and *yok* compare our ancestors' *yer*, for *ere*, which occurs even in the first edition of our ordinary Bible, King James's.

Messrs. Smart and Crofton offer us, in their volume, after a pleasantly written Introduction, a Grammar, Vocabularies Gypsy-English and English-Gypsy, and a very interesting collection of genuine Romany compositions. Dr. Smart, in the first edition of the work, entered into rather full particulars touching etymology. We hope that, in the third edition, the authors, with the assistance of some sound Oriental scholar, will assign to this department of their subject the attention which is its due, and thus double the value of their meritorious researches.

## SAINTE-BEUVE'S FIRST ARTICLES.*

THE acutest critic the world has seen spent much of the latter part of his life in revising his published writings, amending them, minutely annotating, and generally re-editing them. Everything that had ever come from his pen retained his interest to the last, and he thought that anything that was worth doing at all was worth doing well. He had a passion for exactitude, and he wished, as it were, to make a certain toilet for his productions, on their appearance before posterity. This is the sentiment of a man who feels that he has done good work; it is only solid objects that will bear free handling, and Sainte-Beuve had a comfortable sense that in his essays and *causeries* there was no want of pegs to hang notes and appendices upon. He prepared, therefore, during his last years, a series of "authorized editions" of all his principal performances—beginning with the later and proceeding back to the earlier ones. The editor of the present volume quotes from him a passage in which he expresses his general theory on these undertakings:

"I save what I can of the damaged baggage; I wish that what I reject might perish wholly and leave no trace. Unfortunately, this cannot absolutely be; what one collects into stout volumes is not saved by that fact, and what remains in scattered sheets is not so completely lost that it does not drag in one's track and weigh down, if need be, one's literary march and, later, one's memory (if a memory there is to be), with a multitude of confused and straggling reminiscences. It is proper, then, to answer only for what one has admitted, and, without disavowing the rest, to send it to the bottom. In a word, if one has a care for the future; if, without having the vanity of believing in anything in the way of glory, one feels at least the lawful desire to be in some rank or other an honorable witness to one's time, one has all precautions to take: one cannot too much act as a ship (*faire navire*), and keep one's course straight, to pass, without foundering, the perilous straits."

Sainte-Beuve republished his early poems and his youthful novel 'Volupté,' but he did not live to collect his first critical articles, his groping experiments in the line in which he subsequently became a master. It is a vast pity that, since they were to be exhumed, he himself should not have presided at the ceremony. He would have supplied them with a number of entertaining notes, and given many valuable glimpses of the history of the formation of his opinions. It is a strange and uncomfortable thing to find one's self reading Sainte-Beuve uncommented by himself; the absence of the familiar footnotes, generally more characteristic and pointed than the text itself, has something melancholy and almost cruel; it reminds one afresh of his departure, and is like seeing a person thrust half-dressed into company. The present volume has been put together by one of his literary executors, and the work has apparently been carefully done, as far as the searching out and identification of his pieces are concerned. Sainte-Beuve had, after much solicitation, announced his intention of doing this work himself; they seem to come under the head of those things which would not go to the bottom, even if one threw them overboard. They were contributed to the *Globe* newspaper during a series of years beginning with 1824, when the author was a half-hearted medical student of twenty. The title of 'Lundis' is of course a device of the publisher, but the subjects are the same in character as those he treated later—literary figures of the day, and of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

It is interesting to observe his first trustful impressions of writers on whom he subsequently expatiated with such ripe sagacity and, in some cases, with such polished irony. This especially strikes us in reading his youthfully glowing tribute to the early poetry of Victor Hugo and Lamartine. As to Victor Hugo indeed, as years advanced, Sainte-Beuve maintained a portentous silence; he let him alone, as he let alone Madame Sand and Balzac (to the latter of whom he never did justice), and when he withheld an opinion one might know there was a good reason for it. But Lamartine, on various occasions, he handled with unsparing acerbity; the poet had relaxed and the critic had hardened. The merit of these papers is evidently greater than was to be expected; they seem to us to contain the distinct promise of the author's future. There are things excellently said throughout, and which would be worth quoting; but the main thing is the general manner, the general firmness, the certainty and maturity of touch. The author writes as if he felt that, without abrupt transitions, he was going to become a master; if we had been his editor we should certainly have kept an eye on him. The article on the Memoirs of Madame de Genlis is, for a young man of twenty-two, extremely remarkable, and if he does not yet speak with the authority with which, many years after, he alluded to the lady's being *de veine verbeuse et mensongère*, there is no lack of a really penetrating perception of her foibles. The talent for incisive irony is apparent from the first. "At Modena, the Prime Minister, M. de Lascaris, threw himself at her feet, with a little air of triumph which she contrived very well to repress. At Rome, she saw the Cardinal de Bernis, whom they called there the King of Rome. . . . He assisted regularly at the baths of Madame de Genlis, and enlivened them by his charming conversation. The Chevalier de Bernis, his nephew, was her guide in her nocturnal promenades among the ruins of the Coliseum, but 'he was at least fifty years old.' At Naples, she ravished the whole court by the sound of her harp—and the queen especially, who kissed her hands; she saw also some lazzaroni, all naked, and some superb figs and pine-apples—and there ends the journey in Italy." These lines, from a charming paper on Diderot, of the date of 1830, might have been written at the close of the author's life; they have quite his final tone and rhythm: "That Diderot should grow fat, that his paunch should define itself, that he should have indigestion and take medicine, that Mlle. Voland herself should 'pay a bad fortnight for a little glass of wine and the thigh of a partridge too much,' this shocks us, in turn, for a long time, and spoils for us many effusions still living, many fresh reminiscences of love. For noble, ideal love, as for poetry, there are but two periods of life, youth and old age; in the interval, when profound and passionate love exists, it must hide itself and beware of witnesses; it does not easily interest a third person; it is complicated with a thousand petty miseries of body and mind, with obesity, with ambition; one can hardly believe in it, one can't admire it." These reflections savor of the wisdom that comes of much observation of the world, and, if anything might have qualified our confidence in the wisdom of the shrewd young critic, it would have been the suspicion that he was *too* shrewd, too old, too *posé;* that his taste was too good. Youthful genius is, traditionally at least, a trifle more erratic.

English readers will glance with especial interest at the articles on Scott's 'Life of Napoleon' and on Fenimore Cooper. The former is remarkable for its very delicate and sympathetic discrimination between Scott's charm as a romancer and his culpable weaknesses as a historian. For a young Frenchman of 1827 to declare so eloquently that he esteemed the author of 'The Bride of Lammermoor,' *as such*, none the less for having compiled that melancholy work, 'The Life of Napoleon,' indicates a striking measure of critical generosity. But young Frenchmen of that period took romancers on easy terms if we may judge by the extreme friendliness of the author's remarks on 'Le Corsaire Rouge'—that fast friend of our school-days, 'The Red Rover.' Cooper's magnificent popularity in France has always seemed to us a half-amusing, half-touching spectacle, and there could be no better proof that people, in judging a foreigner, should never be sure they have not made a mistake in *proportion*. The "cultivated American" at the present day has an old-time fondness for Cooper, which makes the smile in which he indulges on finding that there are people who still read him a very kindly smile; but though we

* 'Premiers Lundis. Par C. A. Sainte-Beuve, de l'Académie Française.' Tome I. Paris: Michel Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1874.

have a healthy disposition to make the most of our literary luminaries, we are not commonly addicted to speaking of the author of the 'Last of the Mohicans' as a first-rate man, and we are puzzled on finding ardent allusions to him in such writers as Balzac and Madame Sand. But, of course, if we take his trappers and his Indians in good faith, Europeans could hardly do less, and the prairie and the virgin forest, as he portrayed them, had, when contemplated from the Boulevard, a prodigiously natural air. We are inclined to believe, however, that Sainte-Beuve made, first and last, almost no other mistake than this, and these slight papers give us, as we have hinted, an impression of almost formidable sagacity. We confess that, touching such a man as Sainte-Beuve, our curiosity is infinite; we feel as if we could never learn enough about him. His intellectual fecundity was so unbounded that one imagines that the history of his individual opinions would throw a preternaturally brilliant light upon the laws of the human mind at large. We are thankful to learn from his present editor that such a history is to receive a valuable contribution in the publication of his letters, as completely as possible. We had a couple of years since a taste of his epistolary faculty in his published notes to the Princess Mathilde. These were not elaborate letters; they were emphatically notes—notes on life, on people, on books—but they had a point, an acuteness, a savor which make one eager for the sequel. They will set the seal of completeness on a truly magnificent literary record. We may add that there is apparently to be another volume of these 'Nouveaux Lundis,' and that there is much so-called "ripe criticism" at the present hour which has less flavor than these verdant first-fruits of a man of extraordinary genius. The grasp may here and there lack firmness, but the hand is already the hand of a master.

---

*Masterpieces in English Literature*, and Lessons in the English Language, etc., etc. Designed for use in Colleges and Schools. By Homer B. Sprague, Principal of the Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, N. Y., and late Professor of Rhetoric in Cornell University. In Four Books. Vol. I. (New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 437.)—Prof. Sprague's book is not on a level with the high standard to which English philological and literary study has been raised of late years by English, German, and American scholars; it falls, indeed, far below it, though it is characterized by unusual pretension—by large promises, along with a small performance. The selections are excellent; and, with one exception, all complete works, comprising the 'Clerk's Tale of Patient Griselda,' from the Canterbury Tales; Spenser's 'Epithalamium,' Six of Lord Bacon's Essays, Shakspere's 'Macbeth,' Milton's 'Areopagitica,' 'Ode on the Nativity,' and 'Comus,' and Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' Part I. In the Preface, the editor says:

"In the following work, constituting the first series, and, indeed, in each of the subsequent volumes, the object is primarily and chiefly to present for study the masterpieces in English literature; but incidentally the attempt is made to show, in the first two volumes, something of the philosophy and development of the English language, and to awaken an interest in its critical study."

Now, to show the development of the English language, and to awaken an interest in its critical study, we need not say that that development and that critical study can be, the one exhibited and the other pursued, only on the basis of the forms of the language at different periods of its history. But turning to the editor's introductory remarks to the 'Clerk's Tale,' on page 18, we read:

"Except in the last six stanzas [L'Envoye de Chaucer] I have taken the liberty to modernize the spelling wherever it would not change the pronunciation of the word, outlandish orthography being no more essential to old English poetry than to modern wit."

In other words, he thinks with Artemus Ward that "Mr. C. had talent, but he couldn't spel." He says, as quoted above, "*incidentally* the attempt is made," etc. But, in turning over the book, we find that the "attempt," instead of being "incidentally made," constitutes a very prominent feature of the performance, more prominent even than in many text-books that might be named, in which the development of the language and its critical study are a *leading* object. We don't make that, of course, a ground of objection. But the editor's idea of what constitutes a critical study of the language, as shown by his treatment of Chaucer, philologically the most important author in his book, whose "outlandish orthography" he considers "no more essential to old English poetry than to modern wit," is open to considerable objection. What a teacher who would impart instruction to his class on the forms of Chaucer's language could do with such a text as the editor has served up is a question, unless he should employ it as grammarians employ false syntax sometimes, to teach correct grammar. It represents neither the English of the fourteenth nor of the nineteenth century, nor any other English that has ever existed since the foundations of the world were laid; at any rate, since the Norman Conquest.

Our author's treatment of Shakspere is characterized not only by his usual pretentiousness, but by a flippancy as out of place as it is intolerable. "I recognize," he says, "in Shakspere, as in most men of the highest genius, a singular force and intensity." "More than any other writer, he loads words with meaning till they sink under the weight; vivifies nouns into verbs; *injects his fiery emotion, incapable of cooling, through the rifts of granitic thought;* vitalizes and incarnates the shadows of fiction, till no historic characters seem so real." But there are pitiable offsets to every human life, however exalted, and the Professor stays his thunder in mid volley, and interposes one of these offsets: "Yet one blunder, great and almost fatal, stands out in bold relief. At eighteen, having no visible means of supporting a family, he marries Anne Hathaway, a woman of twenty-six. Before he is twenty-one, *three little Shaksperes are crying for bread!*" He alludes to the tradition that Shakspere was once a schoolmaster, and thinks that of this "some confirmation may be found in the prominence which Shakspere gives to school exercises, and in the *marvellous fluency* with which he uses those words and illustrations which are the stock in trade of Latin schoolmasters." He then adds: "But the hum of pedagogy by day, or the monotony of hard study by night in a room *where three babes exercise their musical prerogatives unquestioned*, is dull experience for a youth conscious of gigantic powers, and determined to scale the highest heaven of thought." Alluding to the story of the deer-poaching, he says, "Caught in the act, William and his young fellow-poachers *show fight*." Of the poet's vocabulary, he says: "*His extraordinary vocabulary, far surpassing in fulness and accuracy that of any other writer in any age*, proves him to have been a most diligent student of language." Among other subjects given on page 179, the student is directed to write an essay upon "Shakspere's vocabulary, and what is proved by its fulness and accuracy." Now every Shakspere scholar knows that while Shakspere was perhaps the greatest *expresser* that ever lived, he used a comparatively limited vocabulary. The power of his diction consists not in the abundance of his words, but in the way he marshals those he uses, so that they often mutually stimulate each other to the fullest realization of their potential expressiveness. Mr. George P. Marsh, an accepted authority, has estimated that Shakspere's entire vocabulary little exceeds fifteen thousand words, and of these a large number, chiefly of Latin origin, will be found to occur but once or at most twice in his pages, while the authorized vocabulary of the time embraced twice or thrice that number. The laborious translator, Philemon Holland, who was born twelve years before Shakspere and survived him twenty, "being himself translated," as the humorous Fuller in his 'Church Worthies' expresses it, in 1636, used in his translations a very much (easily more than fifty per cent.) larger vocabulary than did Shakspere, and a vocabulary, too, which was in general use at the time, as we know from other contemporary writers.

Professor Sprague, after summing up the "points of his intellectual supremacy" which he "recognizes," concludes:

"Yet Shakspere was but half a man, rarely looking beyond the uses of the theatre. Prince of dramatists, master of the revels to all mankind, chief caterer to human amusement—this is something; it is even noble. But it is not enough. Great intellectual, moral, and political movements are in progress in England and on the Continent during the whole of his career. Shall not the most consummate of artists play the man? Shall the foremost intellect of the race be insignificant in action and loose in conduct? see nothing but from the standpoint of his theatre? say nothing but as an actor on the stage? do nothing to lead the struggling millions to a higher life? But let us not judge hastily. We may be pardoned for the perhaps excessive charity of believing that, if his days had been prolonged, he would have atoned for the indifference or idleness of the past. Cut off suddenly at the age of fifty-two, what plans for human improvement may not have been buried with him? Given thirty years more, he might have shown himself as sublime in action as in thought. We have here his own explicit declaration that the life of a trifler was distasteful to him." (He here quotes portions of the 110th and 111th Sonnets.)

Talk like this from a "Professor of Rhetoric" in a university, or even from a principal of an academy, is out of reach of comment. The book, coming from either source, may fairly be called scandalous.

---

*Tales in Political Economy.* By Millicent Garrett Fawcett. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Mrs. Fawcett, who, it is hardly necessary to say, is the wife and coadjutor of the well-known professor of that name, attempts in the little volume before us to make plain some of the elementary principles of political economy by three or four stories told by an old sailor, Captain Adams, who had travelled far and passed much time on an island in the Southern seas with a company of shipwrecked sailors, whose doings lay bare the processes of production and distribution in their

simplest forms. The first tells how the chiefs of a settlement composed of the descendants of Dutch settlers in an island in the Indian Ocean, having groves of palm-trees of their own, from which they produced great quantities of oil—the monopoly of which they retained for themselves—provided a market for the oil by compelling the commoners to build their huts without windows and keep a mat hanging down in front of the door, so as to keep the interior in perpetual darkness, and how Captain Adams failed in trying to induce them to give up the manufacture of oil and use the sunlight in its stead, and devote themselves to the preparation of other commodities for exchange. This is exceedingly pat and well told. The others, relating to the lives of the shipwrecked sailors, having to illustrate such complicated matters as the division of labor, exchange, demand and supply, the elements of value, the nature and use of money and of credit, are less successful, as the narrative constantly, and we were going to say inevitably, runs into simple exposition. We consequently feel that if a pupil needed the story he would not profit by the exposition, and that if he could profit by the exposition he would not need the story. Political economy undoubtedly admits, more than most other branches of knowledge, of being illustrated in this way, but we doubt if any story ought to attempt to deal with more than one point. The struggles of a producer, for instance, with a currency varying from day to day in value, would make a good parable in itself if no other element were let in; but as the problem becomes complex, the difficulty of covering it with fiction is enormously increased, even in the hands of so skilful a writer as Mrs. Fawcett. By all of which we do not mean to say, by any means, that she has not made a useful book in the present case.

# Fine Arts.

## THE WATER-COLOR SOCIETY'S EXHIBITION.—II.

THE death of Mr. Burling and that of Mr. Eaton, the former the Society's founder and long its secretary, have cast an unusual gloom over the exhibition at the Academy. Mr. Burling, now taken away in his youth, was a companionable, lovable man, fond of woods, fields, and art, and a born companion of the birds, whose pretty ways and movements he captured in a great many beautiful and accurate studies. His sense of landscape beauty, too, was acute and tender, and he excelled in a peculiar Meissonier-like way of dotting figures into scenery with a lifelike confusion of detail. His contributions to the display this year are at the level of his best works heretofore, and indicate a painter hardly in his prime, certainly not beyond it. Mr. Eaton, too, leaves a host of regretful friends.

The largest figure-piece contributed, we believe, and in some respects the most important, is Mr. Frederick's group of "Romeo and Juliet." This artist has some right to grapple with Shakspere, as proved by his very imaginative illustrations to the "Midsummer-Night's Dream," and by a large meritorious oil-painting of the "Death of Tybalt," exhibited some years ago. The present contribution, though not the best that Mr. Fredericks is capable of making for us, has study and sentiment. Juliet, a little pleading nightgowned child, is at least pathetic, if not strictly tragical. The Romeo, in a costume that cuts him up into too many tessellated squares, is not quite satisfactory, as his pose looks huddled and his figure somewhat flat and disarticulated; but his grave, almost Dantesque aquiline profile, in the cowl of an antique travelling-cloak, suggests great depth of character and capacity for suffering. The style of the work is that of one who does not move easily in the methods of water-color; it is a tinted drawing and no painting. The severe outlines intersect the whole composition, and are not always so pure and sensitive as they ought to be. The color, in a minor key throughout, is agreeable and unobtrusive.

A contrasting exhibition of very cheap sentiment is made by Mr. Matt Morgan in a showy and superficial pair of emigrants, looking homeward over the side of the conventional vessel in the conventional way. One seems to see in the handsome ease with which he works that Mr. Morgan has no care or thought for what his heroes are feeling, but puts in the lines of expression according to formula, with all the happiness of a routine one has thoroughly mastered. If there be any form of life, pain or pleasure, dignity or vulgarity, with which this artist really sympathizes, we are convinced he would paint a fine picture of it. Up to this moment, as is well known, his grand successes have been the skeletons of the *Tomahawk*. The present picture appears to be in pure gouache, and is executed with workmanlike and even reckless facility. Mrs. Elizabeth Murray shows, we fancy, improvement in her large picture of a girl twisting a ribbon in her hair, called "The White Rose"; though the eye of this heroine is rather wider than her mouth, a phenomenon of scale not observed in nature, yet the expression is pure and genuine, and the requisite effect of lily-like purity is not marred by anything in the expression or the attitude. Mrs. Murray's study of Gypsies is even less coherent than is the wont of that threadbare and long-suffering tribe when it falls into her hands. Mr. William Magrath, whose recent pictures have given so much real pleasure, shows in his "Wilds of Connemara" that he can play the pastoral reed without imitating Mr. Boughton or any other Lycidas. The distance here has an energetic charge of coloration, and the hoyden-shepherdess a piquancy of character that Mr. Boughton would rather fall into paralysis, we suspect, than represent. Yet the scene is a pastoral and an idyl, for all its individuality; the girl looms against the sky like some wild growth that has never been taught how poetic it is, and the wrinkled coats of the sheep, breaking into matted fissures as the animals twist their lean necks among the herbage, are true to nature and therefore faithful to sentiment. Mr. Winslow Homer, with rapid ease and photographic breadth, plants his flattened figures against a great variety of landscapes and coast-reaches. He contributes very copiously, and it is hard to say which of his sketches is the best when none are bad. Perhaps that of two smug and innocent fisher-boys, conveying a basket of clams, and just unconsciously swerving from the path at sight of a strange fish lying on the sand, is as characteristic as any. The pleasure with which we recognize truth-evidence in every study of Mr. Homer's is, however, marred by a really poignant feeling of regret. Seven or eight years ago this artist seemed to be preparing to paint pictures, and not mere effects; at present his highest exercise is to lay silhouettes of pasteboard on a ground of pasteboard differently tinted, and with these admirably-cut jumping-jacks to go through the various evolutions of life as given "in the flat."

The large and remarkable pictures by Mrs Stillman are almost the only examples present this year of that intellectual subtlety in figure-treatment and that Northern or Gothic ballad-pathos which mark the British school. These qualities are conferred by education, if not by residence, upon the artist in question, whose treatment of Arthurian legend is so poetic and so grave. In one composition, Launcelot is discovered by Elaine, as he dreams by a fountain in his fool's dress, his bauble lying beside him, and the "pleached bower" of a rose-garden woven above his head; in another, Isoud stands white and ghost-like before Tristram, a lily planted beside her figure, like the symbol of a saint. The pictures are marked by a very perfect observance of unity, the mediæval slenderness of the forms going well with the fashion of the pleasance and the orchard in the respective scenes, the quaint formality in which reminds one of missal-work. Deep, pure, and transparent colors are embroidered over the intricate compositions, and fit the drawing like primitive music accompanying antique words. Whatever has been seen of this artist's work is marked by thought and intellectual beauty; her treatment of portraiture, as in the large female head on exhibition, is fascinating in its intensity of comprehension and reserved power; in the painting of details, as in the Chinese vase of a flower-study close by, the work is the direct and innocent copy-work of ancient illuminators. One may believe in very different theories of art, yet be unable to resist the charm of a sectarianism so consistent, sacred, and sincere.

A Gavarni-like subject by Gustave David, with a girl and carrier-doves, and the cluster of half-a-dozen carefully finished family groups by Eugène Devéria, remind one of the vast emancipatory strides made by French water-color in the present age of Vibert and Bida. The Devérias, with the Greuze-like family sentiment, the Isabey-like finish, and the Louis Philippe costumes, are interesting rather historically than intrinsically. The burst of warm Venetian color which was shown in his Luxembourg picture of "The Birth of Henri IV." subsided soon into commonplace, and the artist died young. The broad and manly style in which French water-colorists now paint the figure is a foreign lesson, yet is derived less from their English predecessors than from certain Spanish and Neapolitan influences. The Spanish-Italian school is represented in the Society's exhibition by some choice examples, among which that of Villegas looms like a tower above the rest. We allude to these, not for the purpose of expatiating upon them at present, but to indicate how interesting a study may be made of painting according to its historic dates, and also to point out the class of art which the more earnest American painters are selecting for standards and criterions.

Kappes and Knight contribute figure-subjects of much graphic merit, yet such as could never have been painted or taught by an English aquarellist. The organ-grinder feeding his monkey, and the beggar-man, by Mr. Kappes, are in a large, flattened style, relieved in plane surfaces, the body-color applied as with a trowel, and the whole treatment seemingly derived from scene-painting in distemper; yet the touch is as different as possible

from Mr. Morgan's, with his English hatching and quilting. Mr. Knight paints similar character-subjects with a similar breadth, but with transparent washes of color; his gardener and fishermen are energetic and alive. The most admirable figure-studies, however, for pure natural force and virility, are those of Mr. Eakins, in which the method of Gérôme is applied to subjects the antipodes of those affected by the French realist. Mr. Eakins shows three sheets, one representing racing-boats drifting in a calm, one a negro crouched in the grass and decoying plover by imitating their cry, and one a pair of base-ball players. The selection of the themes in itself shows artistic insight, for American sporting-life is the most Olympian, beautiful, and genuine side of its civilization from the plastic point of view; and the treatment, though a little stiff and labored, is pre-eminently sincere. The negro's face is modelled like a bronze, within the size of one's thumb-nail; the business of the scene, in all three of the pictures, is attended to with the religious fidelity which a Greek sculptor would show in a commemorative athletic statue; and the forms of the youthful ball-players, indeed, exceed most Greek work we know of in their particular aim of expressing alert strength in a moment of tension.


The attention of all readers of books of travel is invited to

*AFRICA:*

The History of Exploration and Adventure, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and numerous Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

"This volume contains the quintessence of a whole library. . . . What makes it peculiarly valuable is its combination of so much material which is inaccessible to the general reader, who is put in possession, by this means, of a vast amount of entertaining as well as instructive information. The excellent map, showing the routes of the leading explorers, and the numerous illustrations, increase the value and interest of the book."—*Boston Globe.*

"As a survey of the whole subject of African travel and exploration, the book is invaluable, and as such we commend it to all such as desire to become better acquainted with one of the most interesting themes of the age."—*New Haven Palladium.*

RECENTLY PUBLISHED:

A new and thoroughly-revised edition of

*ADAMS'S DEMOCRACY AND*

Monarchy in France. From the Inception of the Great Revolution to the Overthrow of the Second Empire. 8vo, $2 50.

*GAUTIER'S A WINTER IN*

Russia. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE MAD-*

ding Crowd. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*MILL'S THREE ESSAYS ON RE-*

ligion. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Just Published,

*ANNETTE;* or, The Chronicles of Bellevue. A Novel. By Charlotte Walsingham. 12mo, cloth extra, $1 75.

*** The publishers beg leave to commend the above work to the reading public. It is an American Novel of rare merit, written in a graceful and charming style, and possessing in its natural and simple plot a singular interest. The sentiment and whole tone of the book is pure, elevated, and refined.

"This charming volume is entitled to rank with the very best of recent books in this line. . . . Contains whole pages and chapters of rare artistic and dramatic power. Annette is really a charming character."—*Trenton True American.*

Centennial Edition.

*FAIRMOUNT PARK AND THE*

International Exhibition at Philadelphia. Illustrated, sixth edition, revised and enlarged.

Contains a full description of the Grounds and the Exhibition Buildings, with illustrations. Price, in neat paper cover, 75 cents, and in cloth ornate, $1.

Recently Issued.

*THOUGHTS ON REVELATION,*

With Special Reference to the Present Time. By John McLeod Campbell, author of 'The Nature of the Atonement and its Relation to the Remission of Sins and Eternal Life.' One vol. 12mo, fine cloth, price $1 25.

☞ For sale by the principal booksellers, and mailed on receipt of the price.

CLAXTON, REMSEN & HAFFELFINGER,
Publishers, Philadelphia.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

In press, and will be sent free of charge to any address,

*PRICED AND DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE*

Of a large Collection of
SCARCE, STANDARD, AND CURIOUS ENGLISH AND FOREIGN BOOKS,

Memoirs, History, Poetry, the Drama, Shakspere, Works in French and Italian, Travels, Ana, Anecdote, Bons Mots, Books of Prints, Science, Medicine, Dentistry, Belles Lettres, etc., etc.

FOR SALE BY
A. DENHAM & CO.,
Importers and Publishers,
17 MURRAY STREET, NEW YORK.

*A NEW SUNDAY-SCHOOL* Magazine. To be published monthly. For Pastors, Superintendents, Normal-class Teachers, etc. Not to interfere with the *Sunday-School Journal.* To begin January, 1875.

*THE NORMAL CLASS:* A Monthly Magazine for the Discussion of all Sunday-school Topics; the Publication of Normal-class Outlines; Normal-class Text-papers; Descriptions of Sunday-schools; Institute, Convention, and Sunday-school Programmes; Sunday-school News; Notes from all Parts of the World; Valuable Papers on Teaching; Sunday-school History, Administration, etc., etc. J. H. Vincent, editor. First Number ready Dec. 20.

Size of 'The Normal Class,' 48 pages, 12mo.

Price of 'The Normal Class,' $1 50 per year.

Address
NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

*ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.*

New Edition. Price, cloth, $9; half Russia, $11 per vol.

Vol. I. is ready for delivery. We are now prepared to furnish a prospectus with sample pages.

Subscriptions received by
E. P. DUTTON & CO.,
New York Agents, 713 Broadway, New York.

*A PASSIONATE PILGRIM,* and Other Tales. By Henry James, Jr. $2.

The volume contains six stories, namely: 'A Passionate Pilgrim,' 'The Last of the Valerii,' 'Eugene Pickering,' 'The Madonna of the Future,' 'The Romance of Certain Old Clothes,' 'Madame de Mauves.' These tales comprise some of the most clever studies in character I have seen anywhere. They are full of fresh description, of that vein of half philosophy, half speculation, which is so taking just now; and the plots are eminently original and unhackneyed. —*New York Tribune.*

*PARNASSUS.* Edited by R. W. Emerson. Revised edition. $4.

*A FOREGONE CONCLUSION.* By W. D. Howells. 3d edition. $2.

☞ For sale by all Booksellers. Sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, by the Publishers,
JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

NOW READY.

*The Vatican Decrees*

and Civil Allegiance. In Answer to Mr. Gladstone. By His Grace Archbishop Manning. One vol. 12mo, paper, 50 cents.

ALSO,

*Very Rev. Dr. Newman's*

Reply to Mr. Gladstone. One vol. 12mo, paper, 50 cts.

ALSO, IN PRESS,

*Rt. Rev. Bp. Vaughan's*

Reply to Mr. Gladstone. One vol. 12mo, paper, 25 cts.

ALSO,

*Bishop Ullathorne's*

Reply to Mr. Gladstone. One vol. 12mo, paper, 25 cents.

ALSO,

BISHOP FESSLER
ON
*True and False*
*INFALLIBILITY.*

Paper, 50 cents.

Sent by mail on receipt of price.

THE CATHOLIC PUBLICATION SOCIETY,
LAWRENCE KEHOE, Gen. Agent,
9 Warren Street, New York.


*On page 122 "The Reader" glances at these volumes of the Clarendon Press Series: Wright's Shakspere's Tempest, Skeat's Chaucer, Hales's Milton's Areopagitica, Griffith's Minor Poems of Cowper, and Professor Fraser's Berkeley. List of New Books by Messrs. Macmillan, same page.*


*March Atlantic.*

READY SATURDAY.

"MARK TWAIN"

Has a very amusing account in it of OLD TIMES ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

DAVID A. WELLS

Has an important paper, TAXATION WITHOUT JURISDICTION UNCONSTITUTIONAL, which every one should read.

W. J. HOPPIN

Gives a striking account of HISTORICAL PORTRAITS LATELY EXHIBITED IN PARIS.

JOHN JAMES PIATT

Treats of the remarkable poet, FORCEYTHE WILSON, who excited so much interest a few years since.

ORIGIN OF THE NAME AMERICA

Is a curious paper, by an eminent geographer, which will attract a great deal of attention. There are seventeen papers and poems and stories in this interesting number, besides the able editorial departments.

Terms: 35 cents a number, $4 a year, postage free.

H. O. HOUGHTON & COMPANY, Boston;
HURD & HOUGHTON, New York.

*PUBLIC HEALTH.* Reports and Papers presented at the Meetings of the American Public Health Association in the year 1874. In one volume 8vo, illustrated with maps and drawings, cloth, $6 50. A few copies only remaining.

This important work contains the result of investigations and observations by eminent physicians and students in sanitary science.

The volume is edited by Dr. Elisha Harris, Secretary of the Association, and among the contributors may be mentioned the President, Dr. Stephen Smith; the Secretary, Prof. Francis A. Walker; Superintendent of the Census, Dr. Nathan Allen of Lowell, President F. A. P. Barnard, Dr. Clendenin of Cincinnati, Dr. Hough of Philadelphia, Hon. A. D. White, President of Cornell University; Prof. Chandler, Dr. Ely McClellan, Dr. J. C. Peters, Prof. Austin Flint. The bulk of the edition has been subscribed for in advance, but a few copies may be had by non-subscribers at the above rate.

HURD & HOUGHTON, 13 Astor Place, New York;
The Riverside Press, Cambridge.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE Louisiana Committee has made its report, and Messrs. Hoar, Frye, and Wheeler conclude: That the last election was unfair, and that the colored voters and white Republicans were intimidated; that the White League does exist, and fills the colored people with terror; that more than 2,500 Republicans "must have been prevented from registration or driven by terror from the polls"; that Kellogg was elected in 1872; and that the late returns of the Returning Board were illegal. The majority report, however, which, of course, is the report of the committee, is substantially the same as that of the sub-committee, made a few weeks since. It is signed by Messrs. Foster, Phelps, Potter, and Marshall. They say that "the assumption of the minority that enough colored voters must have been prevented from voting at the late election, by the recollection of the Colfax and Coushatta killing," and by "other riots which occurred years before," to have changed the result of the election throughout the State, is, in the absence of all evidence except that both these intimidated parishes elected this year a full Kellogg ticket by increased Republican majorities, a pretty violent assumption. They declare, on the other hand, that the Conservatives specified with proof 5,200 cases of "conceded false registration in New Orleans alone," and that the registration of colored voters exceeded by 4,000 the total number of colored adult males given by the census of 1870, 86,913, while the white registry was "ten thousand less"; that in only three parishes did the Republican Supervisors of Registration make any complaint of unfair or insufficient registration, and that there is an "entire want of any direct evidence to show any general intimidation of the colored voters," and that "such intimidation as did exist in the State was rather in the interest of the Republicans than of the Conservatives"; and finally, that the election was fair, and the House of Representatives carried by the Conservatives. The whole committee recommend the Louisiana House to reseat the members expelled by the troops; and Messrs. Hoar, Frye, and Wheeler recommend that Kellogg be recognized, while Messrs. Phelps and Foster are of the opinion that a compromise, based on this recognition, might be "on the whole less intolerable than the present situation"; Messrs. Potter and Marshall utterly oppose any recognition of Kellogg. The Conservatives have sent a committee to Washington, which has had an interview with the President. He referred them to Mr. Wheeler, of the Congressional Committee, as a gentleman of the highest character, and of what elderly statesmen call "approved sagacity," and as well fitted to get up a government for them as anybody he knew.

---

The Senate Judiciary Committee were in December directed by the Senate to examine the "Press Gag-law," and particularly to report whether under it persons accused of libel or any other crime could be dragged from their homes to Washington to be tried by a District Court. They have now reported that the gag-law, so called, confers upon the District Courts the power to arrest offenders found in the District who are charged with crime committed in the District and hold them for trial (which was the law before), and to arrest offenders found in the District who have committed crimes against the United States in some judicial district of the United States, and to send them to such district for trial. This, the committee say, "is all." "No person can be brought into the District of Columbia under it, either for libel or any other crime." "It is equally plain that no person charged with the crime of libel in any other district or place in the United States can be arrested here" (in Washington) "and sent to such district or place under it," for *first*, libel is not a crime against the laws of the United States, and, *second*, if libel is a crime by any Territorial laws (and if such laws could be held for such purposes to be laws of the United States), still the Act does not apply to the Territories at all. The committee finally report that the Act is "necessary and proper, and in perfect accordance with the principles of justice and the course of civilized jurisprudence." The report is signed by all the committee, including Mr. Thurman, and may therefore be taken as an authoritative settlement of the press-gag question, notwithstanding that Mr. Lyman Tremain reports himself as still unconvinced.

---

We have before now explained in the *Nation* that we adopted this view of the law—substantially that given unofficially some months since by Senator Frelinghuysen. We suppose there can be no doubt that it is a harmless act, but the "howl and clamor of the press" about it for the last year is rather a remarkable proof of the public odium into which Congress manages to bring its most harmless measures by the reckless manner in which it puts forward the worst men of the country as its representatives and leaders. If this District of Columbia law had been introduced into Congress as a harmless piece of "civilized jurisprudence," nothing more would probably have been heard of it; but it was, on the contrary, passed in the midst of a bitter and furious attack on the press by such men as Senator Carpenter, when the chairman of the House Judiciary happened to be, as now, a notoriously corrupt person who had an especial and avowed hostility to the press. It was passed, too, at a time when the exposure of the frauds of Shepherd, the Washington "boss," had made the press peculiarly obnoxious to all the corrupt leaders in Washington, and it was well known that a law of some sort to muzzle the press had been introduced into Congress by them. When, therefore, the present Act made its appearance it can hardly be wondered at that it was popularly supposed to be directed at the press; nor can we sympathize with the virtuous indignation of the party over the unfair use made of it by the Democrats. The people engaged in legislation at Washington seem to have a very small idea of the suspicion with which their acts are regarded by the majority of the people outside, who have gradually come in these latter days, rightly or wrongly, to regard the average Congressman (in the absence of proof of innocence) as a sort of "habitual criminal"; and, as an instance of this, we may refer to the fact that there are thousands of people, voters too, in this city who believe to-day that the recent revision of the statutes was a fraudulent job, and that they were really revised to heighten and lower duties; and this though there has been already one investigation on the subject.

---

In Congress, on Wednesday, Mr. Dawes succeeded in getting the Tax and Tariff Bill before the Committee of the Whole in the House, and it was debated at length, and a great deal of opposition was developed. Many amendments were proposed, but the only one adopted was that introduced by Mr. Cox of New York, to increase the duty on champagne in bottles fifty per cent. At the evening session, Mr. Butler reported a telegraph bill, making the telegraph lines "post-roads"—a thing which cannot be done under the Constitution, and which the House declined to do even under the previous question. In the Senate, on the same day, the Pinchback case came up, and Senator Ferry of Connecticut made an excellent speech in opposition, while some amusement was caused by an "issue" between Senator Stevenson and Senator West as to what the latter was smiling about; on which it appeared that Mr. West was smiling at Senator Stevenson's ignorance as to Louisiana politics. On the next day the Senate, by a vote of 39 to 22, tabled the resolution to admit Pinchback, some fifteen regular Republicans, including Messrs. Conkling and Frelinghuysen, voting with the Democrats.

The House discussed the Tax Bill again, and passed also an extremely important bill for the improvement of the mouth of the Mississippi by means of jetties, the work to be in the hands of a well-known and very skilful engineer, Mr. James B. Eads, he undertaking to do the work before claiming any pay—a very unusual and praiseworthy kind of offer, as offers go at Washington. On Friday, the Army Appropriation Bill was passed by the House.

On Saturday, in the Senate, Senator Wright of Iowa, from the Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment, called up the joint resolution passed by the House last winter, providing that in all civil-service competitions disabled soldiers or their widows and orphans who pass the examination as the standard required "shall have precedence for appointment to any vacancy, anything in the rules of the civil service to the contrary notwithstanding," and the resolution was agreed to—yeas, 33; nays, 8. In the House, the Tax and Tariff debates were continued, and a motion to strike out the fifth section, restoring the ten per cent. "horizontal" reduction on manufactured goods, was voted down by 95 to 103. On this section the debate brought out the protectionists and free-traders in full force, and Mr. Cox of New York introduced a novel and effective argument, which we shall expect to see made great use of hereafter, as luxury grows and increases, by calling the attention of Congress to his clothes, begging the members to compare them with those of Mr. Field of Michigan, and then adding that his own were got in Canada for the sum of $21, and asking why it was that the same clothes which would cost $21 there we had here to pay $50 for. Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania delivered a home-thrust at Mr. Cox, however, by observing that he did not wonder at the latter's going to Canada to buy his clothes, as his whole policy was to degrade American labor. This provoked loud shouts on the Republican side of the House, indicating the prevailing party belief that this Canadian suit of Mr. Cox's had been introduced into the country in violation of the laws for the protection of the revenue.

In the Senate, on Monday, the Indian, West Point, and Pension Appropriation Bills were passed, while the Pacific-Mail contract came up during the debate on the Post-Office Bill, Senator West saying on behalf of the committee having the matter in charge that the clause in the bill as it came from the House repealing the contract was reported without recommendations, since the question whether the contract of 1872 is still obligatory upon the United States was then undergoing investigation at the hands of the Senate Judiciary Committee. An effort or two was made to restore the franking privilege, without success. The House passed the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill, and agreed to the Senate amendments to the House Bill with regard to the selection of jurors in the District of Columbia, the object of the bill being to facilitate the trial of William S. King, of Minnesota, for staining his "escutcheon" by the commission of perjury. An act was passed by the House to prohibit the importation, for improper purposes, of Asiatic women, and Tom Scott suffered a heavy defeat on his Texas Pacific scheme, which seems to be killed by a vote refusing to make it the special order for Wednesday evening.

The probabilities that there will have to be an extra session of Congress in order to procure the appropriations, do not seem at this writing to be increasing. The Senate on Tuesday passed the Post-office Bill (voting down the Pacific Mail subsidy, on a report from the Judiciary Committee that the contract was no longer obligatory on the Government), and the Army Appropriation Bill also went through. Mr. Dawes's Tax Bill was made so ridiculous by amendments in the Committee of the Whole on Tuesday that he himself moved that the enacting clause be struck out, and carried it by a heavy majority. When this action was reported to the House, he tried to have it recommitted to the Committee of Ways and Means, but failed, and it was then sent back to the Committee of the Whole, the House, however, having meanwhile voted against striking out the enacting clause. Finally, Mr. Dawes withdrew the measure and offered a substitute, which chiefly differs from the first bill in taxing (at 90 cents) whiskey hereafter made, and none other, and this bill the House passed without debate. One of the jokes of the occasion was the offer of an amendment by one of the proprietors of the Saratoga Springs that all foreign mineral-waters should have a duty of three cents a quart, or twenty-five per cent. ad valorem, levied on them. This amendment was actually adopted, and yet members of Congress think it is the newspapers that make the public despise and laugh at them. The wrangle over the tariff has been mainly due to reluctance to restore the duty on tea and coffee. These articles once passed by, the field lay open to endless contention on the part of conflicting interests. Nothing now is heard of the Arkansas matter, but the *Tribune* every few days scurrilously publishes the President's proclamation of last May and his recent message in parallel columns, evidently designing to make a laugh at his expense.

The Connecticut Democrats have renominated Governor Ingersoll and their old ticket, with a fair prospect of carrying the State. Mr. David A. Wells was made permanent chairman of the convention—an unusual and deserved compliment. The resolutions demand the supremacy of civil over military government; denounce the interference of the Executive in Louisiana and Arkansas; demand hard money; declare that this is no time for increasing taxation. In the Congressional districts, or at least one of them which has a sort of reputation outside Connecticut, there is a prospect of a lively fight. This is the Fourth District, which Mr. P. T. Barnum at one time desired to represent, and which has actually been represented for four terms by Mr. William H. Barnum, a Democrat—a man of large wealth and party usefulness, but who has not been in the habit of considering that it was any part of his duty to spend his time in Washington, idling away his time in watching debates, and voting Yes or No. In fact, he has been pretty constantly absent from Washington, attending to business affairs, and travelling about the country, and has thus gradually come to have the name of an absentee who may be counted upon as likely to be absent at all critical times when his vote is needed. During the recent filibustering between the Democrats and Republicans, when his vote was sadly needed, Mr. Barnum was nowhere to be found, and it then came out that the only remembered existence of a vote cast by him was one in favor of the Pacific-Mail subsidy. Therefore, we understand, a movement is on foot among the Democrats to secure a successor for him in Judge F. A. Marden, who is understood to represent the young, progressive, and liberal Democracy, as opposed to the aged, plutocratic, and "absentee" interest.

The plaintiff rested in the Tilton-Beecher case rather unexpectedly on Tuesday afternoon, and the defence was opened yesterday. Considering the amount of trouble there has been about the matter, and the number of persons who professed to know about it, the number of witnesses called has been very small. The public has been greatly disappointed, and justly so, at the failure to produce Mr. Henry C. Bowen, and, indeed, should the defendant refuse to call him, will consider that there has been a failure of justice, and that weighty portions of the whole matter have been kept back. The notion that one of the high contracting parties to the "Tripartite Agreement" has no evidence to give about the affair is of course ridiculous. There is, perhaps, nothing in the case more comic—and there is a vein of broad comedy running all through it—than the position assigned to this instrument and the terms in which it is spoken of. The paper contains a silly, but in form solemn, agreement between three grown men not to spread dirty stories about each other, and is, in matter and manner, in all respects worthy of three big schoolboys or girls who were not kept closely enough to their studies. Instead of being burnt, however, as trash, it has assumed the rank of a state-paper, and is referred to with as much gravity as the Treaty of Westphalia or the Pragmatic Sanction, and it looks sometimes as if Tilton would seek its insertion in an appendix to Rymer's 'Fœdera.'

The only incident of note in British politics is the return, without opposition, of John Mitchel, the *ci-devant* exile of 1848, as member of the House from Tipperary County, and a motion, by Mr. Disraeli that, as he is a convicted and unpardoned felon, his election be declared void, and a new writ issued; which was carried. It would probably have been difficult for the "Home Rule" party in Ireland, if they had tried, to produce a better reason than this incident affords for believing that they will never get "Home Rule," and ought not to get it. When a powerful constituency passes over every respectable man in Ireland to pick up an old and half-crazy politician who has lived nearly thirty years out of the country, during which time he has made common cause with slaveholders and defended slavery, and tried to break up one of the few free and successful governments in the world, one feels that they are rather fitter for "a state of siege" than for constitutional government. Their next choice, after the illustrious Mitchel, is said to be his son, an ex-captain in the Confederate service, and of whom nothing else is known. There is a touch of the opéra bouffe about all this. Dr. Kenealy has also made his appearance in the House of Commons as member from Stoke-on-Trent, where he had a lively contest, and got in between the Conservative and Liberal candidates. The use which some of the new voters in the boroughs are disposed to make of their ballots seems not unlikely to bring a considerable number of queer people of the Kenealy type into public life. There is a widespread working-class belief even in England that the Claimant's counsel was the champion of the poor and oppressed, and that he was thrown over the bar by a triumphant and vindictive aristocracy.

---

The Russian Government has published a defence of the Brussels Conference in a semi-official article in the St. Petersburg *Invalide*. What it says is in substance that war is a very dreadful though necessary thing; that the usages which serve to mitigate its horrors have been much discussed by jurists and philosophers, but can never have their full effect until they are formally recognized and adopted by governments, because "Science has no power to enforce its own verdicts," and because the dicta of the professors and commentators are so often conflicting or obscure; that war, under the modern system of armaments, deranges the social machinery to a degree previously unknown, and, therefore, assumes a peculiarly cruel and destructive character, and hence the pressing need of precise official definitions of the rights and duties of commanders. "The primary object of the Brussels Conference" was, therefore, "not to make fresh regulations, but to select from the traditional, uncodified body of International Law those rules and usages adapted to the present time, and to convert them into acknowledged and binding statutes." This last sentence contains the objection to the whole scheme. Among the "rules and usages" are some which are favorable to a system of war carried on by a small force of regulars aided by determined and energetic irregulars or by what are called "popular risings," and which might be all that might be needed to repel an invasion. There are others, on the contrary, which are favorable to a system of war carried on exclusively by great organized armies, and despising or rejecting the aid of irregulars. In selecting rules and usages, therefore, for permanent adoption, the powers which maintain great armies would naturally incline to those which make great armies most effective, while those which are disposed to rely more on popular spirit and enterprise would naturally incline to those which increase the number of ways in which the private citizen may, without government orders, assail or harass the enemy; and the latter would inevitably suffer in any codification which the great European powers would be inclined to agree to.

---

From Germany there is little of importance beyond the rumor that Bismarck is likely to resign shortly, on attaining his sixtieth year, possibly under the pressure of increasing nervous debility, and possibly under the solicitations of his family, who are tormented by fears of his assassination, and not unreasonably, for the fight in which he is engaged with the Church is just the kind of thing to kindle the frenzy of fanatics. It is hardly likely, however, that he will permanently withdraw from the arena until after the Pope's death, as there is every reason to believe that a *modus vivendi* would be discovered by the new Pope which would end the conflict with the Ultramontanes, and thus really close Bismarck's work. This work did not, or does not, consist simply in the consolidation of Germany, but also includes the secularization of the state—or, in other words, the emancipation of the people from ecclesiastical control, whether Catholic or Protestant. The pressure of this ridiculous tyranny was felt at nearly every point of contact between the individual and the state. To what depths of absurdity it reached is illustrated by the story, which we believe to be true, that a woman seeking a license from the police to pursue a disreputable calling had to produce a certificate of confirmation. Fresh bills have been laid before the Prussian Parliament regulating the administration of ecclesiastical property, and securing the Old Catholics a proper share of it.

---

The debate in the German Reichstag on the law on the civil status (*Civilstandsgesetz*), and its final passage by 207 votes against 72, are the more interesting because the measure was principally called for by Bavaria, the citadel of Rome in Germany. The Bavarian Government did not take the initiative in the Bundesrath, but strenuously supported the bill in all its stages, because, as Minister Faeustle proved, to the disgust of the Ultramontanes, as early as 1831 both chambers of the Bavarian Legislature, in a formal resolution, expressed their conviction of the urgent necessity of such a law. At present, however, such a law could not be enacted in Bavaria, as it involves a change in the constitution, and therefore a majority of two-thirds, while in the Second Chamber the anti-Ultramontanes have a majority of but one. So the only help for Bavaria was an imperial law. Prussia was prompt to come to her aid, though she had to sacrifice her own law enacted only a year ago. The gain is of course a general one, and the value of it is increased by the manner in which it has been attained.

---

The Right and Left Centres of the French Assembly have come to an agreement about the constitution of the Senate, to which the Left, led by Gambetta, has given in its adhesion, and which seems to be in all respects excellent, and meets with Marshal MacMahon's approval. It consists in the election of 75 senators by the Assembly —whether independently, or from lists proposed by the President of the Republic, has not been settled—and the remaining 225 by the Departments and the Colonies. The former class are irremovable; the latter, who sit for nine years, are removable every three years to the extent of one-third. The Senate fills its own vacancies, and its functions are made to agree closely with those of the American Senate. It is difficult to overestimate the importance of such a measure carried in such a way. In the first place, a Senate of the kind proposed would be the most stable and respectable upper house which has ever existed in France. In the second place, the support of the scheme by the Left shows that the party has made enormous progress in its political education; and the passage by so large a vote of what must be regarded as the chief feature in the coming constitution, is, considering the very heterogeneous composition of the Assembly, a very encouraging sign as to the prevailing political spirit. The whole affair is, in fact, a striking confirmation of the opinion we have all along held, that the debates of the last four years, which some people have been so impatient to have closed, have been in reality the means of giving French public men, and the French people generally, the best piece of political training they have ever had. Contrast this slow and deliberate formation of the Government, after innumerable parliamentary trials of strength, and under light from every quarter, by the ablest men in France, with the old plan of getting one up in a room of the Hôtel de Ville, by half-a-dozen crackbrained orators, with an enormous armed mob howling outside.

## THE LATEST MUNICIPAL REFORM.

GOVERNOR TILDEN said, in his recent message to the Legislature, "that the problem of municipal government was agitating the intellect of all civilized peoples"—which is true; but we doubt if any "intellects" are as much "agitated" about it just now as those of New York City politicians. With them it is a permanent subject of agitation, although the problem, as they see it, is very simple, viz., how to get hold of city offices for distribution among the party workers. For the managing men on both sides, indeed, this has been for years the whole question of municipal government. The result is that no charter lasts long. In fact, it would be impossible, in the existing state of public opinion and with the present mode of administering municipal corporations, that it should. The first thing which any party that gets into power at Albany does, is to attempt legislation which shall give it the control of the city offices; and, if the first act does not answer the expectations of the leaders, they try another. So true is this that the discussion about the problem of municipal government which is now going on, as Mr. Tilden says, among thinking men all over the world, is really, as everybody knows, an object of secret amusement to New York politicians. They are willing enough to discuss it publicly, and to pretend to be greatly puzzled over it, and to be cudgelling their brains for a solution; but among themselves they always treat it as actually solved, and if they allude at all to the speculations of the jurists and philosophers, it is by way of joke. A good municipal government, to Bliss and Murphy, is one in which they control the appointments, and Tweed and Kelly take just the same view of the matter. Indeed, we doubt very much whether even Mr. Green would, if he were quite frank, not confess that this was his opinion too.

When the Republicans had possession of the legislature, there was a steady contest between them and the Democratic majority in this city on this subject. Now that the Democrats have possession of the legislature, we seem likely to have a contest between two sets of them—one representing the State, and the other the city—over the same subject. The city Democrats, represented by Tammany, have indeed grown to be a power which now thinks itself competent to treat with the State Democracy as an equal, if not a superior, and wishes to keep the city for itself as a real *imperium in imperio*. Under the present charter, the mayor has a right which the Republicans gave the late incumbent of the office when they thought they had control of him, of appointing the heads of departments on his sole responsibility, but he can only remove with the approval of the Governor. A new mayor, Mr. Wickham, representing Tammany, has now come into office, and he finds himself surrounded by his predecessor's appointees and protégés, some of whom, and especially Mr. Green, the Comptroller, are very obnoxious to the Tammany leaders, but of whom he cannot rid himself without the Governor's consent. Therefore, a bill has been introduced into the legislature known as the Costigan Bill, making the approval of the aldermen necessary to the mayor's appointments, but giving him absolute power of removal. In other words, should it become a law, the mayor would have to bargain with the aldermen before he could appoint, which last year was considered a very dreadful thing; but would not have to bargain with the Governor before he could remove, which last year was considered a very desirable thing. But principle has nothing to do with the matter. Tammany wishes to get rid of Green, and wishes to amend the charter for that purpose, and does not trouble its head any more than did those who have gone before it, about ideal city government. Governor Tilden has endeavored to meet the movement by a proposition, which was, however, defeated in the Assembly, that a commission should be appointed, containing Charles O'Conor and seven other leading citizens of the two parties, who should draft a general law, securing to municipalities the right of self-government, providing for the responsibility of municipal officers, and creating a carefully considered mode of removing them for cause, under which law all municipalities could organize. This, or something like it, is perhaps what is wanted; but the Democratic majority in the Assembly took no interest in the scheme, and the chances are that the Costigan Bill will pass the Senate and that the Mayor will be enabled to remove without the Governor's approval. We would advise our readers, however, not to become too deeply interested in the Costigan Bill even if it does pass, either as an experiment in municipal government or as a change in the existing machinery. The probabilities are that, at the outside, the arrangement it makes will last but a year or two, and will end in a quarrel over the patronage between the mayor and aldermen, and in a fresh resort to legislation by the party which is worsted.

The reason of all this is, let us explain once more, that all experiments in municipal government which we witness in this city are the quarrels of a large body of persons with little or no property of their own over the division of the property of other people, of which they have secured possession, and are at liberty, within certain wide limits, to use for their own purposes. What is called "municipal government" in our day ought simply, correctly speaking, to mean the collection from the owners of property of contributions for the paving, cleansing, and lighting the streets and public places. These are the main objects of a municipal organization in our time. It has no political character, as cities had of necessity in the Middle Ages; the political character is imposed on it partly through tradition, and partly to comply with the democratic theory that the majority ought to rule over all things. The result is that a large crowd of persons, from various quarters of the globe, fortuitously collected at this point and living from hand to mouth by daily or weekly wages, finding within their reach an immense concentration of property belonging to merchants and capitalists, declare that they and the property together constitute a mysterious body called "a municipality," with certain high, far-reaching, and indefinable aims and duties; and that it is, therefore, their duty to divide the property every year in whatever manner their leaders decide to be for the general good, naturally making it go as far in wages as possible. They would take precisely the same view of the banks if they could. That is to say, a large crowd of impecunious people would enter the bank parlor at the annual meeting of the stockholders, would declare that they and the stockholders together constituted "the people," that the bank was a political institution, to be administered by the people for the general good, and that its funds should be liberally used in providing employment for poor men.

The road towards radical municipal reform, and the only one, lies through the recognition of the fact that a city is in our age simply a corporation engaged in the management of certain property for the general comfort and convenience, and that the owners of the property are the proper persons to discharge the duties of it, under State supervision. There is of course little chance that so practical a view of the matter will soon obtain complete political recognition; but it already obtains some recognition, as when the consent of certain property-holders is made necessary to the laying down of a street railroad, and when they are required to lay down sidewalks, and keep them clean, and are allowed to do their own street-sweeping. One has only to push this a little further to get almost all that is to be hoped for in the present state of human nature in the way of municipal reform, and it might be pushed very far, while leaving the numerical majority, in the shape of State supervision, all that it can justly or beneficially claim of control over other people's goods. At present the Comptroller says the city debt is increasing at the rate of $10,000,000 per annum, and somebody is apparently expected by the newspapers to stop it; but nobody can stop it under the existing system, because the debt is being in reality increased by those who do not expect to pay the principal, and do not believe they pay the interest on it—in illustration of which we may mention that no laborer, skilled or unskilled, in the service of the city, receives the market rate of wages simply. Men are regularly paid $2 a day by the city treasury for work which is anywhere else worth only $1; and at this form of corruption and spoliation every city official connives, not excepting Mr. Green. Under these cir-

cumstances, it is natural and proper that the debt should increase. The outlay of communistic organizations based on simple greed ought, under the present order of the universe, to run steadily behind its receipts. We do not profess, as we have said, to be sanguine as to the adoption of the rational theory of municipal government, and doubt whether reform will come at last except under the whip of dire necessity. In fact, we think it not unlikely that the solution of the problem of governing great cities will be reached only through a process of competition between different methods. Cities trying one plan will thrive, cities persisting in another will decline, and the lesson will finally be learned through actual, though costly and prolonged, experiment. There are signs already in New York that this experiment has been fairly entered on, and that the work of spoliation will at last be arrested here, as it has been in other places, by the visible and rapid decline in the amount of the booty to be divided. In other words, the stockholders in the bank will refuse any longer to carry on business with the passers-by dropping in from the street, and will transfer their capital to places where they can manage their own business, under the State laws.

## THE BOSTON RAILROAD SCANDAL.

THE Boston exposure of the construction contracts of the Chicago, Dubuque and Minnesota, and the Chicago, Clinton and Dubuque Railroads, will probably do something, for the time at least, to fix public attention upon a branch of the railroad question which much needs it. The two roads we have named were built as dependencies of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad; or, in other words, some four years ago the stockholders of this latter line, who are to a great extent trustees, and persons of small property dependent for their support upon the certainty of their income, received a notification that they were offered the privilege of taking some bonds to be issued by the new roads at the rate of ninety cents on the dollar, which would yield eight per cent. per annum, and which were amply secured. The first of the circulars offering the bonds was issued on June 7, 1871, by Mr. J. N. Denison, chairman of the directors of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, giving the stockholders the opportunity of buying $1,600,000 of the Chicago, Dubuque and Minnesota bonds, and stating that the company had received large local contributions in addition to the stock payments to aid in building the road. On March 7, 1872, a second circular was issued, offering a million and a half of the bonds of each of the new roads, stating that the main line of the Chicago, Dubuque and Minnesota was to be opened through early in the season, and that "business on the portion of the road in use fully equals the expectations entertained before the road was commenced," and that the bonds were "secured" at the rate of $25,000 a mile. Besides this, it was understood that one of the roads had a land-grant of 38,500 acres, worth from three to six dollars an acre, and there was also a "traffic guarantee" of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad binding the latter road to set apart a certain per cent. of the earnings derived by it from the two dependent roads to take up the bonds. Here was indeed an offer! The "traffic guarantee" was, to be sure, of no great value (though the prudent investor hardly knew this), for this kind of guarantee only works during the prosperity of roads—that is, when it is not needed; the moment the traffic on the dependent road ceases to be sufficient to pay expenses and interest, at that very moment the promise of the main line to set apart some of it is apt to become of small value. But the other security was believed to be ample, and there was no reason why the bonds issued at ninety should not be worth par in a month or two, and there would be a nice little addition to many a modest but deserving income. This was not the first time that circulars of the same kind had been issued, and had not all the previous issues turned out well? So the trustee and the guardian, and the widow and orphan, and the small capitalist, put their savings into the new roads.

Unfortunately, however, the bonds went up only two or three per cent.; then they began to go down. Interest was at first regularly paid on them, and indeed was paid steadily till after the panic, but still the value of the bonds declined, and, after sinking to a point where it was difficult to say what their value was, they remained in a state of suspended animation, no interest being paid on them, the traffic guarantee having apparently escaped the attention of the guarantors. The widow and the orphan occasionally made enquiries of the guardian and the trustee, only to be told that the bonds would unquestionably "come up" if people would keep quite still and not talk about them in a depressing way. However, they did not keep still, but very wisely appointed an investigating committee to look into the condition of the property. It was then discovered that at the time the directors of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy road were offering to the stockholders the bonds of the new roads, some half-a-dozen of them had taken shares in two construction companies, with a total capital stock of $440,000, formed under the laws of the State of Iowa; that they then, as contractors and directors, contracted with themselves to build the two roads; that the terms of the contracts were substantially that the construction company should receive all the stock, all the bonds, all the land-grant, and all the local aid given by towns and counties, and that the expenditure of these assets, together with the capital of the construction companies, should relieve the constructors of all liability, whether the roads were finished or not; that these same directors of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy road, keeping these contracts, made by themselves with themselves for themselves, secret, proceeded to sell the bonds to the people for whom they were trustees—the stockholders of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy—turning over the proceeds to themselves as contractors, and meanwhile prosecuting the work of building the road with such diligence and discretion that though the proposed line was 237 miles in length, by the time a hundred and eighty-two had been built all the bonds and all the stock and all the local subscriptions were gone, and, the contract having thus been completed, they ceased from their labors. It may be imagined that the expenditure of the money received from the sale of the securities was not subjected to a rigid supervision. Indeed, on the contrary, there was no supervision at all, the president of the construction company, Mr. J. K. Graves, being supplied with and expending the funds "as he called for the money"; and Mr. Graves, by a further extension of the principle of construction companies, used $173,000 of this money on another and totally distinct road, the Iowa Pacific, in which he was interested if no one else was—a sum which the committee of investigation naïvely say "has never been returned." What has become of all the land no one knows, except that the railroads do not own an acre of it. It will be noticed that the bonds were issued at $25,000 a mile, but as the roads are not finished, these are *proposed*, not constructed miles, making the actual bonded debt on one road about $33,000, and on the other $31,000. In sum and substance, the contract which these trustees made was that the money should be spent whether the road was finished or not.

To the eye of the common observer, it would appear that the history of these roads is the history of a fraudulent scheme, deliberately planned and well carried out by means of a systematic deception of the stockholders of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy by their own directors and trustees. But this is not at all the view of the matter held by the directors and trustees implicated. Mr. J. M. Forbes, who took an active part in the investigation, denounced the contracts as "the most atrocious he had ever heard of or seen in railroad business," and said that he would have considered it an insult to ask a director in any road whether he was also interested as a contractor; but Mr. J. F. Joy, who seems the prime mover and concocter of the scheme, replied with an air of conscious rectitude that the contracts are unobjectionable, and that this is a common and proper way of building railroads, while a number of the contracting directors, gentlemen of good standing in Boston, have united in a card in which they speak of themselves as "sufferers" by the enterprise, and say that "as to the suggestion that we omitted to state to the purchasers of the bonds that we had

become purchasers in the stock of the construction companies, we desire to state that it does not seem to us, although there was no concealment of the fact, to be information likely to influence the purchasers of bonds, except favorably."

It must at once occur to everybody who reads this that it is a little strange that the directors should not have communicated information likely to "influence purchasers favorably"; but with that we have nothing to do. What we wish to call attention to is the renewed illustration this case affords of the manifold evils which arise from the existing secret system of railroad management. The stockholders have a nominal right to the examination of the books of the company in which they are holders of stock, but this is, as every one knows, an empty right. In the first place, its uselessness is proved by the fact that nobody ever uses it; and in the case of small stockholders, the class which especially need protection, it is a laborious, vexatious, and difficult process, which, from the very nature of the thing, they avoid. The bondholders, of course, have not even this protection. Besides this, the accounts of railroad companies are not kept on a uniform system, and the reports published by them from time to time are absolutely unintelligible. No two companies take the same view of operating and construction expenses. As the railroad commissioners of Massachusetts very justly say in their last annual report:

"One company earns more money than it cares to divide, and another earns less than its stockholders think they have a right to expect;—accordingly, the first buys property, or builds additional stations or rolling-stock, or charges off the cost of old ones, always to the account of operating expenses; while the second does just the reverse, and is continually reconstructing the same buildings, bridges, and rolling-stock. Accordingly, the cost of running a train one mile is returned at $1 30 on the Boston and Albany, and at $0 59 on the Springfield, Athol and Northeastern; at $1 56 on the Boston and Providence, and at $1 13 on the Boston, Hartford and Erie; at $1 39 on the Connecticut River, and at $1 04 on the Cheshire; at $1 33 on the New York, New Haven and Hartford, and at $0 87 on the Eastern."

From which it may be seen that even in the oldest States, which have the benefit of all the accumulated experience in the world on the subject, the same obscurity in railroad book-keeping prevails as in the West.

Now, what is the remedy for this state of affairs? It is already beginning to be admitted on all hands that it is chiefly publicity. This is what the Massachusetts railroad commissioners recommend, and it is also recommended in Wisconsin as one of the results of a year's experience of the Granger remedy. Our readers are aware that we have always recommended it in the columns of this paper. But admitting that publicity is necessary, how is it to be got? We believe there is only one way known to our civilization of giving publicity to transactions in private property, and that is a method which has been in successful operation for over two centuries. We refer to the publicity given to all transactions in real estate by the laws of registration. What there is to prevent the application of this system to railroads, we do not see. Let a State pass a railroad registry law, requiring the proper officers of any railroad company doing business in that State to file for record any obligation, agreement, or contract relating to the road; let it also be enacted that any document not so recorded shall not be binding not merely, as in the case of lands, on third persons, but on the parties themselves. We venture to predict that in that State at least complete publicity as to railroads will have been attained; that when a road is built by a construction company, the construction company will at once proceed in great haste to the office of the register and record the documents, and the stockholders of such roads as the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy will have an opportunity of judging for themselves whether contracts of a certain kind affect their inclination to purchase "favorably." Short of this we do not see any way in which publicity can be reached. Public returns are now compelled by the laws of some States, as New York and Massachusetts, but, though the returns are made, the public is no wiser. All that can be predicated of them, the Massachusetts commissioners say as to their own State, is that they are "plausible," and even plausibility seems a euphemistic term to apply to the returns we have quoted above. Short of public railroad registries, we see no way to the publicity everybody so much desires.

## VIVISECTION.

THE enemies of cruelty to animals are making all over the world an attempt to interfere forcibly with vivisections performed for scientific ends. The papers in England for the past year or more have been full of articles *pro* and *con* upon the subject, and the assistants of a French toxicologist who exhibited some experiments upon dogs at a large medical meeting have been criminally prosecuted. Professor Schiff, a great physiologist, and we believe a thoroughly kind man at heart, but a great "consumer" of dogs, has also been dragged before the courts, and all but ostracised socially for his pursuits. In this city, the society for preventing cruelty is understood to be preparing a prohibitory bill to be passed at Albany; while the physiologists, on the other hand, are arming their cause betimes by printing and circulating various apologetic documents. Among these the one most worthy of mention is the pamphlet by Dr. Dalton which we noticed last week, and in which some of the therapeutic benefits which have already accrued from vivisection are set forth with great clearness and sobriety.

To our minds, there has been in the treatment of the subject by both sides a certain superficiality. The attack has been weakly made, owing to the all but total ignorance on the part of the attackers of the concrete details of physiology and physiologic experimentation. When Mr. Bergh singles out for particular horror the comparatively trivial operation for gastric fistula, and huddles together as scientific authorities against the usefulness of the vivisectional method of research a crowd of surgeons, philosophers, anatomists, and ignoramuses, most of whom wrote when physiology in its modern sense can hardly be said to have existed, and some of whom never thought what he alleges, he makes the game simply too easy for his opponents, and the result is a certain insincerity in their retorts. To retort that in most cases anæsthetics are given is true enough, but then it is probably far more distressing to a dog to be etherized than to have an artery tied. To say that a rabbit's pain differs *toto cœlo* from human pain, in that the moral element, the element of subjective *horror*, is absent, is also true, but does not extinguish the charge of cruelty. The question is not, Do we make rabbits suffer as much as men? but, Do we give them all the pain that they are susceptible of suffering, be that much or little? If so, we are cruel; and there is no doubt that vivisectors are often obliged to go to this extreme.

Let it then be frankly admitted, without higgling about more or less, that, in principle, vivisection admits of cruelty; let it also be admitted that the therapeutic benefits we have gained by it are as yet minute, and that even the physiological laws discovered by it are full of uncertainty and liable to incessant correction. After making to Mr. Bergh these extreme concessions, we still absolutely and totally deny the expediency of any legislative regulation of the matter, though we avow that we heartily sympathize with his humane motives, and, for reasons that we shall soon state, should be by no means sorry to see a rather angry state of public sentiment prevail upon the subject.

Man lives for science as well as bread, and if Mr. Bergh will throw his ridiculous fagot of antediluvian oracles out of the window, and open any modern treatise whatever on physiology, he will find that the entire science is based, immediately or remotely, upon vivisectional evidence. What is not is hardly enough to swear by, except, perhaps, in the chapter of the special senses. Moreover, the vivisectional results of to-day, which are liable to be corrected to-morrow, will be corrected by the vivisections of to-morrow and by nothing else. To taboo vivisection is then the same thing as to give up seeking after a knowledge of physiology; in other words, it is sacrificing a human intellectual good, and all that flows from it, to a brute and corporeal good. We live in a world in which it is universally admitted that sacrifice is a universal law—no good comes without some loss. One may absolutely protest against this, and refuse to be its accomplice—say, like a Buddhist, *neminem laede*, though the human race and all vain earthly science perish; one may, in other words, lead a consistently ascetic life, and we shall not gainsay him. We will only say that in modern Christendom he will have few followers. Once assume that the world and its law of sacrifice may have a good meaning, and it must follow that the duty of the righteous man will often consist in inflicting pain as well as in enduring it. Vivisection is, in other words, a painful duty. We wonder

that theologians have not often used it as a parable to reconcile their hearers to the evils of human life. A dog strapped on a board and howling at his executioners, or, still worse, poisoned by curara, which leaves him paralyzed but sentient, is, to his own consciousness, literally in a sort of hell. He sees no redeeming ray in the whole business. Nevertheless, in a world beyond the ken of his poor, benighted brain, his sufferings are having their effect—truth, and perhaps future human ease, are being bought by them. He is performing a function infinitely superior to any which prosperous canine life admits of, and, if his dark mind could be enlightened, and if he were a heroic dog, he would religiously acquiesce in his own sacrifice.

So much for the principle. We admit that, as regards the practice, advocates of humanity have a good field open to them in trying to restrict the amount of *useless* vivisection. A working physiologist, too, often gets to consider his animals as mere bundles of reactions, and to forget the conscious accompaniment; and to a lecturer, the awakened attention of his hearers, and the applause that always greets a striking experiment, are so many temptations to crowd his course with "brilliant" demonstrations. These, it must be often confessed, appeal far more to the mere love of amusement and sensation of the students than to their more intellectual part. A lecturer on respiration in Paris will hardly fail to demonstrate the necessity of oxygen for life by putting a sparrow under an air-pump, immersing a rat in carbonic acid, and perhaps suffocating a guinea-pig in nitrogen. We have heard that a distinguished toxicologist of Berlin, when he wishes to exhibit the effect of corrosive substances on the alimentary canal, simply thrusts a funnel down the throat of a living rabbit, and pours sulphuric acid into it. These are plainly revolting excesses, and it is pleasant to think that no physiologist of Anglo-Saxon blood is likely to be guilty of them. Nevertheless, it is probably true that in lectures both here and in England experiments are continually repeated which can either not be adequately observed by the class, or which, if observed, might be all but equally well understood from description. Nothing is more calculated to deaden the moral sensibility of students than familiarity with blood shed for trifling ends. To help their lazy attention, to save their imagination a little effort, or to atone by this sort of spectacular attraction for the dulness of the teacher or the theme, seems surely an end unworthy of the costly means. We think, too, that physiology is utterly unfitted to be taught practically, as physics, chemistry, botany, and anatomy are now being taught in colleges, as means of educational discipline. These other branches are quite sufficient to give students a general training in scientific habits. The physiological laboratory ought to be reserved for investigators. We do not know what exercises Dr. Foster's class of students in practical physiology in Cambridge, England, are made to perform, but we hope and suppose very little vivisection. Our power over animals should not be used simply at our own convenience, but voluntarily limited and sparingly put forth. But the decision when to exert it and when to refrain should rest solely with the investigator himself. If a sweeping prohibitory law were passed, it would of course be a dead letter in a community which boils millions of lobsters alive every year to add a charm to its suppers. By hook or crook, physiologists would operate on living animals in spite of the vigilance of a thousand humane societies; just as, when the anatomy law was under discussion in England, Sir Astley Cooper told the legislative committee that if he could not have legally the bodies of outcasts, he should have illegally the bodies of members of parliaments. Bodies of some sort were needed and would be forthcoming. If it be proposed only to frame a law to punish such abuses as that of the German toxicologist above-mentioned, we still think it would be impracticable. A jury of experts would be very apt to shield their colleague, and a jury of laymen not to decide reasonably at all. Even if the guilty could be justly convicted, conscientious operators would be liable to a series of *tracasseries* and lawsuits which would seriously affect their usefulness. It is better for many quadrupeds to perish unjustly than for a whole scientific body to be degraded. Here, as elsewhere, the best plan is not to hedge men in by mechanical restrictions and safeguards against abuse of power, but to get good men, give them great authority and right of initiative, and make them responsible to public opinion for the result.

And this brings us to a point in which we think the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals may do great good. Let them act morally, through public opinion, and foment, if need be, public execration of physiologists; at all events let them encourage the dislike of bloody demonstrations in lectures. They will then do good both to the animals who are victimized, to the students who demand that their eyes and not their understandings shall work for them, and to the teachers who weakly yield to that demand. Under this hostile pressure, this constant sense of being challenged—which is very different from the sense of being controlled—the vivisector will feel more responsible, more solemn, less wasteful and indifferent.

## THE GENESIS OF A MIRACLE.

GRENOBLE was all astir, during the first two or three days we spent there, with arriving and departing pilgrims. We presently discovered that chance had brought us to that place on the anniversary of the apparition of Notre Dame de la Salette, an important festival throughout the region. The guide-book note on the pretended miracle of the Salette had astonished and amused us, but the matter assumed a more serious aspect when we saw with our proper eyes throngs of actual pilgrims—chiefly white-capped women and dusty-skirted priests—who had been devoutly visiting the shrine. In the miniature reading-room of our dim and ancient but well-appointed hotel we found a large, handsomely illustrated volume on the 'Pilgrimage of the Salette,' which we studied with interest. It was our introduction to the voluminous literature of the subject.

La Salette is a mountain in the Department of the Isère, near the small town of Corps, which is distant by the high-road some forty miles from Grenoble. It is claimed that on Saturday, September 19, 1846, between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, the Virgin Mary appeared to a shepherd boy and girl who were guarding cows near the summit of this mountain. The boy's name is Maximin Giraud, the girl's Mélanie Matthieu. I make the following extracts from Maximin's own story, as given in the most orthodox and approved versions. He begins:

"After having watered our cows and eaten our lunch we fell asleep near a little spring that had run dry. Then Mélanie woke up first and waked me to go and look for our cows. Then Mélanie saw a great light towards the fountain, and she said to me, 'Maximin, come see this light.' I went towards Mélanie. Then we saw the light open, and inside we saw a lady sitting. And the lady got up, folded her arms, and said to us, 'Come on, my children; do not be frightened; I am here to tell you great news.' Then we went on, and the lady came towards us a few steps from the place where she had been sitting, and she said to us, 'If my people will not submit, I shall be forced to let go the arm of my Son; it is so heavy and weighs me down so that I can hold it no longer. Oh! the time I have suffered already for you! If I will not have my Son abandon you, I am charged to pray to him for you who do not care. I gave six days to work, I reserved the seventh for myself, and they will not give it me.'"

Here follows a prediction that the potatoes will rot before Christmas. But at this point,

"Mélanie, who did not understand, began to ask me what it was about. The lady replied, 'Ah! you do not understand, my children! Wait, I will say it differently.'" She then begins to speak in patois, repeating the prophecy concerning the potatoes, and adding others of equal moment. An injunction is addressed to the children to say as many Pater Nosters and Ave Marias as they can, and the complaint is made that no one goes to mass "except a few rather old women (quelques femmes un peu âgées). In Lent they go to the butcher's like dogs. . . . She terminated her discourse with these words: 'Well, my children, you will make this known to all my people.' Before disappearing, the Belle Dame rose from the ground and remained suspended in the air a moment, then we no longer saw her head, then her arms, then the rest of her body. She seemed to melt away. And then there remained a great light that I tried to catch with my hands, with the flowers that she had on her feet, but there was nothing there. . . . In the evening, when we arrived at our master's, I was a little sad, and as they asked me what was the matter I told them all the lady had said to us."

The accounts of the miracle lay much emphasis upon a secret which the lady is said to have confided to each of the children separately, at a certain point in her discourse, each in turn becoming deaf while she spoke to the other.

The next day the curé of the village from which the mountain takes its name announced the event to his parishioners. They were not at first greatly impressed. It may have seemed to them superfluous for the Virgin to bring the warning against eating meat in Lent to a population accustomed to the luxury of animal food perhaps once a year. But the story spread rapidly. Curious visitors, who soon became pilgrims, began to seek out the scene of the apparition. All were eager to drink at the spring, formerly intermittent, but perpetual and abundant since the Virgin's tears fell upon its source. The priests of the region vigorously propagated the belief in the miracle. It is said that the people of Corps, like their neighbors of La Salette, did not in the beginning treat the apparition with much respect. But when the material advantages were pointed out to them that would accrue from the vicinity of a popular shrine, their convictions underwent a change. Great pains were taken to prove that the children could not have manufactured the story. Mélanie is described as heedless, disobedient, lazy, and sullen; Maximin was a stupid, greedy little boy who, until within a few days before the apparition, had

been still more humbly employed than in tending cattle ("à ramasser du fumier sur la route"). "The children were, in short, untaught and coarse; incapable of enthusiasm or exaltation, and still more incapable of inventing and executing a concerted plan." That such children would be the easiest of dupes does not appear, even in the light of after-events, to have been considered. The wonder of floating draperies and glittering ornaments was more than enough to make the Belle Dame seem to them the heavenly visitant she styled herself.

An ecclesiastical commission was appointed to examine the miracle, and reported favorably. The number of pilgrims increased. Wonderful cures wrought by the water began to be heard of. At the end of five years the Bishop of Grenoble issued a decree in which he proclaimed the occurrence witnessed by the shepherd children a veritable apparition of the Blessed Virgin, and authorized the worship of Notre Dame de la Salette. In a short time the large church which now marks the scene of the apparition was begun. Arrangements were made for exporting the water, in which there sprang up directly a flourishing trade. The present income from this source is said to amount to sixty thousand dollars a year.

Opposition to the miracle, which had existed from the first, now took definite shape. It was led by two priests named Déléon and Cartellier, who published a succession of small works accusing a certain Mlle. de la Merlière of having performed the miracle. This lady's eccentricities of religious zeal had long been notorious, and the charge found ready belief. A mandate from the Bishop of Grenoble denounced the offending priests and forbade the faithful, under penalty of excommunication, to read, keep, or propagate their books. Cartellier submitted to the decree of his bishop, but Déléon refused to yield, and was suspended. Mlle. de la Merlière next brought an action for libel against Déléon and Cartellier, which was tried in two courts at Grenoble. The verdicts of both acquitted the defendants on the ground that they had shown no libellous intention, and that Mlle. de la Merlière had suffered no damage from their charge; her reputation remained what it had been before. In the second trial the celebrated Jules Favre acted as counsel for the plaintiff. A full stenographic report of this case is published in a volume of nearly four hundred pages. I was fortunate enough to find a copy on the back shelves of a Grenoble book-shop. The keen-faced woman who kept the shop took no offence at the question whether in Grenoble one really believes in the Salette. "Eh, bien," she replied, with a cheerfully sceptical shrug of her shoulders, "those near by always believe less than those further off. And then, here, all the world has known Mlle. de la Merlière." Favre is reduced to some curious arguments in vindicating his client. Mlle. de la Merlière was too old and stout to have climbed the mountain unaided (she was barely fifty), or to have walked over the grass, as the Belle Dame did, without making it bend beneath her weight. Such a costume as that worn by the lady of the apparition could not possibly have been prepared in fifteen days. He labors at great length to prove an *alibi*, and closes by vehemently insisting that a confirmation of the first judgment will stamp his client as the heroine of a detestable fraud. Déléon's counsel is so sure of his case that he allows himself and the court the relaxation of a laugh. He easily disposes of the *alibi*, which, in fact, only applies to the day before the apparition, and brings a formidable mass of positive evidence to support Déléon's charge. An epigram in the plea of Cartellier's counsel sums up the general impression left by the proceedings: "The Salette is a miracle very lightly admitted, a miracle admitted upon very meagre proof, so meagre that one might be tempted to see a miracle, not in the thing, but in the admission of the thing." Although the bearing of this reiterated verdict was made plain by Jules Favre, it had no disastrous effect upon the new shrine. The Catholic authorities pass it by as an "incident in the private lives of M. Déléon and Mlle. de la Merlière, from which no induction can be drawn either for or against the miracle of the Salette."

Even the tedium and discomfort of a Dauphiné stage-coach did not prevent us from enjoying the drive between Grenoble and Corps when we set out on our irreverent pilgrimage. A glowing September day threw a glamour where none was needed over broad valleys and green hillsides and tiny sparkling lakes and distant blue mountains. When we reached Corps, an hour or two behind time, the full moon was magnifying a hundredfold the picturesqueness, and veiling with her silver the squalor, of that vulgar little town. The hideously unclean inn where we were forced to eat and sleep, quickly dispelled the illusions of the moonlight, which later only served to aggravate the horrors of a night actively devoid of ease. I have no reason to suppose that our pilgrimage to the Salette was of any spiritual advantage, but as a mortification of the flesh it was all that could be desired. The walk up the mountain next morning was quite without interest. The path is wholly shadeless and the heat was most irritating. One would scarcely believe that mountains could compose so commonplace a landscape. Its defects are the want of outlooks and the absence of any play of light and shade. The path is long and in parts steep, but perfectly easy. The "precipices and brinks where only a shepherd can keep his balance," which Favre described, could never have existed save in the fancy of that ingenious orator. We reached the scene of the apparition in time to hear the discourse delivered every morning during the season by one of the Fathers of the Salette, a fraternity founded to guard the shrine and stimulate the worship of the new Madonna. The concourse of pilgrims culminates each year on the 19th of September. Few are looked for after that date. There were still enough, however, to maintain a brisk trade in small flat bottles of the miraculous water and in religious trinkets vended at several gay stalls.

A considerable group of devout listeners was seated on the slope opposite the spring. The preacher took his stand beside the small stone basin into which the precious fluid now trickles from a leaden pipe. Behind him, a sitting figure, in bronze, represents the Belle Dame, as first seen by the children, who also appear in attitudes of surprise and consternation. A winding path up the slope, protected by railings and thickly planted with crosses, marks the Lady's course when she withdrew. The father presently called attention to a striking similarity, observed by those who had visited the East, between the sinuosities of this path and those of the road up Mount Calvary traversed by Christ. At the top of the small mound there is another group of statuary, depicting the close of the Lady's interview with the children. This is the group that usually adorns, and often surmounts, the chapels dedicated to Notre Dame de la Salette. It stands here opposite the church, an imposing pile, flanked on either hand by large buildings of similar design, for the entertainment of pilgrims. The enclosure of the spring is further decorated with crutches, left as tokens by cripples whom the potent water has restored. As our guide—a sturdy old peasant woman—solemnly assured us, numbers of such afflicted persons are carried up the mountain in chairs, or make the ascent on mules, and walk down in a miraculous manner. The details of these cases are reported with much unction in a monthly paper published by the Fathers of the Salette.

The preacher, on the day of our visit, gave the familiar story of the apparition, trying hard to invest it with profound moral significance, but in fact justifying a disrespectful criticism of Jules Favre's, who characterized the Virgin's speech as too puerile to have been invented by his client. Our priest considerately left out the slighting allusion to the few rather old women: his audience was chiefly composed of persons to whom that designation would have been pointedly appropriate. He spoke with pride of the large sum, two million five hundred thousand francs, which has been contributed for building the church and *hospices*, and of the world-wide repute of the sacred water. Among the miraculous cures he recounted was that of a scrofulous bald gentleman who not only overcame his disease by a believing application of the Salette water, but also, to his boundless surprise and joy, brought out a fine growth of hair. A case of suspected diabolic possession was verified by blasphemies which the victim uttered against the Salette. The father told his hearers with a great show of frankness, what every one knew, that the Salette is not an article of faith—we were free to believe or not as we chose; but he suggested that, as a matter of pure and voluntary devotion, the acceptance of this miracle might be an act of greater merit than submission to an authoritatively promulgated dogma. He also referred to Maximin, admitting that he has perhaps a slight weakness (*un petit faible*) for drink, but had himself never seen him intoxicated. About Mélanie he had nothing to say. She has become a Carmelite nun at Marseilles. The *Pilgrimage* states that the fathers of the Salette are ignorant of her present residence, and prefer to remain so, in order not to be obliged to answer indiscreet questions. The same authority strongly affirms that she is *not* a *mauvaise religieuse*, and has *not* swerved from her faith in the Salette, nor been kept out of sight as a half-lunatic renegade. These are pathetic suggestions as to the fate of the little shepherd girl, who, for some cause or other, has not proved a satisfactory witness to the miracle. Our orator's peroration was an appeal to all who heard him to become not converts merely, but missionaries of Notre Dame de la Salette.

The church is internally of fine proportions and massive architecture. It is profusely decorated, and very brilliant in general effect, as well as rich in detail. The building stone, excepting the costly marbles, was brought from a not distant quarry; all the other materials were carried on mule-back for at least three hours. The side walls are lined with votive tablets acknowledging grace received in the widest variety of needs. In the sacristy we saw the treasures of Our Lady of the Salette—already a very

showy collection—embracing many valuable gifts of gold and silver vessels and heavily jewelled ornaments. The father who displayed them rather apologized, however, with the remark, "It is only a beginning."

On our return to Corps, we had the satisfaction of seeing Maximin. He is now settled there as a dealer in pinchbeck souvenirs of the Salette, and liqueurs professedly made from plants of the "sacred mountain." It was not until he had tried several other careers that he at last devoted himself to his present tranquil industry. For a number of years after the apparition both he and Mélanie were strictly housed in a convent. Rationalistic critics like Déléon hold that during this time the children were trained for their future rôles, and carefully drilled in the unvarying uniformity which is claimed as a marvellous feature of all their recitals. Released from the nuns, Maximin proved lazy and unmanageable. Various expedients were resorted to, but everywhere he defied control, and resented punishment by damaging statements about the miracle which depends so largely upon his testimony. This is not an age in which he could be conveniently lost to sight, and the policy finally adopted was that of unlimited license. Indulged in every way, he became perfectly docile in the hands of the Salette fathers. Both he and Mélanie have attempted prophecy. The destruction of Paris in the month of October, 1853; the invasion of France by the Russians; the return of the Apostles to announce a new Gospel—these are a few of the momentous events predicted by the intrepid young seers. Their famous secrets, divulged to no one else, were solemnly communicated by letter to the Pope, who vigorously characterized them as a "world of bosh" (un mondo di stupidità). It may be noted, however, in passing, that while his Holiness has never officially endorsed the Salette, he has not scrupled to give it the practical sanction of numerous indulgences to its devotees. The whole history of the apparition is an interesting study of the genesis and growth of religious myths. As a gentleman in Grenoble said to me, in another fifty years, when all the persons directly concerned are dead, the miracle will doubtless be as fully accredited as the Immaculate Conception itself.

Maximin is now a man of about forty, whose appearance justifies his reputation, which is that of a common profligate and drunkard. He courts the notice of strangers and poses for their edification. To the suggestion that he had probably pretty much forgotten the details of the apparition, he replied, with a sanctimonious roll of his eyes, "Oh! non, Monsieur, ça ne s'oublie pas" (Oh! no, sir, such a thing is not to be forgotten). He would call our attention to one or two particulars which the Père on the mountain may have omitted to mention. The lady's form was not only radiant but transparent. He had looked through her at the hills on the other side. He explained the phenomenon of his accurately reporting the uncomprehended French as part of the miracle—an effect, moreover, which was not evanescent. From the day of the apparition he as well as Mélanie, neither of whom could speak a word of French before, were able to use the language with ease. Here, however, the miracle was apparently not first-class, for Maximin's French is provincial in the extreme. It was strangely in contrast with the faultless elegance of style in a little book which he sold us, called 'Ma Confession de Foi sur la Salette,' and written, as he repeatedly averred, with his own hand. We found, in short, nothing about Maximin to support the argument against Déléon's theory of the miracle used by the *Pilgrimage* as its climax of proof: "How, finally, could the coarse swindle of a stupid farce have produced in the minds of the shepherds the marvels of good sense, of wisdom, and of energy?"

It was like passing from an ill-kept cell of the Middle Ages into the freshness of sunshine and green fields and summer airs when we drove out of Corps and turned our faces toward the Protestant valleys of the High Alps, the scene of the heroic work and sacrifice of Felix Neff.

## THE LIBRARIES OF PARIS.

PARIS, January 29.

ONE of the noblest traits of the American character is the encouragement given in all parts of the Union to the development of public libraries. There are already libraries in Boston and New York which may be envied by some of the capitals of Europe. I know of no special book describing the libraries of Paris and giving their history. No capitol of Europe, except London, can boast of libraries as magnificent as those of the French capital; the British Museum is incomparable in many respects, bu the National Library of France is in some respects superior to the British Museum. Of late years new rooms have been built, somewhat on the plan of the magnificent blue room of the British Museum, so airy, so silent, so well adapted for study. The National Library fills a large block between the Rue Richelieu and the Rue Vivienne; in the beginning it filled only a part of this huge block. It is divided now into many departments. One of the most delightful, which is too little visited by foreigners, is the department of *estampes* (engravings), lodged in a pretty, old gallery. I visited it only a few days ago, and one of the curators showed me an album of a lady of honor of the Court of Catherine de Médicis, with the portraits from life of all the important men and women of the time, in the charming style of our Clouet (called Janet). Such collections are invaluable, and the department of engravings and drawings has any number of them. There are as many as 400,000 portraits in it alone. The department of medals is also extremely interesting. An introduction to one of the curators is necessary if you wish to see its finest treasures, the old Greek medals of the great school, the finest gems. There is a department of manuscripts, divided into all the possible languages, from French to Chinese, and containing more than 100,000 volumes, 8,000 of which, at least, are adorned with precious miniatures.

These three departments are, so to speak, limited, as nothing is added to them except what is very valuable. It is not so with the department of printed books, as the law obliges publishers to give to the National Library a copy of every new work. The number of additions every year in this department amounts, on the average, to 25,000. How many volumes are there in this department? is a question often asked, and which it is not possible to answer correctly, though the greatest order prevails in it—so much so that it does not take more than a few minutes to find any edition of any printed work. Somebody has measured the length of all the shelves of the library; put together, they would make as many as fifty-five kilometres. The number of books placed on these shelves amounts to about two millions. Would you form an exact opinion of the intellectual state of the great majority of readers, of those who frequent the ordinary reading-room? You will at once see how narrow is their horizon when I tell you that out of the two million books in the Library, twenty thousand are amply sufficient to meet the demands and satisfy the tastes of the ordinary public. The higher class of readers, men who work and make researches, are furnished with a special card and meet in another room, called vulgarly the *Mosquie* (I never knew why); about two hundred people are seen there every day. For a lover of fine editions there is a precious sanctuary, to which only a few are admitted, called the *Réserve*. It is composed of books which are never let out to read, but which are preserved as monuments of the arts of printing, or binding, or as original editions. Nothing can exceed the beauty of this reserve fund; all the finest libraries I know are as nothing in comparison with it. I will say nothing of the secret museum, the *Enfer*, as it is called, which contains volumes which are never, under any pretext, given to any reader. There are only 730 volumes, representing 340 works, in this part of the Library; a number which may seem small if you remember that the Library is the great sea into which everything flows.

The Mazarine Library takes its name from Cardinal Mazarin, who established it and named as its first librarian Gabriel Naudé, the author of various works, the best known of which has for its title 'Considerations on *Coups d'état*.' It occupies a wing of the little palace built opposite the Louvre. It is chiefly designed for the members of the Institute, but is also open to men of science and men of letters. One of the last librarians was Philarète Chasles, and many are the stories told of this eccentric writer. He was—not to use a stronger word—very odd, and on one of his days of bad humor, when somebody asked him for a book, he stoutly denied its existence, to the utter bewilderment of the unhappy applicant. Jules Sandeau is now among the curators of this library.

The Arsenal Library is not so well known to foreigners, as it is in a very distant and deserted part of the town. It had for a long time Charles Nodier among its curators. This library was formed by the Marquis d'Argenson, who was a great bibliomaniac, and who was ruined in the end and forced to sell his books. They were bought by the Comte d'Artois, who never had much literary reputation, being known as a man of pleasure. He bought, however, besides the D'Argenson library, the large and magnificent library of the Duc de la Vallière. These two libraries together formed quite a large collection, and one which is extremely remarkable for the choiceness of its material. All the French poets of the sixteenth century, for instance, are found there in their original editions. Boileau and the classic school of the seventeenth century long since consigned these early poets to oblivion, but they are now much sought after, as there was in the school of Ronsard, together with much bad taste, a certain freshness and a poetical richness which were lost afterwards. There are now in the Arsenal, the old palace of Sully, the minister of Henry IV., as many as 250,000 volumes and about 6,000 manuscripts.

On the square of the Pantheon is a large and new building, which con-

tains the library called Sainte-Geneviève. It was built by a very good architect, and might serve as an excellent model for the library of a large town. It embraces only about 120,000 volumes and 3,000 manuscripts. It belonged first to a convent of *Génovéfains*, and the first books inscribed in its lists are those of Cardinal de la Rochefoucauld, who was an abbot of that convent. Mary Stuart sometimes visited it in her youth, and afterwards sent a portrait of herself, which is very carefully preserved.

The City of Paris formed a library which contained all the books and documents concerning the capital of France. It was lodged in the Hôtel de Ville, and numbered 120,000 volumes. It was burned, alas! with that splendid palace, as well as the small library of the Louvre, and a part of the curious archives of the police department. The city of Paris is forming a new Parisian library; ten thousand volumes have already been bought, and they have been placed in the charming Hôtel Carnavalet, which was once the habitation of Madame de Sévigné. A visit to this hôtel, which had fallen almost in ruins but which the city government has recently restored with much taste, would be very interesting to a traveller. The hôtel was built after the drawings of the famous Pierre Lescot by Ligneris; it was decorated by Jean Goujon, the most eminent sculptor of the French Renaissance; it is now in perfect order, and, besides a library which contains only documents concerning Paris, it has received a sort of Parisian museum, showing all the old types of Parisian workmanship in all branches of the arts.

There is a large number of other libraries attached to the various institutions, like the library of law books in connection with the Courts of Justice. I will only mention those of the Conservatory of Arts, of the School of Fine Arts, of the Schools of the Ponts et Chaussées and of Mines, of the Sorbonne, of the Academy of Medicine, of the Chamber of Commerce, of the ancient Senate, of the French Theatre (the most complete collection of French plays), of the Conservatory of Music, etc., etc. One of the peculiar institutions of Paris is the small reading-rooms to be found in a great many streets and passages, which are at the same time circulating libraries, such as you find in England. But in England I have nowhere seen any reading-rooms attached to the circulating libraries, while in Paris there are men and women who spend a few hours every day in these reading-rooms. They are admitted for a trifling sum, and they can read there all the newest books, novels, periodicals, sooner and more easily than they would be allowed to do in one of the large libraries of the State. These small reading-rooms are generally dingy places, under the supervision of a lady, who gives out books, always unbound, often tattered and torn. They have become, however, valuable and interesting lately for the bibliophiles; for some of these, finding no more original editions of the great writers of the seventeenth century, have begun to collect the original editions of the school which called itself romantic at the beginning of this century. You have no idea how rare some of these books have become, rarer, indeed, than the Alduses and Elzevirs. Lamartine's first 'Meditations,' for instance, was issued in a small edition of a thousand copies; a number of other editions followed rapidly, but your bibliophile will have the first. Now, what has become of these thousand first copies? Many have been destroyed; some have been buried in old libraries; some have been bought by the circulating libraries; among these last a copy must be found. The copies of these small libraries have one invaluable advantage: they have not been bound, and consequently their margins have not been cut. They may be dirty, have inkspots; a good binder will cure such defects with ease, but a cut margin is a defect which nothing can mend. The first bibliophiles who thought of looking upon the shelves of the circulating libraries, collected with ease the original editions of Lamartine, of Victor Hugo's poems and dramas, of Alfred de Musset, of Béranger, of Mérimée, of Balzac, of Madame Sand. The ignorant persons who, to their great astonishment, found people offering to buy from them books which nobody ever asked to read, which were lying in the dust of the upper shelves (as in such libraries nothing is read but the most recent books), have now completely lost their heads; they fancy that they have a treasure in every dirty yellow volume which has gone through their hands. They see no difference between the 'Odes et Ballades' of Victor Hugo and a novel of Paul de Kock, or of some of those novelists who are completely unknown to the literary world, but who are the gods of a large public. It is quite amusing to see the value they place on everything; they are perplexed, however, if you refuse their extraordinary offers: they have heard of volumes which they had sold for two francs and which were resold for two hundred.

The small reading libraries are not increasing in number; the multiplication of clubs has done them much harm, as every club now has a good library. A gentleman in easy circumstances goes to his club if he has no library of his own.; these old-fashioned libraries have, therefore, become the resort of very poor gentility, either male or female. They are interesting to visit, in this respect. You will find there a mixture of shabbiness and decency, of decay and courtesy, which is almost melancholy. I dare say that in fifty years none of these establishments, once so flourishing, will remain in existence.

# Correspondence.

## THE MONTENEGRIN PORT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number I find it stated that Turkey has three harbors on the little strip of territory which separates Montenegro from the sea. In view of the fact that the territory lying between Montenegro and the sea belongs to Austria, and further that the northernmost seaport of Albania is some distance south of the Montenegrin limits, it may be permitted to enquire what are the three seaports alluded to.

Yours truly,

Stuart Wood.

60 Mount Auburn Street, Cambridge, February 21, 1875.

[The little harbor of Spizza is Turkish, so is Klek, further north, where the Turkish territory cuts right through the Austrian to the water's edge; and so, further south, is Antivari. These are all, as we said, "on the little strip of territory which cuts the Montenegrins off from the water," and are all, we believe, literally within sight from the mountains. It cannot be called a fact "that the territory lying between Montenegro and the sea belongs to Austria." The correct expression is that it belongs *chiefly* to Austria. The Montenegrin access to the water would, besides the port of Cattaro, naturally be, for topographical reasons, southward over Turkish soil, along the banks of Scutari Lake.—Ed. Nation.]

## A HINT TO BORROWERS OF THE NATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you accord me a little space to say that I am a constant reader of the *Nation*, and pay for it by the year? I desire to speak of a class of your readers—a very large and intelligent class—who neither *buy it* by the year nor by the copy. Your circulation is put down, I believe, at ten thousand copies weekly, whereas from my experience and observation I am satisfied that the ten thousand copies are read every week by not less than forty or fifty thousand families. In my town, a small one, for example, only two copies are taken, but not less than a dozen families enjoy the reading of it every week. It is passed around as one may suppose the Boston *News-Letter* was, April 24, 1704, when it first appeared, the pioneer of American newspapers—a scanty edition, eagerly sought.

My *Nation* goes around and returns badly soiled and in tatters. *I* do not complain of this. I am always glad to have a book or paper *worth borrowing*. But it is unfair to the publishers of the *Nation*. The point I desire to make in your columns by this brief communication is that if all the readers of the *Nation* were *bonâ-fide* subscribers (and there is no reason why they should not be), your circulation, instead of ten thousand, would be to-day not less than forty or fifty thousand.

Respectfully,

Private Dalzell.

Caldwell, Ohio, February 15, 1875.

# Notes.

Scribner, Armstrong & Co. will publish next month 'Religion and Science in their Relation to Philosophy,' by Charles W. Shields, D.D., of Princeton College.——Macmillan & Co. announce for March 1 a special American edition of 'Reminiscences from the Diary of Macready,' with four portraits by the admirable artist Jeens.——'Fu-sang; or, The Discovery of America by Chinese Buddhist Priests in the Fifth Century,' is a compilation by Charles G. Leland from various authorities. It will be published shortly by J. W. Bouton.——E. P. Dutton & Co. and Robert Clarke & Co., are respectively the New York and Cincinnati agents for the sale of the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' of which Little, Brown & Co., Boston,

are the general agents.——Prof. C. H. Hitchcock's geological and mineralogical survey of New Hampshire is to be published by E. C. Eastman, Concord, in two volumes of text, royal 8vo, and an atlas containing plates 26x36 inches in size. It was the author's intention to give a panoramic view of all the peaks visible from the summit of Mt. Washington, by means of photography. We do not know whether it has been carried out.——Zell's 'United States Business Directory' for 1875 is the most successful work of the kind yet undertaken in this country, and answers a general want. The editor is Dr. Colange. In one great volume of 1,848 pp. are comprised classified business indexes for all the United States; less fully for the Dominion of Canada; and more briefly still for London and Paris and the provincial cities of England. In future editions a great extension of this foreign directory is promised.——Francis Parkman's 'Pioneers of France in the New World' has been translated into French by the Countess Gédeon de Clermont-Tonnerre (Paris: Didier; New York: F. W. Christern). The version is a little free, and by omissions sometimes fails to do justice to Mr. Parkman's picturesque style; but, so far as we have examined it, it deserves praise for its correctness and cleverness. We notice in the title to Chap. XIV. a slight confusion of shades: "The Great War-Party" is rendered "L'Armée de la Grande Guerre." The volume, from being octavo in the original, is made a very attractive duodecimo, which leads us to wish, as in the case of the Italian edition of Mr. Marsh's 'Man and Nature,' that we had a popular American edition of equal beauty and handiness.——An Italian version by G. Carraro of Hallam's 'Middle Ages' (Smith's edition) has been lately published in Florence. But one other was ever made, that of M. Leoni, after the first English edition; and it was *poco commendevole*.——Very successful efforts have been made to restore Independence Hall, Philadelphia, to its pre-Revolutionary condition, and it has been converted into a National Museum "as a perpetual monument to the founders of America." A large and valuable collection of portraits and relics has been already formed, and the Board of Managers request additions either as gifts or as loans. The secretary of the board is Mrs. Samuel Chew, Germantown, Pa.

—The Report upon Rapid Transit and Terminal Freight Facilities presented to the American Society of Civil Engineers three weeks ago by the committee appointed to investigate these subjects, has now been issued in pamphlet form. It is a very carefully prepared document, devoted to a general consideration of these two important questions, and nowhere tainted by marks of partiality for particular schemes. The two subjects are taken up separately, Rapid Transit being first considered:

"1st. In order to be profitable with the fares and volume of business likely to be obtained, double-tracked rapid-transit roads should not cost, fully equipped, much, if any, more than from $700,000 to $1,125,000 per mile, according to location; and this points to some form of elevated railroad as the leading feature of the design to be recommended.

"2d. The right of way must be given to them, over streets selected for that purpose, and they should be operated by locomotives and by cars of somewhat different construction from those in use in this country, made very much lighter than ordinary rolling-stock.

"3d. The character of the structure carrying the roads should vary with the location, so as to adapt itself to the local circumstances of each case. No one single plan is likely to prove applicable over all parts of the city. . . .

"4th. There should presently be two roads, one on the east and another on the west side of Central Park, to be eventually complemented by one additional road on each side. The latter may be along the water-front.

"5th. Another effort should be made to induce private capital to build them. If this fails, they might be taken up by the city and built as municipal works."

—The second part of the Report is devoted to the methods of receiving, handling, and storing goods at the port and city of New York. Though the subject is one which has now a small hold on public attention compared with that exercised by rapid transit, we cannot but regard this as very much the most valuable part of the Report. The shameful condition of the water-front of New York, the inconvenient location of its storage warehouses, and the unnecessary expenses attending the cartage and lighterage of goods, impose a terminal tax on the business of the city of surprising magnitude. On 4,631,700 tons of domestic produce received at the port of New York in 1873, the average terminal charges amounted to over three dollars a ton, or more than three-fifths of the freight from Chicago, while it is estimated that the actual cost of cartage alone amounted to an average of $1 60 on every ton carted. At the other Atlantic ports the corresponding charges are but small. Goods arrive at New York for three purposes: 1st, local consumption; 2d, immediate export; and, 3d, distribution or eventual export. It is on the third class that the terminal charges bear most oppressively; and the Report suggests, as methods of relief, the construction of large storage warehouses, in which goods can be deposited immediately on their arrival with the least possible handling, these warehouses to be erected at the termini of the several railroads and along the water-front of the city—the recommendation being made that 100 feet of the 250-foot street laid out by the Dock Commissioners along the North River be devoted to this purpose; and a surface railroad along the water-front, with abundant side-track room, connecting with the railroads leading from the city of New York, and connected with transfer ferry slips at suitable points, by which the cars from railroads terminating at Jersey City and other points near New York could conveniently be received. Goods arriving in the city would be stored at once in the warehouses until the time arrived for their consumption or distribution, thereby saving one cartage or lighterage, while in their first distribution the convenience of the surface freight-tracks would greatly reduce the cost of handling. The Report is understood to be in a large degree the work of Mr. O. Chanute, the chairman of the committee. Like other papers prepared by him on kindred subjects, it is largely a statistical work, and contains a great amount of information of little less value to those who dissent from its conclusions than to those who accept them. The same may be said of the tables in the appendix on "The Elements of Success of a Rapid-Transit Railroad," which is contributed by Mr. M. N. Forney, a member of the committee. There are some respects in which we are not inclined to accept the conclusions of the Report, most notably perhaps the manner of estimating traffic, the ascribing greater value to a road on the East than on the West side of the city, and some of the details of location proposed for the West-side line. But as a candid and disinterested examination of a subject now of great interest to the whole city, it is certainly a work of great value, and deserves the careful perusal of our citizens.

—Mr. John Bigelow concludes in the current number of *Harper's Monthly* his papers on De Witt Clinton, which throw a good deal of light on the earlier politics of the country and on the character of Clinton himself. That we owe the New York canals, and thereby not merely a great deal of jobbery and corruption, but also the commercial supremacy of this city, to the sagacity of Clinton, is not to be denied, even by those who, with Mr. Bigelow, are disinclined to be laudatory of time past at the expense of the present. The articles contain voluminous extracts from a confidential correspondence with Mr. Post; and the picture given of the rage and fury of New York politics, of the wonderful ramifications of intrigue all over the country, the extraordinary range and richness of the vocabulary of vituperation, and the mastery in the art of blackening character evinced by Clinton, is far from edifying. "With the quiet instinct of an insatiable ambition," Mr. Bigelow says, "Clinton early discerned in Van Buren his most formidable competitor for political leadership in the State of New York," and so between the years 1817 and 1824 "nearly every letter to Post contains some vituperative allusion to Van Buren," as "arch-scoundrel," "Prince of Villains," "confirmed knave," "scoundrel of the first magnitude," also charging him with a "corrupt sale of the vote of the State," and still more insidiously with having paid the rent of a certain Mrs. M—— "when under distress." As a good instance of the method employed by Clinton to get his enemies out of his path, we may quote a letter to Post dated August 30, 1822:

"My Dear Sir: Since writing my last, a rumor which has been insinuated to the disadvantage of Van Buren has been embodied in a tangible shape. On his way to the West, the back seat (to which he had a claim) was occupied by Gen. Breckinridge of Virginia, the uncle of Mr. Porter, formerly a member of Congress—a man of character and decided courage—with two ladies. V. B., considering him a plain countryman, as his looks would indicate, patted him with his cane and demanded his seat. This was indignantly refused, and on Duer's announcing him as a senator, the Gen. stated that he was sorry the State of N. Y. was disgraced in being represented by a blackguard. The next stage produced a challenge, which V. B. declined, and he must either crouch or be whipped. So goes the report, probably exaggerated, but in substance correct; and this humiliation may account for his evident embarrassment and distress of physiognomy when I have seen him. Of his cowardice there can be no doubt. He is lowering daily in public opinion, and is emphatically a corrupt scoundrel."

We must not forget to add, however, that when the Erie Canal was before the New York Legislature, Van Buren made his great speech of the session in favor of the bill, whereupon Clinton, "breaking through that reserve which political collisions had created, approached him and expressed his thanks for his exertions in the most flattering terms."

—From this it would seem that the same system of "amenities" afterwards brought to such a high state of perfection by a certain class of editors, prevailed at that day among the politicians. But the custom of duelling certainly gave a reality then to most quarrels which makes them more interesting, from a purely human point of view, than the "contro-

versies" and "issues of veracity" of the present time. It was quite a serious thing to call a man in public "a liar, a scoundrel, and a villain" when the gentleman who was so vituperated might at once summon you to the duelling-ground at Weehawken, on the other side of the river, and force you to give him satisfaction. The epithets we have quoted were in fact applied by Mr. Clinton to Mr. John Swartwout in the year 1802, and were followed by a meeting, in which no less than five shots were fired on each side, two of them lodging themselves in Mr. Swartwout's left leg, and all this notwithstanding that Clinton had "no unkind feelings whatever" for Swartwout, his real enemy being Burr. Among other curious things in these papers is to be found a sort of recipe for the denigration of character, which is a valuable and novel contribution to political science. Mr. Clay had been charged with having "sold his influence" in Congress to Mr. Adams, and James Buchanan had been designated by General Jackson as one who could testify to the fact. Of course Buchanan could do nothing of the kind, and Clinton writes to his friend Post that "the affair had been badly manœuvred," and proceeds to inform his correspondent that the charge of corruption ought to have been proved, not by "the evidence of an accomplice," which is "rarely worthy of credit," but by accumulated evidence, which he sums up as follows :

"1. The known habits of the parties.
"2. An arrangement for their mutual benefit ; and,
"3. This in opposition to C.'s constituents, his interests, and Western popularity.
"4. In opposition to the opinions of Adams's best friends.
"5. The silence of Clay for a long time.
"6. His imputed advances to General Jackson.
"7. The known irregularities of his conduct, and the selfishness of Adams.
"8. The profligate men associated in the corrupted East and West";

and adds, "It appears to me that no other evidence is wanted but the circumstances of the case."

—Mr. G. P. Marsh, in his lectures on the English language, has some interesting statements as to the extent of the vocabulary commanded by different persons. Out of the (roughly) 100,000 words in English, he holds that "few writers or speakers use as many as 10,000 ; ordinary persons of fair intelligence not above 3,000 or 4,000," and so on. A Washington gentleman, Prof. Holden of the National Observatory, has lately read before the Philosophical Society of that city a paper giving the results of an enquiry into the extent of his own personal stock of words. By a sufficient actual count in various parts of a Webster's Dictionary, and a careful estimate of the rest, he finds himself in command of over 30,000 words ; and he regards this as a very moderate, even low, estimate, having found that other gentlemen in Washington count larger numbers than himself in parts of the Dictionary chosen for comparison. His paper gave a full account of the method he pursued, which seems to have been entirely trustworthy. It may be assumed, then, that the English vocabulary, ready for use, of a highly educated man, is above 30,000 words, and perhaps ranging up to 50,000. This is not necessarily in essential discordance with Mr. Marsh's statement, since a man may never have occasion to use by any means all the words which he perfectly understands when he meets with them in reading, and could, if occasion were, employ correctly. Prof. Holden, however, finds fault with the current estimates of Shakspere's and Milton's vocabularies, counting in the Clarke concordance of Shakspere some 24,000 words, instead of the 15,000 usually attributed to him, and in Milton's poems 17,000, instead of 7,000–8,000. It would be interesting on these points to have the results of other independent estimates. In the English Bible he finds, exclusive of proper names, a little over 7,000 words.

—We learn from Germany that the St. Petersburg Sanskrit Dictionary, which has absorbed the time and energies of its two learned editors, Professors Böhtlingk and Roth, now for nearly twenty-five years, is completely finished in manuscript in their hands, the printing also being advanced well into the very last letter, so that the concluding part is certain to appear early in the summer. Professor Roth gave, at the meeting of the German Oriental Society last autumn, an account of the gigantic work, which was received with enthusiasm, and the Society passed a vote of thanks to the editors and to all their collaborators, specifying by name among the latter Professor Weber of Berlin, and Professor Whitney of New Haven. Professor Roth will now probably turn a part of his attention anew to the Atharva-Veda, of which he is stated to have received recently from Kashmere a new and exceedingly important manuscript, containing a very different text from that published in Germany twenty years ago.

—The controversy between Professors Max Müller of Oxford and W. D. Whitney of Yale, over the relation of language to the development theory, is not without interest and amusement to bystanders. Our readers will remember that something more than a year ago Prof. Müller printed in *Fraser* three lectures on "Mr. Darwin's Philosophy of Language," and that in the *North American* of last July Prof. Whitney answered him at some length. Mr. George Darwin, in the *Contemporary* for November, introduced Prof. Whitney's argument to English readers, and now Prof. Müller, in the January number, has answered it in a manner that will probably end the discussion. The substance of Prof. Müller's argument was that language, and the general ideas to which language gives expression, and the Kantian forms of thought in which those ideas are framed, are found in all men and in no animals. These three things only exist together ; and it is not merely true that no sign of either exists in any animal, but further, the development of them could never take place in brute creation, because an animal acquiring them would no longer be a brute, while a man losing them would cease to be a man—which seems a revival of the old fallacy of motion, that a thing cannot move where it is, and cannot move where it not, and hence cannot move at all. The theory that there was an intermediate series of forms of which no trace has yet been discovered, in which by slow degrees those marks developed, the Professor rejected summarily. His proof that these marks do not exist in animals was hardly conclusive. His position required positive evidence that no animal has those marks, but his proof was merely negative—that we cannot tell whether they have or not, but that there is no sufficient reason to think that they have. Yet even this position he abandons. The arguments by which he proved Kant's forms of thought in man applied equally well to animals ; and he even confessed that the lowest mollusc, capable of voluntary action, might well be believed to will those actions under the categories of Kant. His treatment of general ideas is not more satisfactory. He obviously confused general and abstract ideas, between which, in this point of view, the difference is most important. General ideas, or concepts denoting a number of objects (for example, *dog*), are easily formed and realized in the imagination by calling up the image of some one or more of the individuals denoted. Abstract ideas (like doggedness), on the other hand, having only connotation—that is, designating not individuals but qualities separated in the mind from the individuals in whom alone they actually exist—cannot be represented in the imagination, and most probably could not be employed in thought to any considerable extent without the use of verbal symbols. The evidence that animals have general ideas is overwhelming, and, if we understand aright Prof. Müller's admission that animals have "shrewdness, calculation, presence of mind, reasoning in the sense of weighing," he is of the same opinion, or would have been had the distinction occurred to him, and only means to deny to animals abstract ideas. Unfortunately for his argument, there is excellent reason to believe that abstract ideas are not possessed by the lowest races of men, and Müller's proof that they are is merely proof of general ideas. Indeed, it follows from his position as to the formation of roots that abstract ideas could not have been possessed by the earliest men. Thus both his mental marks fail, and his language mark goes as easily, for he does not mean by language mere imitative or interjectional sounds, but radical forms in which the denotation has become broad and indistinct, and the connotation sharply defined ; and he shows how these roots were slowly produced by men from interjections and imitations, after a long interval in which these interjections and imitations were the only means of verbal communication : so that man was long man without the mark that Müller thinks inseparable.

—Of course this argument was not likely to be treated as conclusive, and, indeed, English scientists seem to have thought it hardly worth answering. Professor Whitney's article, explaining the rise of forms of thought, general ideas, and radical language, and pointing out the weakness of Professor Müller's argument, with some minor fallacies entangled in it, was welcomed by Mr. George Darwin in an appreciative notice which met the indignant eye of the Oxford professor ; and he was out on the war-path at once, in full paint and feathers. His desire for slaughter was too great to allow him to wait to find Professor Whitney's review, and, coming across his lectures on language, published some six or eight years ago, he attacked them at once, and made bloody work with them. The general idea that we get is that, with the exception of some bits on the Semitic and American languages, those lectures are taken bodily from Professor Müller's own works, and differ from them principally in their popular form, their omission of reasoning, their blunders, and their "bold misrepresentations," "self-assertion," and "personal abuse." Professor Whitney, we learn (by ingenious quotation from the scurrilous pamphlet of another German assailant), is "a horrible humbug," a "tricky attorney," whose arrogant vanity yawns and grins in the face of the reader, etc., etc. A thin veil of moderation and candor is cleverly thrown over the whole essay. Remembering the

courtesy of Professor Whitney's review, and the staid tone of the magazine in which it was published, it is amusing enough to read that "it is both interesting and instructive, in the study of Dialectic Growth, to see how words which would be considered offensive in England have ceased to be so on the other side of the Atlantic, and are admitted into the most respectable of American reviews." Small space is accorded by Professor Müller to reasoning in his reply; his scorn is too intense for that. He explains with more or less success some of Mr. Darwin's minor points, but naturally finds difficulty in answering the essay which he has never read; and he adds little or nothing to the main points of his argument, unless the very metaphysical theory with which he closes is to be so regarded. Abandoning the field of phenomena, to which Darwin and his followers confine themselves, he soars aloft to the ethereal region of final causes, and announces that in the unknown he and his opponents are at one again; and there evolves an *à priori* theory of development, in which, of course, natural selection plays no part.

—To the many memorials of Agassiz an interesting one is added by his compatriot De Candolle, who is, by the way, his successor as one of the immortal eight in the French Academy of Sciences. As president of the Geneva Society, De Candolle made the annual report for 1873–4, in which he renders honor to the memory of his fellow-citizen De la Rive, and of Quetelet as well as of Agassiz, not to speak of less distinguished names. The notice of Agassiz is full of interest. It gives—through his correspondence with Coulon of Neufchâtel, and of the latter with Humboldt—some particulars of his life in Paris in 1832, the year in which Cuvier suddenly died, shortly after he had recognized the young naturalist's genius and opened the way for its development in Paris; and it shows that he, both before and after Cuvier's death, turned away from the flattering prospects there presented and sought instead the modest professorship at the Lycée of Neufchâtel which Coulon founded for him. "Je suis trop peu français par caractère," writes Agassiz, and he proceeds to say that he is not seeking the place for any personal advantage, but that he shall bestow upon the establishment all the means that come into his hands. De Candolle notes this avoidance of great cities as a characteristic trait; that he preferred Neufchâtel to Paris, avoided Berlin and London, where he had powerful friends, and, in America, preferred Cambridge to New York or even Boston. We should note also the early development of a disposition to found, to sow for himself and for posterity, rather than to fall back upon garnered stores, however ample. De Candolle refers with admiring wonder to "des dons fabuleux des riches Américains," and to the large sums given for the support of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, both before Agassiz's death and in the *testimonial* since. He adds: "Si dans le temps où Agassiz n'était qu'un étudiant pauvre, il a rêvé un Eldorado approprié à sa passion pour l'histoire naturelle, son rêve s'est réalisé plus d'une fois à la fin de sa vie." We add one more sentence in translation; for the official judgment of so thoughtful and prudent a naturalist as De Candolle is worth recording:

"Agassiz taught in three languages, with the same grace and the same facility. He belonged to no school. Science to him was neither German, nor French, nor English, but of all countries. He excelled in the examination of details and in the comparison of forms. [In other words, he was an unrivalled morphologist.] I could not say that he was equally great in the principles of natural classification and in theoretic deduction. It is at least singular that the author of the immense discovery of the parallelism between the successive forms of the embryo of a fish and of the successive forms of the class of fishes in general, through geological times, should obstinately deny all evolution in the animal and vegetable kingdoms."

—We may appropriately place beside this passage an extract from Dr. Asa Gray's feeling address on the late Jeffries Wyman, before the Boston Society of Natural History, last October. It will be found on page 36 of the memorial pamphlet. The speaker had had a conversation with Wyman some time after the death of Agassiz, and not long before his (Wyman's) own:

"Agassiz repeated to me, he said, a remark made to him by Humboldt, to the effect that Cuvier made a great mistake, and missed a great opportunity, when he took the side he did in the famous controversy with Geoffroy St. Hilaire; he should have accepted the doctrines of morphology, and brought his vast knowledge of comparative anatomy and zoölogy, and his unequalled powers, to their illustration. Had he done so, instead of gaining by his superior knowledge some temporary and doubtful victories in a lost cause, his pre-eminence for all our time would have been assured and complete. I thought, continued Wyman, that there was a parallel case before me—that if Agassiz had brought his vast stores of knowledge in zoölogy, embryology, and palæontology, his genius for morphology, and all his quickness of apprehension and fertility in illustration, to the elucidation and support of the doctrine of the progressive development of species, science in our day would have gained much, some grave misunderstandings been earlier rectified, and the permanent fame of Agassiz been placed on a broader and higher basis even than it is now."

—"A Prussian," taking exception to our remarks on the late postal-vocabulary changes in Germany, sends us the Postmaster-General's reply to a similar criticism in the Dresden *Nachrichten*. That paper had urged that "poste-restante," "recommandirt," "express," etc., were now part of the world's currency, and that to suppress them in favor of German words was, internationally considered, a step backwards. The force of this argument is weakened but not wholly removed by Dr. Stephan when he shows, for instance, that for "poste-restante" the English and Americans use "to be called for"; the Danes and Norwegians "til afhenting" (till taken away); the Spaniards and Portuguese "lista"; the Italians, "ferma in posta." This is all very true, and if Germany prefers a phrase of its own, and the word *postlagernd* meets with favor, there is nothing to be said. Nevertheless, the *Nachrichten* was right in its main position, that in all civilized countries the post-office officials know what *poste-restante* means, and that (Germany not excepted) they will all have to learn what *postlagernd* means. Doubtless, however, the phrase in question is the best example of universal usage or intelligibility that can be cited, and perhaps it ought not to have been allowed to stand in the way of an attempt at national (and not international) uniformity. Still, the Germans themselves, no less than foreigners residing or travelling abroad, have been amazed at the long list of changes ordered by Dr. Stephan. They smilingly replace the old-time *couvert* (which, oddly enough, is not the usual French word for envelope) with *Briefumschlag*. Indeed, the Berlin *Wespen* declares that the Postmaster-General gave a New Year's dinner of 40 *Umschläge*. When we characterized the new-fangled *postlagernd* as "barbarous," we perhaps spoke with greater freedom than discretion. All the changes were made after a very thorough conference on the part of the post-office officials, and it is proper to be modest in face of their deliberate approval. Dr. Daniel Sanders, too, the eminent lexicographer, has in the *National-Zeitung* of Berlin warmly commended the new vocabulary, and suggested the introduction of *drahten* and *kabeln* (like our commercial verbs *wire* and *cable*).

—It is a pleasant indication of the progress which the study of comparative mythology is making throughout Europe, and of the part taken in it by Italian scholars, that Professor De Gubernatis has just published at Florence, in the form of one of those handy "*4 lire*" volumes which bespeak a wide popular circulation, a series of 'Lectures on the Vedic Mythology.' The style and quality of this author are well known in America by his 'Animal Mythology' and his contributions to the *International Review*. He is a venturesome and constructive etymologist and mythologist, and many of his suggestions and combinations may fail to receive the final assent of the community of scholars; but his enterprise and fertility in this department are not on that account any the less to be commended. We wish the volume might appear in an English dress, either on this or the other side of the ocean.

## FISKE'S COSMIC PHILOSOPHY.*

MR. HERBERT SPENCER'S philosophy has been much praised, but little understood, as was lately shown by the surprise and misunderstanding that greeted Mr. Tyndall when in his Belfast address he gave to it the weight of his own authority. The slight attention which Spencer gave to the old ontological questions of Infinite and Absolute, Noumenon and Final Cause, had something to do with this; the voluminousness of his works deterred many; and his very fertility in brilliant suggestion and vivid illustration, while exhibiting details in a very effective light, obscured the outlines of his theory, and enrolled many among his converts before they had learnt his doctrines. Further explanation was much needed, and probably this could best be given by another mind; for, as an artist can sometimes best judge his work by its reflection in the glass, so a philosophical scheme can often be better judged in its reproduction than in its original presentation. And Mr. Fiske seems well fitted for this work, his mind being evidently very receptive in the best sense. He not only fully absorbs Spencer's views, but he rearranges, condenses, and completes them. If he is at times a little too easily acquiescent, or too timid in original criticism, it is a perhaps not unpardonable fault in what hardly pretends to be more than an exposition of another's views.

The new philosophy includes in its scope the laws of the whole phenomenal universe or cosmos; but the subject-matter is limited by the exclusion of all ontological questions as insoluble, thus following the path marked out

*'Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy, based on the Doctrine of Evolution, with Criticisms on the Positive Philosophy. By John Fiske, M.A., etc.' In two volumes. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1875.

in Spencer's published programme, and "carrying a step further the doctrine put into shape by Hamilton and Mansel." There is something more than a mere step in advance, however. Both Spencer and Hamilton start from the same supposed contradictions, and arrive at the same result, in the establishment of the unknowable ; but their paths are different. Hamilton unconsciously accords a greater validity to the laws of the cognitive than to the laws of the representative faculty, and holds himself logically bound to accept what he cannot realize to himself as true. Spencer seems to regard the laws of thought as no more imperative than those of the imagination, and decides, upon the same evidence, not that the inconceivable must be true, but that we know nothing about it. He brings it back into consciousness, however, in obedience to an inexplicable instinct which he cannot disobey, and makes this undemonstrable belief in a shapeless unknown the corner-stone of his philosophy. Of course this philosophy, like every other system founded on ignorance, must be subject to revision whenever any new light is thrown upon the matter. Since it appeared, J. S. Mill has reviewed the whole ground and removed much confusion, and his work was done so thoroughly that it was a permanent addition to philosophy. We do not think Mr. Fiske has sufficiently considered the changed aspect that these antinomies now wear. A detailed consideration of them is impossible here, and we can only advise the student to analyze them in Mill's method. The problem will then, we think, assume a very different aspect. The difficulty of picturing in the imagination the primary elements of knowledge will remain, but the necessity of accepting an unthinkable conclusion will vanish.

The truth is that Mr. Fiske includes in his Unknowable several very dissimilar things. He puts all the unintelligible and self-contradictory abstractions created by metaphysicians, together with those genuine abstractions which, though intelligible, cannot be adequately imaged in the mind ; adds to them certain elementary concepts of the external world which represent real existences too little known to be fully understood, and certain associations so firmly fixed that to dissociate their elements seems to break the whole chain of thought ; and, combining with the whole the idea of a noumenon and of a final cause, styles it the Unknowable, with a capital U. It would be a mistake, however, to treat this Unknowable as a mere bundle of heterogeneous abstractions ; for what Mr. Fiske usually means by that word is the last element only. The Cosmic Unknowable is the infinite and absolute substance of Spinoza and Hegel, the "Reality of Realities," "unknowable so far as infinite and absolute, knowable in the order of its phenomenal manifestations." But the disuse of the established nomenclature, and the employment of one of the most indefinite of words in a shifting meaning, misleads the student and hinders his recognition of the true character of this unknowable Reality.

One of the distinguishing features of Cosmism is its doctrine as to the external world. Spencer asserts plainly that there is an objective reality, though he does not agree with Hamilton that we are directly conscious of it phenomenally. But whether that objective reality is phenomenal, or whether it is simply the unknowable, it is not so easy to ascertain from his writings. Mr. Fiske is more explicit. He says (i. 80), "We admit that matter does not exist *as matter*, save in relation to our intelligence. . . . But we nevertheless maintain in opposition to the idealist [the cosmothetic ?] that *something* is still there," namely, an "unknown Reality which caused in us these groups of sensations." This unknown and unknowable Reality we must believe to be a single and absolute being, "because we cannot think without doing so." We regret our inability to quote Mr. Fiske's argument at length, but we think that these extracts show his real views, although the reader will find certain expressions apparently in conflict with them. Mr. Fiske's universe thus consists of mental phenomena and an unknowable noumenon.

Comparing Mr. Fiske with other thinkers, we find that he differs from Hamilton in denying external phenomena. In this he agrees with Mill, but he differs from him in asserting noumenal reality. In this he agrees with Berkeley, but from him he differs in denying the personal character of this reality and holding it altogether unknowable. In Hamilton's classification he is of the genus substantialist, as asserting a real substance, and species monist, as affirming the unity of phenomena. Like all the subdivisions of this species, his theory is a form of Idealism, as he seems himself prepared to admit (ii. 446). Materialism, which Hamilton places in this group, is really a subdivision of Nihilism, at the other end of the scale, where Positivism also belongs. Mr. Fiske's analysis of the relation of Cosmism to Positivism on the one hand and Idealism on the other shows much knowledge ; but it is injured by his failure to see that a belief in external phenomena is usually a part of the former, and a belief in noumenal reality almost invariably a part of the other.

The only phenomena which he recognizes being of the mind, of course the "test of inconceivability is the only ultimate test of truth which philosophy can accept as valid." Here the distinction between Monism and Dualism is imperative. Dualism, acknowledging external phenomena, is obliged to employ a double test of truth. It is not enough that its reasoning should be logical ; the precepts which that reasoning analyzes and recombines must also be true to the phenomena which they represent. But Cosmism is partially free from this restraint, inconceivability being its only limitation. Mr. Fiske is generally too clear a thinker to profit by this freedom, and although his theory is of the Idealists, his method is of the Positivists. Indeed, for practical use, he finds the subjective method of very little value, and in introducing his synthesis he explicitly abandons it (i. 272), saying that "the truth of any proposition for scientific purposes is determined by its agreement with observed phenomena, and not by its congruity with some assumed metaphysical basis." The foundation of Cosmism is, nevertheless, essentially subjective, though, curiously enough, Mr. Fiske does not seem aware of it, and attacks the subjective method with as much vigor as if he himself never employed it. In his main synthesis he seeks to establish the law of evolution inductively. But his proof of the existence of the Unknowable, his adoption of the test of conceivability, his argument for the law of causation and the law of conservation of force, are all subjective. Upon the last two he rests the law of evolution, and his proof is far from satisfactory, apparently involving a fallacious use of zero factors. He says (i. 148 and compare i. 258 :)

"Our belief in the necessity and universality of causation is the belief that every manifestation of force must be preceded and succeeded by some equivalent manifestation. Or in an ultimate analysis it is the belief that force, as manifested to our consciousness, can neither arise out of nothing nor lapse into nothing, can neither be created nor annihilated. And the negation of this belief is unthinkable ; since to think it would be to perform the impossible task of establishing in thought an equation between something and nothing."

This is his proof of the invariability of causation. No doubt, if there is an invariable equation between antecedent and consequent, the law of conservation of force follows; but until that law was inductively established the existence of such an equation was the very question in issue. Mr. Fiske seems to think that because we are able to think of antecedent and consequent in relation to each other, there must be a mathematical relation of equality between them. Perhaps he means that we must think of every event as preceded by a cause, because otherwise we should think it preceded by nothing, and to think nothing is to stop thinking. But this is equally fallacious. The thought of a thing as without objective existence, or as disconnected with objective existences, is not nothing, and it may be a sound thought. His trouble seems to arise from his disbelief in objective phenomena ; but one would suppose that a writer who could show with Mr. Fiske's clearness the untrustworthiness of our belief in the occult power of a cause to produce its effect, would hardly have attempted to evolve from the effect its cause. His subjective method does not even harmonize the different parts of his system, for his test of truth by conceivability would destroy the belief in the Inconceivable upon which his system rests. It would seem a mere identical proposition that if inconceivability is the test of truth, the existence of the Inconceivable cannot be established as true. The reader will notice, too, how the Spencer theory that necessary thoughts are nothing more than the uniform experiences of our ancestors which long repetition has stamped ineffaceably on the brain, deprives the test by conceivability of nearly all its value. Putting the two theories together, it would seem that the beliefs of semi-barbarous ancestors are the sole test of truth. This results from the failure to distinguish between two kinds of inconceivability—namely, the inconceivability arising from long-repeated association of ideas, and the inconceivability arising under the law of contradiction. The first is, or may be, inherited ; but it is no test of truth. The second is a test of truth, but has nothing to do with inheritance.

The theories of Darwin and Tylor, Arnold and Maine, and others among the best of modern thinkers, adorn Mr. Fiske's work ; and he has done much more than merely present the thoughts of others. His most important suggestion, that of the influence of the long period of feeble adolescence upon man's social development, is, we think, a permanent contribution to the development theory. But much still remains to be done. A philosophy which gives us as its final generalization two laws, Evolution and Dissolution, both of universal application, one of which is in point blank opposition to the other, can hardly be regarded as completely finished ; and the figurative description of them as "rhythmic" only deludes us with an empty semblance of explanation. We fear that Mr. Fiske's treatment of this matter will not be found satisfactory. His readers will scarcely be willing to follow his example (i. 328) in devoting their attention solely to the

nothing for the present, provided he and his imagination can have the future all to themselves.

Mr. Raymond is now going about the country acting this part for the benefit of country audiences. We certainly hope he may have all the success he deserves. His Colonel Sellers is one of the few, the very few, American parts that have an actual, independent existence of their own. Go through tragedy, comedy (high and low), melodrama, and farce—adding, if that be necessary, the "supernatural" melodrama, the "emotional" and the "society" play—and in them all are there half-a-dozen characters, properly so-called, who represent any real thing in American life? At this moment the only ones which occur to us, after cudgelling our brains, are Solon Shingle, Rip Van Winkle (the interest in him, too, being half literary and half legendary), the atrocious Yankee in the "American Cousin," and Colonel Sellers. These characters are all in low comedy, or we might almost say broad farce. The list may be increased perhaps by the addition of a name or two, but it cannot be made long, and in any list Mr. Raymond's Colonel Sellers will hold a high place. It is an extremely nice piece of acting, and, though the character is not a high one in the dramatic scale, it is for that reason not the less difficult. The rôle of a speculator, a promoter of schemes, a penniless adventurer in Western lands, who should be at the same time noisy, vulgar, and disgusting in speech and action, would no doubt be within the reach of many actors; but the peculiarity of Colonel Sellers, as given by Mr. Raymond, is, that though he represents a kind of American peculiarly objectionable to our higher feelings, he yet succeeds in making the part an attractive one. We like our speculative friend, and we sympathize with his belief in the untold millions to be extracted from each new scheme that on the road to fortune is reducing him to beggary. We may doubt at times his perfect integrity, but we feel with him that ophthalmic experiments on pagan Oriental nations may fairly be excused if they tend to turn the balance of trade in favor of our own people. We are involuntarily pleased with the ex-rebel patriotism which glows at the thought of "The Old Flag—and an Appropriation." And, as the chain of speculative reasoning on which each new gigantic fortune rests is unrolled before our eyes, we admit the validity of any expectations. The play is worth seeing, if only to witness an American audience in thorough sympathy with an American actor. It is evident from the first act to the last that every one in the theatre is, in his own fashion, be it large or small, a speculator, and that he sees himself reflected from the stage.


A NEW VOLUME

IN THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

*Mistress Judith.*

A Cambridgeshire story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler. With an Illustration. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

"We do not remember to have read a story more perfect of its kind since Mrs. Gaskell's 'Sylvia's Daughters.'"—*London Athenæum.*

"A very careful study, full of beauty and pathos."—*British Quarterly.*

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE* Madding Crowd.

*HARDY'S A PAIR OF BLUE* Eyes.

*ALCESTIS, THE NEW MUSICAL* Novel.

*MRS. ALEXANDER'S THE WOO-* ing O't.

*MRS. ALEXANDER'S WHICH* Shall It Be?

*MY LITTLE LADY.*

*MRS. PARR'S HERO CARTHEW.*

Price $1 25 each.

HENRY HOLT & CO., PUBLISHERS, NEW YORK.

*ELEGY WRITTEN IN A COUNTRY CHURCHYARD*

(T. Gray).

ILLUSTRATED.

(NO. 17 OF SELECTED POEMS.)

TEN CENTS PER COPY.

☞ Sent, postage paid, on receipt of price.

KILBOURNE TOMPKINS,

16 Cedar Street, New York.

No. 18, 'The Red Fisherman' (W. M. Praed), will be ready March 3.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*MESSRS. MACMILLAN'S "Reader"* *on Lessing's 'Laocoön,' translated by Sir Robert Phillimore, and Von Ranke's 'England' in English, and announcements of other new books, are on next page.*

FOR SALE AT PRINCIPAL BOOKSTORES.

WIDDLETON'S EDITIONS OF

*VALUABLE STANDARD WORKS.*

"A WHOLE LIBRARY IN NINE VOLUMES."

"A set of books comprising the cream of English Literature from the time of Dr. Johnson to our own."

THE ELDER DISRAELI'S WOKKS.

Edited by his son, Rt. Hon. B. DISRAELI, Premier of England. 9 vols. 8vo, large type, on toned paper, comprising

THE CURIOSITIES OF LITERATURE. 4 vols., . . . $7 00
THE AMENITIES OF LITERATURE. 2 vols., . . . 3 50
THE CALAMITIES OF AUTHORS. 2 vols., . . . 3 50
THE LITERARY CHARACTER, ETC. 1 vol., . . . 2 25

Any work sold separately, or the entire set, 9 vols., in box, cloth, $15; half calf, $30.

HALLAM'S COMPLETE WORKS.

Revised and corrected. Handsomest editions extant. 10 vols. crown 8vo, comprising

THE MIDDLE AGES. A View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages. 3 vols., . . . . $5 25
INTRODUCTION TO THE LITERATURE OF EUROPE. 4 vols., . . . . 7 00
CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. 3 vols., . 5 25

Or complete set, 10 vols., cloth, $17 50; half calf, $30.

MAY'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. 2 vols., cloth, . . . . 3 50

(May is a continuation of Hallam.)

PROFESSOR WILSON'S WORKS.

THE NOCTES AMBROSIANÆ. By Prof. Wilson, Lockhart, Hogg, and Dr. Maginn. Edited, with Notes, by R. Shelton Mackenzie. With Portraits. A handsome Library Edition. 6 vols. (including Life of Wilson, by his Daughter), crown 8vo, $10 50; half calf, $20.

CHARLES LAMB'S WORKS.

A very choice edition. Edited by Sir Thomas Noon Talfourd. With Memoir and Steel Portrait. 5 vols. crown 8vo, $9; half calf, $15.

BURTON'S ANATOMY OF MELANCHOLY. "A very choice edition of quaint old Burton." 3 vols. crown 8vo, $5 25; half calf, $10.

DEAN MILMAN'S WORKS.

14 vols. 8vo, large type, on toned paper, comprising

HISTORY OF THE JEWS, from the earliest period down to modern times. By Henry Hart Milman. 3 vols., $5 25.
HISTORY OF CHRISTIANITY, from the birth of Christ to the abolition of Paganism in the Roman Empire. 3 vols., $5 25.
HISTORY OF LATIN CHRISTIANITY, including that of the Popes, to the Pontificate of Nicholas V. 8 vols., $14. Or complete works, uniform sets, 14 vols., cloth, in case, $24 50; half calf, $49.

☞ Sent by mail or express on receipt of price, by

W. J. WIDDLETON, Publisher, 27 Howard Street, New York.

Many other choice works, suitable for libraries, will be found on our Catalogue, sent free to any address on application.

*THE MORALITY OF PROHIBI-* tory Liquor Laws. An Essay. By Wm. B. Weeden. 16mo, cloth gilt and black lettered. Price $1 25.

*HOW TO WRITE CLEARLY.* Rules and Exercises on English Composition. By E. A. Abbott. From the tenth English edition. 16mo, cloth, price 60 cents.

☞ Sold by all booksellers. Mailed, post-paid, by the publishers,

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

In press, and will be sent free of charge to any address,

*PRICED AND DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE*

Of a large Collection of

SCARCE, STANDARD, AND CURIOUS ENGLISH AND FOREIGN BOOKS,

Memoirs, History, Poetry, the Drama, Shakspere, Works in French and Italian, Travels, Ana, Anecdote, Bons Mots, Books of Prints, Science, Medicine, Dentistry, Belles Lettres, etc., etc.

FOR SALE BY

A. DENHAM & CO., Importers and Publishers, 17 MURRAY STREET, NEW YORK.

*ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.*

NINTH EDITION.

Vol. I. of the Ninth Edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' will be issued during January, 1875, and the other volumes will follow, twenty-one in all, at the rate of three per year. More than one-half of the matter in this edition is new, and comprises special contributions by many of the most eminent writers of the day, including Prof. Huxley, Max Müller, A. R. Wallace, R. A. Proctor, and St. George Mivart. The volumes will be illustrated, and in typographic excellence will be unsurpassed.

This edition will embody the results of the ripest learning of the nineteenth century, in Art, Literature, Philosophy, and Science.

Price of the volumes, $9 each.

Subscriptions received by

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., 110 Washington Street, Boston.

*ESTES & LAURIAT,* PUBLISHERS AND BOOKSELLERS,

143 Washington Street, Boston. (Opp. Old South.)

*TOO MUCH ALONE.* By Mrs. J. H. Riddell, author of 'Rich Husband,' 'A Life's Assize,' etc. 1 vol. 8vo, paper, 75 cts.

"It is one of the very best of recent fictions."—*Spy.*

"A Romance with an excellent moral."—*Commercial.*

"An unexceptionably interesting and instructive story."—*Eve. Register.*

The above or any book published in U. S. sent postpaid on receipt of price by

ESTES & LAURIAT.

# MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.'S PAGE.

## *The Reader.*

NEW VERSION OF LESSING'S 'LAOCOÖN,' BY SIR ROBERT PHILLIMORE.—TRANSLATION OF VON RANKE'S 'HISTORY OF ENGLAND.'

More than a century has passed without bringing forward a gem of critical art at all comparable with Lessing's Essay on the Laocoön. The Sainte-Beuve of Fine Arts, he proves in that exquisite bit of study his subtlety, patience, and research, bringing the light of history and the accumulations of reading to bear on a theme he already has by heart so far as its plastic motive goes. A new translation, including the whole of the notes, has been made by Sir Robert Phillimore, and issued by Macmillan & Co.

The 'Laocoön' was published in 1766, after the 'Nathan der Weise.' It was perhaps inspired by the great work of Winckelmann, whom Lessing treats with singular respect, even while distancing him in acumen and correcting him perforce in more than one interpretation of the Greek idea. In the 'Laocoön' are considered the limitations of sculpture and poetry respectively; the essay, in fact, is the query made by a literary man and scholar, who looks across the boundary of his own art of letters, with some disposition to envy the clear and obvious effects obtained by the plastic artist, and sets himself studiously at work to decide whether the chisel or the pen is after all more successful in treating a phase of life or a poetic situation. He arrives naturally at the conclusion that the literary artist has the privilege of portraying a sequence of events, while the sculptor or painter must seize the most telling instant, and to that instant confine himself. As Mr. Matthew Arnold, to whom Lessing's masterpiece has suggested an admirable poem, says of the artist:

> "In outward semblance he must give
> A moment's life of things that live;
> Then let him choose his moment well,
> With power divine his story tell!"

There is no limit to the number of distinguished thinkers who have acknowledged obligations to the 'Laocoön.' Every writer of art since it appeared has betrayed consciousness of its line of argument and marshalling of illustration. Fuseli introduced it in his lectures. Ruskin shows thoughtful acquaintance with it in his radical treatment of the episode in 'Virgil.' Macaulay actually said that he had learned more from it than he had ever learned elsewhere.

Lessing, after all, however, approaches the art of the Greeks as a man of letters, and not quite as a sculptor would do. In treating the problem whether the group is subsequent or not to 'Virgil,' he is at his best, showing wonderful knowledge of antique authors whom Virgil himself may possibly have followed. The critic of a century back saw a perfection in the group which the best criticism of our time can hardly see. Neither Lessing nor Winckelmann, perhaps, was conscious of the real head of the principal figure, believed to be preserved in a private gallery at Brussels; and they waste time in dwelling on parts of the group that really are restorations. But as a work of more than fair artistic judgment, combined with resplendent talent for illustration, the essay by Lessing holds its own against the profoundest of those later criticisms which succeed by using its method.

The present translation was completed, as Sir Robert Phillimore mentions, before he had seen the version by Miss Ellen Frothingham, published last year; and it has the advantage of including the unfinished parts, and of some excellent remarks by the English translator himself.

The great excellence of Leopold von Ranke as a historian is that he is logical, and not rhetorical. His complete impartiality has led to the strange fact of the acceptance of his 'History of the Popes' by the Catholics themselves. In the grand cycle of works which have occupied the life of this tireless historian, his 'History of England' may be looked upon as the capital performance; for the relations of England with France and Holland have determined the course of politics in Europe. His 'French History,' 'Life of Wallenstein,' 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' and minor works, while they demonstrated his curious industry, lead up to this central thread of European international relations.

The history closes with George II., and is mainly devoted to the seventeenth century, with a skilfully condensed study of previous movements in England from the earliest times. In general terms, says Von Ranke, the distinction between modern England and modern France is that the glory of their arms abroad has lain nearest to the heart of the French nation, and the legal settlement of their home affairs to that of the English: an excellent remark, embodying the motives of whole dynasties.

The eight volumes of the original have been translated by eight gentlemen connected with the University of Oxford, and reissued in five volumes. The appendices are rich with criticisms on the chief contemporary writers of the period, and with hitherto unpublished documents. The work is conceived in a spirit of the broadest philosophy and international justice.

### NEW BOOKS.

*L. VON RANKE'S HISTORY OF* England, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated from the German. 6 vols. 8vo, $24.

*LAOCOÖN:* Translated from the Text of Lessing. With Preface and Notes by the Rt. Hon. Sir Robert J. Phillimore, D.C.L. With Photographs. 8vo, $4.

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo, $4.

"This excellent and very welcome volume. . . . Leaving to metaphysicians any further discussions that may be needed respecting the already overdiscussed problem of the origin of the moral faculty, he takes it for granted as readily as the geometrician takes space for granted, or the physicist the existence of matter. But he takes little else for granted, and defining ethics as 'the science of conduct,' he carefully examines, not the various ethical systems that have been propounded by Aristotle and Aristotle's followers downwards, but the principles upon which, so far as they confine themselves to the strict province of ethics, they are based."—*Athenæum.*

*SELECTIONS FROM BERKE-* ley. With Introduction and Notes for the use of Students in the Universities. By Professor Fraser, LL.D., etc., Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $3.

*CHRIST AND OTHER MASTERS.* A Historical Enquiry into some of the Chief Parallelisms and Contrasts between Christianity and the Religious Systems of the Ancient World. By the late Ven. Archdeacon Hardwick. Edited, with Memoir, by the Rev. F. Procter, M.A. Third Edition, in one volume crown 8vo, $3.

"Probably no work has ever appeared upon the subject more thorough and scholarly and sound than that prepared and put forth by Archdeacon Hardwick. It shows the true position of Christianity in relation to other religions—not all of them, it is true, but those which have already received the allegiance of such large numbers as to merit the honor of being considered representative systems. . . . We have, therefore, always considered this work of Archdeacon Hardwick as especially satisfactory—one which, because of its thoroughness in plan and execution, will never lose its value."—*The Churchman.*

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE* English People. By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. With Genealogical and Chronological Tables, and Colored Maps. Crown 8vo, $2.

"I think Mr. Green's 'Short History of the English People' admirably suited for students in the universities and for higher classes in schools. The object of the book, that of combining the history of the people with the history of the kingdom, is most successfully carried out, especially in the earlier part. It gives, I think, in the main, a true and accurate picture of the general course of English history. It displays throughout a firm hold on the subject, and a singularly wide range of thought and sympathy. As a composition, too, the book is clear, forcible, and brilliant. It is the most truly original book of the kind that I ever saw."—*Extract from a letter of Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., etc., author of 'The History of the Norman Conquest of England.'*

### NEW BOOKS.

*SCANDINAVIAN HISTORY.* By Elise C. Otlé. With Maps. Globe 8vo, $2 50.

*TALES IN POLITICAL ECON-* omy. By Millicent Garrett Fawcett. Globe 8vo, $1.

*THE THREE DEVILS,* Luther's, Milton's, Goethe's. With other Essays. By David Masson, LL.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*BRITISH WILD FLOWERS,* considered in Relation to Insects. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., F.R.S., etc. With numerous Illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 50. ('Nature Series.')

*MILTON'S POETICAL WORKS.* Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and an Essay on Milton's English, by David Masson, LL.D., Professor of English Literature and Rhetoric in the University of Edinburgh. With three Portraits, engraved on Steel by C. H. Jeens and Radclyffe. 3 vols. 8vo, cloth, $15.

*MILTON'S POETICAL WORKS.* (Golden Treasury Edition.) With Introduction, Notes, and Memoir, by Professor Masson. With two Portraits engraved by Jeens. 2 vols. 18mo, $3.

*A RAMBLE ROUND THE* World. By M. le Baron de Hübner, formerly Ambassador and Minister, and author of 'Sixte Quint.' Translated by Lady Herbert. 12mo, cloth extra, $2 50.

"One of the most interesting books of travel of the past year."—*Atlantic Monthly.*

*HISTORY OF THE LIFE-BOAT* and its Work. By Richard Lewis, of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law, and Secretary of the Royal National Life-Boat Institution. With Illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*BIRDS: THEIR CAGES AND* their Keep. Being a Practical Manual of Bird-Keeping and Bird-Rearing. By K. A. Briest. With colored Frontispiece and other Illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*FOR THE KING'S DUES.* By Agnes Macdonnell, author of 'Martin's Vineyard.' 12mo, cloth, $1.

*GOVINDA SAMANTA;* or, The History of a Bengal Ráiyat. By the Rev. Lal Behari Day. Chinsurah, Bengal. 12mo, $1.

"Besides writing a novel of a perfectly original character, one which even the most *blasé* frequenter of the circulating library must acknowledge to be out of the common, he has contrived to give us an immense amount of information concerning the peasantry of Bengal."—*Morning Post.*

law of Evolution, leaving "the process of Dissolution entirely out of the account" as superfluous luggage, and then at the end (ii. 368) accept it as "proved that this eternal rhythm must of necessity be manifested in alternating eras, both general and local, of Evolution and Dissolution." The law of evolution is an interesting one. It may be that it can be established inductively, though the illustrations offered by Mr. Fiske are hardly sufficient; but the admitted existence behind of an opposing and seemingly irreconcilable law of dissolution leaves the matter in a very unsatisfactory state.

These defects of plan, if such they be, are only too easily lost sight of in the beauty of the details. Most of the minor arguments are admirably stated and forcibly illustrated. The summing up of Mr. Fiske's view of the free-will question (ii. 188) shows what excellent work he can do. In so large a collection of illustrative facts there could hardly fail to be some errors, but they are few. There is an occasional over-positiveness of assertion, against which the reader must be on his guard, due in part to Mr. Fiske's not sufficiently distinguishing between verifiable theories and hypotheses accepted merely as the best explanation offered of facts which must be arranged in some way to be of any use. And this misleads him also into accusing Hume and others of assuming positive knowledge in merely rejecting hypotheses.

In religion, Cosmism is not admittedly revolutionary. It (i. 184) "assigns to religion the same place which it has always occupied, and affirms that the religious sentiment must find satisfaction, in the future as in the past, in the recognition of a power which is beyond humanity and upon which humanity depends. The existence of God—denied by Atheism and ignored by Positivism—is the fundamental postulate upon which Cosmism bases its synthesis of scientific truths." The system of unselfish morality which the utilitarians have built up, Mr. Fiske has made his own, and he disclaims any "alteration in ethical values in the grand equation between duty and action" (ii. 453). But one thing Utilitarianism lacked—a sanction; and this Christianity, and Christianity alone, has given. The personal influence of the loving Father and awful Judge has for ages guided the race through its affections and its fears. And if that belief is to fade, we cannot but watch with anxiety the substitute that is offered; and the vague awe with which we turn to this impersonal, unchangeable, unknowable Essence of Cosmism seems but ill-fitted to replace the martyr-zeal of Christianity.

## RECENT NOVELS.*

A NEW novel by Mrs. Linton will doubtless be received with interest by a large body of readers already attracted to her by that remarkable work, 'Joshua Davidson.' We believe they will, for the most part, be disappointed in the character of this successor to the candidature for public favor which the former book so successfully assumed; but, for ourselves, we are not surprised at the shortcomings of 'Patricia Kemball.' The story by which this authoress gained her chief renown was excellently conceived and consistently carried out, but the imagination in it did not extend to a genuine grasping of individual character. Joshua, Mary, and the faithful friend were composed of simple and general human qualities conveyed by other vehicles than that of distinct personality. In the more recent book, we have deliberate characterization; but, though not discreditably weak, it is seldom strikingly vigorous, and almost invariably not engaging. Patricia's figure is sketched with strength and freshness; but, like all the rest, it lacks charm. The tale, which, though moderately interesting, is not especially noteworthy for anything but good moral and intellectual tendency, is developed by methods a good deal similar to those of Miss Austen—the same slow and systematic contrasts are observed, the same satire is employed. This satire is satire reduced to its simplest terms—offended common-sense. Unlike Miss Austen, the more sagacious female novelist of to-day does not halt at the threshold of crime, but rather takes pride in her ability to assist at the operations in moral surgery which now fall to the lot of most practitioners in fiction. We do not mean to hint that Mrs. Linton is offensive, as many of her sister novelists are; but an unpleasant clandestine marriage, forgery, murder, and a hanging, result in giving the story a sombre tone, perhaps not altogether healthy. The murderer, for example, it is said, "passed through life in the odor of respectability, beloved by none, known by none, bearing ever with him the consciousness of crime and the belief in his own eternal damnation, but bowed down to by all. Was he not . . . . the wealthiest man for miles around? Does the world ask more, or seek to know more, than this?" The progress of the catastrophe is crudely managed; and it is unsatisfactory to find Patricia's young lover, who parted with her at page 54, suddenly reappearing at page 473, qualified for the marriage that immediately takes place only by the statement that "he was no longer the mere boy, but a man," etc. It will be seen by the above numerals that the book is much too long; but it has the merit of sincerity as a protest against errors of social compromise.

As a novel directly illustrative of a principle, it is very far above Mr. Hale's hasty 'New Crusade.' Mr. Hale's theory of raising drunkards to a higher life is, in brief, that "you must give them somebody else to care for worse off than they are" (p. 74), and that this can be best attempted by social co-operation: "the best men and women can do just what they choose, if they will only work together" (p. 286). Undoubtedly he is at liberty to propose this solution, and there is undoubtedly much wisdom in it, though it would be hard to say how the lowest class of all is to be provided with protégés "worse off than themselves." But we must protest against the make-believe attractive tale in which he has attempted to embody his idea. It is a concession to the prevalent mania for practical illustration. Nothing more convenient to a preacher or lecturer than a good anecdote in point; but Mr. Hale, having none at hand, manufactures one, spins it out through nearly three hundred duodecimo pages, and presents it to us as a novel. Perhaps it is an inevitable consequence that the invention should be slight and bald, and the characters—whose commonplace names are one more point in evidence of the writer's fatal facility—thinly colored and tedious. But Mr. Hale should hardly have carried his inartistic consistency so far as to throw in, after an observation of his own in the character of novelist, the statement that "this remark will displease Mrs. Howe. Still, I commend it to her serious reflection." This bit of personal allusion is quite uncalled for, and is below even the assumed dignity of fiction in which the 'New Crusade' is attired. The story, however, is of a kind that Mr. Hale, disregarding his better abilities, has of late (as in his 'Civil Servant') shown rather too ready a disposition to condescend to; and it is perhaps not worth while attempting to invest it with an importance it can hardly lay claim to by further criticism.

The author of 'Progressive Petticoats' will not, we think, find any fame accruing to him, from this his latest venture, of a kind to be envied. The design of the work is singularly simple: a fictitious Mr. Gill, after some very flat and foolish introductory matter, proceeds to relate the events that preceded the birth of each of his several children. These events all concern the particular mania which took possession of his wife, in the particular interval before the birth of each child: now it is a mania for exactitude in accounts, now for Graham bread and beans, again for the water-cure, and so on. One has misgivings, now and then, that the writer meant to be satirical; but, after all, one is relieved to find how little ground there is for such a suspicion. The sub-title of the book is purely fraudulent. Nobody is "dressed to death" in the course of the narrative, and in fact the author displays a tendency to go to the opposite extreme of suggesting nudity. There are several passages of surprising coarseness in the volume; and we should be inclined to warn all readers against disturbing themselves by any chance glimpse of its pages but for our belief that few who would be susceptible to injury from it will go beyond the first paragraphs. Mr. Roosevelt should have contented himself with the laurels of 'Five Acres Too Much,' which, though perhaps slightly faded by this time, were earned by a more honest effort than he has here put forth.

"It is somewhat incomprehensible," says the writer of 'South Meadows,' "that the delusion of witchery, which carried such consternation into New England and desolated so many homes nearly two hundred years ago, should have received so little attention at the hands of . . . the writer of fiction." We feel bound to say, for our own part, that we do not find it at all incomprehensible, and this not because we think writers of fiction have been so surprisingly wanting in judgment as this author would imply; for "nearly two hundred years" they have been singularly fortunate, as a general thing, in avoiding a subject which really offers them very few advantages, and does not at all urgently demand their treatment. Without assuming that, if the occasion here offered to the romancer is really pressing, it would inevitably have been improved before now, we may still argue that a writer like Hawthorne would have been likely to seize such an opportunity if it had existed. That he made no attempt to seize it seems to imply the check of an artistic instinct quite in accord with what would be our own view on this point, viz., that the witch-

* 'Patricia Kemball. A Novel. By E Lynn Linton, author of 'Lizzie Lorton of Greyrigg,' 'Grasp Your Nettle,' 'The True History of Joshua Davidson,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875.

'Our New Crusade. A Temperance Story. By Edward E. Hale, author of 'In His Name,' etc.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875.

'Progressive Petticoats; or, Dressed to Death. An Autobiography of a Married Man. By Robert B. Roosevelt.' New York: G. W. Carleton & Co. 1874.

'South Meadows. A Tale of Long Ago. By E. T. Disosway.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

'Caleb Kinkle. A Story of American Life. By Charles Carleton Coffin.' Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Lee, Shepard & Dillingham. 1875.

craft delusion, systematically considered as an historical episode, cannot yield satisfactory artistic results. Mr. Upham's 'Salem Witchcraft' has exposed the historic and psychological aspects of the subject to the best advantage; and the novelist who bases upon the events there treated will most probably find himself, to his own surprise, slipping quite outside of the circle of artistic suggestion. On the other hand, we do not doubt that motives may occur to him for the development of which the time and place of the witchcraft error would prove to be the best media. But the intention of "illustrating how insidiously the superstition entangled even the most intelligent minds," etc., which the author avows to be his (or her) impulse in the present instance, ensures the failure of the book, if it is to be considered as anything but a dull narrative feebly subtended by a few historical incidents and utterances.

So far as Mr. Coffin is concerned, Salem and the seventeenth century could not have led him to anything more disastrous than 'Caleb Krinkle,' the scene of which is laid in the present—a present, by the way, extravagantly conscious of itself, and very desirous to make itself agreeable to a large class of circulating-library readers. Mr. Coffin's estimate of his public's capacity, notwithstanding this desire, is not flattering. Apparently, he considers popularity something to be secured by the use of a very simple recipe: to so much "chromo" sentiment and machine-made humor, so many catastrophes, a suitable amount of bathos, an inordinate amount of love-making—the more foolish and vulgar, the better. Still, he is disposed to give his readers their money's worth in the way of stirring episode; before we are a fifth part of the way through the book we undergo two deaths, a narrow escape from drowning, a coasting accident, a runaway-horse disaster, and a freshet that displaces a house, a child, and a man, bringing the former two into the story, and carrying the latter out of it. The following is a good specimen of the author's power in the pathetic line:

"Faint and feeble now her breathing. Slower turns the mill-wheel, for the grinding is almost done. . . . The team is all but over the bridge. . . .

"'Randa, darling!'

"'Mother.'

"The wheel is still, the grinding ended, the team across the bridge, and Randa beyond the river."

The concision of statement and unity of action here are notable. To prevent misapprehension, it should be stated that Randa is not on "the team," but on her death-bed; and when Mr. Coffin says that she is "beyond the river" he only means that she has just expired. The title of the book, as if to excuse any possible silliness it may contain, announces that it is "a story of American life." This it emphatically is, in the sense of most novels that of late have laid claim to the protection of the national flag. It is American with "all the fixings," including the Western prairies. These, it is true, are handled somewhat timidly, as if Mr. Coffin's conscience had begun to reproach him at this point; but presently he applies the match and produces a prairie-fire, which little device, assisted by more death, various love-complications, villany, flight, shipwreck, and an emigrant wagon, brings the whole story happily to a close. The reading of such a book induces a despondency from which the only escape lies in reflecting upon the dreadful pangs of remorse which the author himself must suffer on seeing his production in print.

# Fine Arts.

## COLONEL MULBERRY SELLERS.

THE success of Mr. Raymond, an actor hitherto only known in minor parts, in the character of "Colonel Mulberry Sellers," deserves more than a passing notice. The "Gilded Age" is not by any means the first attempt to put American life on the stage. Were it not that a clever actor has succeeded in creating a part in it, we should almost be inclined to say it was the worst of them all—though it would be going far to say so when we recollect such of the others as "Divorce," "Saratoga," and "Women of the Day." But a play, like a tree, must be judged by its fruits, and so Mark Twain and Mr. Warner are fairly entitled to a share of the credit in this case, just as the original author and modern adapter of "Rip Van Winkle" cannot be altogether excluded from the praise of Mr. Joseph Jefferson. There are indeed in the plays of "Rip Van Winkle" and the "Gilded Age" some features, not exactly in common, which make the success of the principal actors in them quite as natural as the failure of their much more ambitious rival, the American "society play." The theory on which the latter is constructed is that there is in America a body known as "society," consisting of a small and select number of people, segregated from the crowd by peculiar customs and different if not more polished manners, who live a life apart and above the rest, who live in society, love in society, marry in society, and die in society. The kind of atmosphere which the "society" play in theory demands is that which may be found attempted in another line of art by such novels as 'Never Again.' The existence of any such society in America has always been with us a matter of grave doubt. American society consists, speaking roughly, of those who can afford it. It is not more difficult to "get into" it than it is to get rich; and it requires no very great amount of training to know how to get along in it when you have once been admitted. Manner, strictly speaking (which, every one knows, if not the life and soul of the stage, is at any rate essential to its existence), is carefully avoided, and instead of a minute code of by-laws enforced by the societies of the past, as we know them on the stage and in literature, as for instance in the "School for Scandal," in the "Rivals," or in Molière, the main object of modern society is to root these out, and to substitute for them a colorless, frank *bonhomie*, which shall express no individuality and hurt no one's feelings. It is, too, not only manner which is frowned upon, but manners as well, though for different reasons. Manner seems to us like affectation; manners are too much trouble. Besides this, there is no social nucleus in America, no central point which remains fixed from generation to generation, to set a standard and "draw the line." Families with us do not last very long as families, because we do our utmost to break them up, disintegrate their cohesion, and dissipate their property by law. There is no court, and no one ever went to Washington to learn the rules of society. In other countries, and in society as we know it from books, there is a body of social law which imposes a number of well-defined duties upon every member, and enforces these duties with the horrid sanction of public opinion; these duties consist of a certain number of definite acts and observances, every one learning what is the proper thing to be done or to be omitted in a given situation. But in a country like America, where society is in a fluctuating state, where its leaders are from generation to generation "selected" by the accumulation of wealth, or else are cases of "survival" from an older set, such precision as this is felt to be out of place, and the result is, as almost any American will be willing to admit who has ever had a foreigner travelling in this country in his care, that the most difficult thing in the world to explain is what is and what is not "permitted." But only by the difference between what is and what is not permitted do we recognize the existence of "society" in the strict sense of the word.

Add to all this that there are certain general causes at work in America which are directly hostile to "society." It has passed, in the first place, very much into the hands of the young, who go out to parties and places of amusement in large herds, being left very much to do as they please, the older people either not going out at all, or merely taking the place with regard to their children that nurses take with children of a smaller growth. The jaded American parent, as a rule, avoids society, and of course a society which is really carried on by crowds of both sexes between eighteen and twenty-five cannot have any very distinctive and marked customs. Beyond the somewhat vague desire to "have a good time," it has no particular aims or laws of any kind.

For these and other similar reasons the "society" play in this country, among those who are really fond of the stage *quâ* stage, has become a byword. It is an attempt at a dramatic representation of a kind of life which is a creature of the mind and has no real existence, and as a proof of this we need go no further than to recall the fact that the "society" play generally includes the settlement of a difficulty about one of the women by means of a duel—a custom which to nine-tenths of the audience is a purely literary one, and has no relation whatever to actual life.

Such plays as the "Gilded Age" belong to an entirely different category from those ambitious dramas which undertake to reveal to curious eyes the secrets of fashionable life at Saratoga and Long Branch, and which actually reveal only unfathomed depths of vulgarity and nonsense. Mark Twain and Mr. Warner have undertaken to give us American life as it really exists. We have here several well-known American characters—the impoverished Eastern emigrant, with his wife and children, to whom the boundless resources of the West have as yet been only the means of sinking him deeper and deeper in that sort of squalid poverty which ends in the creation of "mean whites"; we have him living on from day to day with his wife and children, in hope of a "rise"; we have the young woman of the period, who longs yearningly in the first act that she may do something to "help," and in the fourth shoots her lover at sight; we have the trial-scene, in which she is of course acquitted; and we have Colonel Sellers himself, the sanguine projector of a thousand schemes for making his own and all his friends' fortunes, the confidant of that wonderful man Senator Dilworthy, the typical speculator and American, who cares little or

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 4, 1875.*

## The Week.

CONGRESS has at last passed the Civil-Rights Bill, and the President has signed it. The bill, as passed, does not enforce mixed schools, and only secures negroes equal rights in public conveyances, inns, theatres, and other places of amusement. While the bill was on its passage in the Senate, Mr. Tipton of Nebraska moved to insert the word "churches" after the word "theatres," including the former under the head of places of amusement—a suggestion which of course brought down the galleries, though it really is not much more amusing than the bill itself. The negroes of the South, being mainly occupied in tilling the soil, or in labor of some kind, are not as a rule in the habit of travelling much from place to place; and when they do go from time to time to some local court-house or county-seat for a holiday, they are apt to move in crowds on foot, or in wagons not subject to the jurisdiction of Congress. They do not frequent hotels much, for similar reasons, and the number of theatres and opera-houses in the South is not so great as to warrant the expectation of a great advance of the race through the influence of the drama and music. Indeed, it is a harmless bill, and does not seem to have had much effect on public opinion in the South. The chief objection to it is its entire unconstitutionality, which Mr. Carpenter showed, much to the consternation of the Radical Republicans, in an able and convincing speech. Besides this, the Senate has passed the bills admitting Colorado and New Mexico as States, the bill for changing the mode of counting the votes on the Presidential ticket, the Tax and Tariff Bill, and the bill for the equalization of bounties.

---

The House has passed the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, and Judge Poland's Arkansas resolution. The Force Bill went through substantially as it came from the caucus, the only changes made being the insertion of provisions restricting the President's right to suspend the habeas corpus to the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Alabama, and limiting the operation of the habeas corpus section to "the term of two years, and from thence until the end of the next session of Congress thereafter, and no longer." The Democrats resorted to filibustering to prevent the introduction of the Force Bill, and the House had a night session in consequence, notwithstanding the new rule passed to prevent it. During the proceedings the Republicans were led by General Butler, and the Democrats by Mr. Randall, and the chair, during most of the time, was occupied by Mr. Blaine, who showed great fairness and strength in managing the House. The Louisiana resolutions introduced by Mr. Hoar's committee, one recognizing Kellogg and the other recommending the Kellogg legislature to remedy the injustice done the Conservatives, by reseating the five members expelled, have also been passed. The Louisiana Conservative caucus has accepted what is called the "Wheeler Compromise," the details of which we gave a week or two ago; and the sum and substance of which is that the Democrats shall have the House of Representatives, but that Kellogg shall not be turned out of office, but treated as the legal Governor till the end of his term. Although the means taken to arrive at this result have been somewhat extraordinary, we have no doubt whatever that it is the best arrangement that can now be made. It would put the Conservatives in a position of security, and at the same time the recognition of Kellogg is just the kind of sop to satisfy the Administration Cerberus, and can hardly make the situation at New Orleans any worse than it is now, as Kellogg is certain to be kept in office by the troops for a good while in any case.

---

The newspapers and "constitutional lawyers" who undertook two weeks ago to show that the expulsion of the five members by General De Trobriand and the soldiers was lawful and justifiable, must not now begin applauding the settlement, and pretending it is what they always recommended. It appears from the vote of the House that these five members were lawfully returned; that they had the right to sit and vote in the legislature; that in leaving their names off the roll the Returning Board acted fraudulently. It appears, too, from the recommendation to the legislature to seat them, that the legislature is the judge of the matter, and nobody else, and that the majority present on the 4th of January was alone competent to pass on their qualifications. As a matter of fact, however, their qualifications were passed on by a military officer and fifteen soldiers, called in from the street by an insubordinate minority. There never was even a semblance of right about the matter, and yet we had for some weeks to listen to a great quantity of smart *nisi-prius* sophistry; Mr. Conkling, as might have been expected, contributing fourteen columns of it, showing that the presence of the five members made the legislature a riotous mob, and authorized armed interference with its proceedings. The persons and journals who treated us to this will, however, now go about looking as wise as ever, wagging their heads and giving advice, in full reliance on the popular forgetfulness. But ought folly of this sort, which it is no exaggeration under the circumstances to call criminal, to be forgotten in a month or two?

---

One of the most remarkable circumstances attending the passage of the Force Bill is the fact that two-thirds of the majority which passed it is composed of members who are to go out of political life on the 4th of March. Another is that they have deliberately empowered the President to suspend the habeas corpus in one State, Arkansas, which the House has actually decided, after enquiry, to be peaceable and orderly. Moreover, when recently some so-called Union soldiers signed a paper confirming the hap-hazard account given by General Sheridan of the disorderly condition of the State and the prevalence of "murders," Governor Garland promptly directed the district-attorney to hunt up the signers, and bring them before the grand jury, to testify on oath about the "outrages" of which they professed to have knowledge. This was done, but before the grand jury they had no knowledge of anything whatever. They had *heard tell* of "murders and outrages," and presumed they must have occurred; but this was all. What makes the conduct of the majority all the worse is that Brooks and his set, for whose restoration by force of arms the Shepherd clique and the President are laboring, are the same gang who performed the feats of plunder on the State treasury which we described three weeks ago, and who are now anxious to go back to their work. The comic feature in the matter is Butler's professions of philanthropy and of reliance on an overruling Providence—not that there is anything amusing in his cant and hypocrisy, but in his belief that it affects the public mind.

---

The Mississippi majority report declares that shortly after the election of Crosby as sheriff of Warren County a taxpayers' league was formed for the purpose of correcting abuses in the administration of public trusts; that subsequently, however, another organization made its appearance, which was undoubtedly a branch of the White Leaguers, its object being to prevent negroes from holding office in any case; that this White League captured the taxpayers' organization, and then began their work by patrolling the streets of Vicksburg, going to registration in armed bodies, etc., etc.; that society is in a disorganized state, and that Governor Ames was amply justified in applying for troops, and the President in furnishing them. The minority report, on the other hand, states that the white citizens in Vicksburg pay 99 per cent. of the taxes; that the negroes assess, collect, and disburse them; that the debt of the city, which in 1869 was $13,000, is now $1,400,000, the population being 11,000;

that a "corrupt and infamous ring," in collusion with Peter Crosby' the sheriff and tax-collector, got hold of the city, and rendered the administration of justice impossible; that Cardozo, the leader of the ring, being indicted, the judge of one of the courts—as we understand it, the court which was to try him—publicly pronounced it a case of "persecution"; that the taxpayers' league had no partisan objects; that Crosby's bonds were utterly insufficient; that the supervisors corruptly declined to compel him to give good bonds; that the taxpayers had therefore no remedy but to request Crosby's resignation; that his resignation was voluntary; that the fight on December 7th was solely caused by the negroes, incited by Crosby, attempting to invade the city; that the whites only defended themselves against an attack; that there is no White League in Mississippi; that the call of the Governor for troops was based on untrue statements; and that, Crosby having resigned, and Flanagan being elected and in peaceable possession of the office, he was marched out at the point of the bayonet by United States troops.

---

The Alabama Committee is also divided in opinion, and is, indeed, an excellent example of the *reductio ad absurdum* in politics. The majority say that the condition of the State is terrible; that the blacks are slaughtered whenever they show themselves in the neighborhood of the polls; that the whites who vote the Republican ticket are lucky if they escape with "ostracism"; that, when an election occurs, the State is invaded by piratical repeaters from Georgia, armed to the teeth, no doubt, who make law a mockery, justice a farce, and the voice of the people an empty echo of the rebel yell. On the other hand, the minority report that the State is in a condition of profound peace; that the negroes are happy and contented; that there are no more outrages done and no more need of troops than in Missouri or California. The report also discusses at length the stories of Mr. Charles Hays, which made so much noise last fall; these, the majority say, are substantially corroborated by the evidence, and the minority say are a bundle of lies. The minority complain of the majority for not letting the committee go into the "bacon-intimidation" branch of the subject; and, finally, the majority declare that nothing will pacify Alabama short of the Force Bill, and the bill was actually passed under the supervision of this remarkable committee.

---

Colorado and New Mexico will, it is hoped by Republicans, send four strict party men to the Senate, and thus make the party a little more sure than it can be said to be at present of having a working majority in that body to act with the President. In passing the bill admitting these States, the Senate amended it so as to require constitutions which shall contain no distinctions in political or civil rights founded on race or color; and the fate of the bill is still undecided. The senatorial elections are all over, with the exception of one vacancy from Louisiana, and they have decidedly changed the political complexion of that body. The Boston *Journal*, which is not usually lukewarm when there are figures to be counted, classifies the Senate as Republicans, forty-three; Democrats, twenty-eight; Liberals, two—thus giving the Republicans a majority of thirteen. But the *Journal* admits that in this majority are to be found four or five Republicans like Ferry of Connecticut, Cameron of Wisconsin, and Christiancy of Michigan, who have been elected by the aid of Democratic votes. Still, it thinks there is little reason to doubt there being a party majority. The difficulty, however, with this sort of a working majority now is, that no one, even of its own members, knows exactly what it is going to work for or what it is going to work against, nor in many cases would it be able to know whether it was for or against a measure until it was first decided by a majority vote whether the measure was, strictly speaking, Democratic or Republican. The fact is that, for the average politician, his business is at present a good deal "mixed"; and those statesmen who have not guided their steps by the light of duty and the moral law are now in a dreadful quandary as to whether they shall move backwards or forwards, or in what direction.

The Pacific-Mail Committee's report, said to have been drawn up by Mr. Kasson of Iowa, is quite mild in its language, and hardly recommends anything, except that Bill King be prosecuted for perjury as soon as he can be caught. Schumaker, they think, ought to be made to remember what he did with the $300,000 or so entrusted to his care, and the committee seem to be of the opinion, in which the public appears to agree, that they have not found out much after all. The most sensible thing they do is to recommend the passage of a bill to regulate lobbying at Washington, to put a stop to the possibility of unauthorized adventurers swarming about the Capitol, or at any rate thronging the committee-rooms, and not in reality representing any one, but talking for or against measures with money in them on the chance of getting some of it by means of promises and threats. Lobbying, in the sense of preparing facts and arguments, in the interest of private persons, with regard to pending measures, is a regular and unavoidable branch of the public business, and must continue to be so as long as legislatures have the right to pass private bills; and the way to improve the tone of it is by subjecting it to restrictions and regulations, by making it a business in which decent men can engage without dishonor or discredit. Irwin, the agent and distributer of the Pacific-Mail money, is now "recuperating" from the effects of his hard winter, and has written to a friend that he needs "a few days' absolute rest," now that "that wretched investigation has ended its persecution." He announces that he is going into the country, "where there are neither newspapers nor telegrams, nor Congress nor directors; where the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest," and adds, "I suppose Rufus and his gang will howl. Let them for a week. I am tired of having 38,500,000 people sitting on my head, and I must have a few days' rest."

---

Senator Jones has asked the opinion of Mr. David A. Wells as to the Reciprocity Treaty with the Hawaiian Islands. Mr. Wells carefully investigated the subject when he was Special Commissioner of the Revenue, and in his opinion the treaty ought not to pass, being in effect a measure to take a million or so annually out of the Treasury, now paid as duties on sugar, and hand it over to the American sugar-planters on the islands. The principal import from the islands to this country is sugar, and the treaty proposes to admit this free, and in return to admit to the islands all kinds of manufactured articles from the United States.

---

The *Financial Chronicle* sums up the defects of the Tax Bill, by showing that it does not fulfil its original purpose, as it does not designate the specific use to which the money raised by it is to be appropriated; that it has been creating general alarm and uneasiness, by causing uncertainty as to what articles it would finally reach, the debates and votes on it in the House bearing a striking resemblance to the discussions of the opéra-bouffe; and that, by taxing an enormous number of articles for the mere purpose of raising $35,000,000, it increases the complication of the tariff, and thus harasses the honest trader more than it helps the Treasury. When we consider, too, that this important duty of providing for the wants of the Treasury was left until the last days of the session, its consideration being postponed for such futile measures as the Civil-Rights Bill; that, when it did come up, it was debated and amended as if it were a huge joke, and that the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means finally got it passed in its present shape by a sort of trick, more people than ever will ask whether some means cannot be devised for saving the business of this great commercial country from the kind of men whom some constituencies persist in sending to Congress.

---

Since we spoke last week of the desirableness of calling Mr. Henry C. Bowen as a witness in the Tilton-Beecher case, that gentleman has published a card in reply to the denunciation of him by Beecher's counsel, in his opening speech, as a participant in an alleged conspiracy got up against Beecher by Tilton and Moul-

ton. In this card, he declares his readiness to testify, and reveals considerable hostility to the Beecher side, and, abandoning all disguise, boldly announces his disbelief in the doctrine "that lying is justifiable under certain circumstances." We are informed since last week that though both sides have subpœnaed him, the reason why neither has called him is, that, with his accustomed shrewdness, he refuses to make known what he will say if placed on the stand. This reticence naturally makes him "a shape of dread" both to plaintiff and defendant. Now, however, that Beecher's counsel have openly declared war against him, it is reasonable to suppose that he will appear among Tilton's rebutting witnesses, and though we cannot honestly say that we consider him successful as a religious teacher, and much doubt whether he "saves" any perceptible number of "wicked men" in the conduct of his business, we feel sure that as a rebutter he will make his mark.

---

The process of unification which Bismarck is carrying on in Germany is likely to receive powerful aid from the new Imperial German Bank, which the German Parliament has just established, and which is to go into operation on the first of next January. It bears in its objects a remarkable resemblance to Mr. Chase's National Banking scheme, but goes much further, as might be expected, in the direction of Governmental control, for it is really rather a political than a commercial machine. A few of the existing state banks—thirty-two, we believe, in all—are still left the privilege of issuing notes within their own districts, but in a few years even these will have disappeared, and the Imperial Bank alone will then supply the paper currency of the Empire. The capital of the Bank is to be $30,000,000, and its operations, besides of course receiving deposits, are to be dealing in bullion, discounting three-months bills, with two good names, lending money on state or municipa stocks, with a margin of twenty-five per cent. of their current value, and, in the case of foreign-government securities, of fifty per cent.; and the bank is to have the power of summary sale of the securities, without notice, in case of non-payment on the day named. All the Government does for the bank is to guarantee $70,000,000 of the paper issue, and exempt it from taxation; but it reserves the control of the whole establishment, and is to exercise it through a board of four commissioners, and these are to be absolutely subject to the order of the Chancellor of the Empire. The shareholders are to be allowed to give their advice at meetings, and through a permanent committee, but it is open to the directors not to take it—a privilege of which these gentlemen will, doubtless, freely avail themselves. The check on overissues of notes consists in a heavy tax, to be levied on borrowers in the form of discount. In this and all the rest of the great mass of centralizing legislation in which the Imperial Government has been forced to engage, the specialists who so abound in Germany have been freely used in drafting bills and preparing reports. Nothing has been left to "the rule of thumb." When a law is wanted, all the leading students or practitioners in that particular field are called on to aid in preparing it, and it is turned over in every conceivable way by statisticians, lawyers, and professors before being presented. Barbarians and blatherskites are not allowed to take hold of the legislation of a civilized people, and "go it blind" to "help the party," or "ease the market," or "move the crops."

---

The city of Paris has been inviting subscriptions to a four and a-half per cent. loan of $44,000,000; and, as it was offered on the popular plan, which came into so much favor under the Empire—that is, of receiving subscriptions directly from all persons willing to take one or more bonds, instead of making a contract with a syndicate of bankers and leaving them to retail it at a profit—the subscriptions amounted to forty-two and a-half times the amount required, so that the money deposited on account vastly exceeded the loan. But the result is disappointing to the city in some ways. It shows, in the first place, that the municipal credit is so good that the bonds might have been offered at a much higher figure, and it makes quite certain what has been long suspected, that "popular loans" do not always reach the people. They are now subscribed for on so great a scale that, in order to get what you want, if you want more than one bond, you have to ask for as much more as you think the bids will go beyond the amount of the loan. In the present case, for instance, people calculated that the loan would be covered twenty times, so that a man wishing to get five bonds sent in his application for one hundred, and, as each application has to be backed by a deposit, the amount of money one had to let lie, without interest, pending the assortment of the bids, was very great. This state of facts has become so well known that small capitalists no longer bid, and the business of "popularizing" has fallen into the hands of middlemen, who bid lavishly and afterwards sell at a premium, so that the state does not get the benefit which formerly accrued under the old system from competition between bankers, and the people do not get the bonds free of the banker's commission. It has now come to light that the popular plan was tried in 1818 under the Restoration, when the loan offered was covered eleven times over; but it was then discovered that much of the bidding was, as now, speculative, and the plan was abandoned until Louis Napoleon revived it in 1854 as a feature of the Imperial system. We have probably seen the last of it.

---

Twenty-three of the German Catholic bishops have signed a joint declaration in reply to the circular despatches of Prince Bismarck of May, 1872, of which we recently gave a summary, relating to the necessity for the interference of the great Powers in the election of the next Pope, owing to the reduction of the bishops to the position of mere tools and "employés" by the Vatican Decrees. The German bishops now stoutly deny the assumptions of the circular. They say that the Pope is still, as always, Bishop of Rome, and not bishop of every other city and diocese, but is "chief of all bishops," as he has always been, and as such is obliged to see to the proper administration of every diocese. But there is nothing in the enactments of the Vatican Council to justify the assertion that he has become an absolute sovereign; he cannot "change the ordained constitution of the church," etc., etc. The Catholic dioceses are governed now as they were before the Council met, and the bishops deplore the adoption by the German Government of the construction put upon the Decrees by the Old-Catholic and Protestant theologians, and end by protesting solemnly against any attempt to interfere with the Papal election.

---

The finances of the Austro-Hungarian Empire are in a bad way, or, rather, those of Hungary are. When the new political organization was set up in 1867, it was agreed that Hungary should contribute thirty and Austria seventy per cent. of the revenue needed for common uses. Since then, Austria has made such exertions as she had never made before in her history to make ends meet. She began by a piece of repudiation in 1867, which we noticed at the time; but she also began a steady process of reduction in her usual annual deficits. In 1868, she had a deficit of $16,860,000, but she gradually overcame this, and in 1872 had a surplus for the first time in a century. In 1873, she had a panic from overtrading, but is recovering from it, and is steadily keeping her head above water. The Hungarians, on the other hand, having less financial experience, and being full of eagerness to share in the material prosperity of the Western world, and a little intoxicated with the joy of their political liberation, launched into heavy expenses. They set up an imposing administrative machine, bought up the feudal rights of the nobility for the benefit of the peasantry, and began an expensive scheme of "internal improvements," particularly railroads; and the result is that there is now an annual and increasing deficit, which there does not seem to be enough financial ability in the Reichstag to cope with. The expedient most talked of is a sale of the public domains, which are supposed to be worth $300,000,000, but it would take twenty-five years to dispose of them satisfactorily.

## POWER WITHOUT RESPONSIBILITY.

THE *Evening Post* has advocated in a large number of articles, of which we cannot do more than recall the general drift, the expediency of convening the new Congress on the 5th of March, immediately after the dissolution of the old one, so that the Democrats might be forthwith charged with the responsibilities of legislation and, as the phrase is, "be forced to show their hand." We questioned the value of this suggestion early in December, on the ground that the delay between the end of the present Congress and the meeting of the next "would prove a salutary obstacle to much needless and partisan activity," and we do not think anything has since occurred to lessen the force of our objection. On the contrary, we think the events of the last three months have strengthened it. The defect in the law which this winter's experience has revealed or made prominent is not the fact that the new Congress cannot meet until December, but the fact that the old Congress continues to sit and legislate after the majority in it has suffered defeat at the polls, or, in other words, has received notice that it has lost the confidence of the country. If the late election had given the Democrats complete possession of the Government, it might, on the English theory, be urged with a great deal of force that the party which had acceded to power should be immediately compelled to assume the responsibility of exercising it; that is, if the elections of last fall had given us a Democratic President and Senate as well as a Democratic House, or had even given us a Democratic House and Senate, there would be a manifest propriety in compelling the party to take upon itself at once the business of legislation and administration. But under our system, whether rightly or wrongly, but as we think rightly, the defeat of the party in power at the polls does not involve the immediate transfer of power to the victor. Therefore, even if Congress met in March, the Democrats could not take possession of the Government. They could neither legislate nor administer in accordance with their own ideas; they could only resolve and investigate. They would not have the sense of responsibility which comes from the actual possession of authority, and would, therefore, not really "show their hands." They would probably say a great many things they did not mean, and threaten a great many things they never intended to carry out; and although their talk might be harmless, it might also be mischievous, as the talk of men who have no responsibility for what they say is very apt to be. It might have a very disturbing effect on the business world. It might affect the public credit unfavorably, and might excite mischievous expectations at the South. In fact, there is at the present juncture only one thing which, as it seems to us, can *certainly* be said in favor of a meeting in March, and that is, that if, as is positively affirmed in many quarters, and as his Arkansas message does in some degree indicate, the President has put himself in the hands of advisers like "Boss" Shepherd, who are in their turn the cronies of the Southern carpet-baggers and jobbers, it would seem desirable that the House should be in session to watch him during the coming six months, or should meet long enough to put some moral restraint, at least, on his use of the army for the purpose of pushing his own fortunes or those of his more desperate followers.

With these reserves, we think it can hardly be denied that the prearranged slowness with which power is transferred from one party to another is a very salutary feature in the American system. It takes from ten to fifteen years now to beat the party in power at the polls under the ordinary process of discussion, and two years after it is beaten to get the reins of government out of its hands. And that which makes it difficult for a party to obtain power is what makes it difficult for it to lose it. The arrangement of the Government machinery is such that the Executive and each House of the legislature have to be captured in succession before the opposition can obtain the reward of its striving, and this can only be accomplished by a thorough conquest of public opinion. A passing gust of popular feeling, roused by this or that incident, is not sufficient. Nothing is sufficient but settled and widespread conviction, and settled and widespread conviction can only be produced by some stirring principle or far-reaching policy. The result is that when a party gets into power, as long as it seems really faithful to the principle or really engaged in carrying out the policy, its mistakes or shortcomings on minor points do not seriously injure it with the public, or only injure it slowly. The process of alienation goes on almost tediously, and is often almost imperceptible until it is complete; but, when this point is reached, the burst of opposition is apt to be very vehement and irresistible, particularly as it is apt to be precipitated by unbearable excesses on the part of the men in authority. Anybody who will study the history of the closing years of the last Democratic Administration, and compare them with what is now going on in Washington in the Republican party, will find abundant proof and illustration of all this. Now, we hold it to be a wise and prudent thing that the majority, when it is in this paroxysm of indignation and disgust, should not be able all of a sudden to have its way—that it should have to wait and reflect, and see whether things are really as bad as they seem, and whether the first wild remedies suggested by the iniquities of hardened and audacious partisans are real or only apparent remedies. Much as we condemn the performances of the Republican party at the South, shocking as many of them have recently been, we are glad that the new Congress is to be obliged to think over them for a year before dealing with them. Questions over which eight or ten millions of voters are excited are and must always be weighty questions—questions which will both tax the understanding and kindle the imagination; and it is of the greatest importance that they should in the last resort be approached cautiously, and treated in cold blood. Where should we be, for instance, if every time a two-year craze like the Granger movement sprang up it was possible to sweep the whole Government into support of it, before discussion and experiment had time to test and analyze it, and find out whether it sprang from a passing fantasy or from a real grievance?

But there is one feature in the present state of the law for which there is really no excuse, and which, in view of what is going on at Washington, it is no exaggeration to call scandalous—we mean the persistence of the majority in legislating actively on subjects with regard to which it has received formal notice that it no longer possesses the confidence of the public. There is nothing to be said in defence of this on any theory of responsibility, and a more glaring illustration of its evils could hardly be offered than is now to be witnessed in Washington. Here we see a body of men wielding all the power of the Government months after they have been dismissed from office, and therefore under no proper sense of responsibility to anybody. Take the case of Butler, for instance, who has been during the last week acting as "leader" in an attempt to carry a measure making unprecedented and reckless changes in the administration of the Government. He has been turned out of his seat; he hardly expects to get back into political life, and is, therefore, under no restraint whatever from any quarter, and really at this moment has no constituency; but this fact, instead of moderating his legislative activity, increases it; and his case is that of a large proportion of his colleagues. Of the 134 members who voted for the Force Bill, 96 have lost their seats, and are now irresponsible political adventurers. The majority of those who have not been returned are really acting as if the opinion of the voters had nothing to do with giving them their power, and ought not to influence their manner of exercising it, and as if the formal withdrawal of popular confidence operated as a general license to commit any excesses they pleased. It would be difficult to conceive of a more demoralizing spectacle, or one better calculated to make incoming legislators reckless and unscrupulous, and to increase the insensibility to public opinion, already so strong at Washington, which is so hurtful to rational legislation, and which is apt to result to a greater or less extent from the admission of a long interval of time between the casting of the vote and its effect on the Government. We would even admit that the political apathy on the part of the mass of the people, of which so much complaint is made, is largely due to the same cause. A man who does not see his bullet strike for two years is apt to lose his interest in the shooting; but then the

choice of all political methods is, in the present state of human nature, apt to turn on a comparison of disadvantages; not one is perfect. The reform in the relations between the people and Congress which is now most plainly called for would seem to be, not the sudden admission of the new majority to power, but the exclusion of the old one from the unwarrantable exercise of it. Such a body as the House has been during the present session is an anomaly which no free state ought to permit, for it has nothing either to fear or hope from the people which elected it.

## RHETORICAL TRAINING.

THE extraordinary, and we believe unprecedented, spectacle to which the public has been treated within the last few days, of an advocate in an important cause opening his case to the jury by reading a manuscript to them through the working hours of a whole week, has called forth more or less remark from the press, but not nearly as much as it merits; for it is not an isolated fact. It is, as everybody who is in the habit of paying much attention to our public speaking cannot but feel, one of the signs of a tendency of considerable moment, to which we must beg the attention of those who are just now concerning themselves with the training of young men in the art of persuasion.

There has been within a few years a good deal of discussion at Harvard College—and, for aught we know, at other colleges—over the necessity of bestowing more attention on instruction in rhetoric, or, in other words, in the art of expressing one's self fluently and correctly in public; and some people—among others, the gentlemen who have of late busied themselves in getting up what are called "intercollegiate contests in oratory"—have been fearing that the neglect of this branch of education in our great institutions of learning was going to work serious evils, by lessening the influence of educated men in public life. Now, we venture to assert that the faculty of fluent speech in public was never in so flourishing a condition as it is at this moment in the United States; that the number of persons capable of making a respectable off-hand speech, on the stump or after dinner, was never so great, in proportion to population, as it is now; and that this faculty grows steadily, and is, indeed, so widely prevalent, and seems to come so naturally, that it is not unreasonable to set it down now as an inherited trait of the race. The English shyness and awkwardness and hesitation which, it is fair to suppose, the original settlers brought with them to this country, have certainly disappeared among their descendants. The American of our day is in short a natural orator; he carries himself becomingly and gracefully, and can almost always find something to say if suddenly called on, and can say it in clear and appropriate language. Moreover, the circumstances of the country are such that a stimulus of the most powerful kind to the acquisition of rhetorical fluency is applied to every one as soon as he is twenty. The nature of the Government, the extensive use of co-operation in all sorts of enterprises, the widespread passion for "listening to a few remarks," created by the diffusion of education, and the difficulty of any mode of securing personal influence or popularity except through the tongue—all force men of energy and ambition into the practice of oratory. Nowhere, in short, is preliminary training in this field during one's boyhood so unnecessary, or, as many think—and we ourselves among the number—so likely to prove hurtful.

There are, on the other hand, facts which it seems at first blush difficult to reconcile with the foregoing. First of all, there is the fact that in the legislative bodies of no country in the world does oratory produce so little effect as in this one. It is hardly ever known to change a vote, and the occasions are rare, are becoming rarer, when it is listened to by either friends or foes. Nearly all our legislators, indeed, when they speak, address themselves to their constituents rather than to their fellow-members. This anomaly is, however, largely due to the action of the press and to the working of party machinery, and perhaps only in a small degree to the quality of the oratory. But, secondly—and it is to this we wish more particularly to direct attention—there can hardly be a doubt that, *pari passu* with the increase of readiness in speaking on ordinary occasions, there has grown up a want of readiness in speaking on extraordinary occasions, and an inclination, as in the Brooklyn case, to substitute a written essay or "statement" for a genuine speech. One is apt to infer from a man's skill in after-dinner or other festive oratory, or from his fluency on the stump, that he can also rise to the height of a great argument, and can, at a crisis calling for the exertion of all his oratorical powers, bring them into play. But, we think, most people's experience will corroborate our assertion when we say that the disinclination or inability to make speeches on serious or weighty subjects not chosen by themselves, or indeed to attempt any momentous piece of persuasion, increases among the most practised post-prandial and stump speakers. Every one, of course, knows what the "great speech" of the average Congressman has become. It is usually a diffuse written essay, full of quotations, often far-fetched and sometimes absurd, which he expects few people to listen to, and only lets off that he may get it printed. But the speaker out of doors is fast following his example, and refusing to encounter the risks and labors of real oratory. If you let him select his own theme, and ask him only to be light or gay and entertaining, he will often do wonders to please you. But if you ask him to face an audience on some really important emergency, when he is to bear the burden of a great cause whose fortunes his words are really expected to make or to mar, in ninety cases out of one hundred he will not trust himself either to think on his legs or to recall on his legs the results of past thinking. He will not even rely on notes, but will extract from his coat-tails with much solemnity a treatise of greater or less dimensions, and read it to you in his best manner. The newspapers are partly to blame for this state of things by their courtesy in giving the name of "speeches" to what are really essays—another illustration of the evil results of inaccurate language.

The practice has been growing steadily for a good many years. To say who invented it, or, rather, gave it dignity, might lead to acrimonious discussion; but when it has invaded the bar—which is the oratorical profession *par excellence*—and when a jury are bored and the time of the court wasted and the advocate's privileges abused by the reading of an essay which might have been printed and distributed as a pamphlet, it is time to say that the practice ought to stop, that judges ought not to permit it, that the public ought to discountenance it, and that the educators of young men ought to consider seriously what leads to it.

What leads to it seems to us tolerably plain. It is not want of fluency, or aplomb, or skill in the use of language; for these, as we have seen, are very common, and are encouraged by all conditions of our social and political life. It is, as we believe, the want of that good mental training which enables a man both to think clearly and to classify and store away his knowledge in such a way that he can produce it promptly when he wants it. No dexterity in the use of words will make a man an orator without this, or make oratory an art much more respectable than comic singing. It is the want of it, and nothing else, which drives all these ready speakers to their manuscript. The minute they are called on for a display of their highest powers, on a subject which circumstances have forced on them, and with which the gravity of the occasion will not allow them to trifle, the easy assurance of the dessert-table and platform then vanishes completely, and the persuader becomes all of a sudden as little of an orator as anybody, and as helpless as if he had never faced an audience before.

The remedy lies not in setting young men to spout in public, before they have learnt to think—and when their ideas are, in the main, merely detached memories of books—on subjects to which they themselves take some light fancy, but in training them in the art of reasoning, in the arrangement of materials, in the quick perception of relations, and in penetrating to the heart of knotty questions and extracting essential facts. This is the proper work of education; the fluency, if it be not constitutionally wanting, is sure to come afterwards in this country; and the gentlemen who are so laboriously getting up the "intercollegiate contests," and some

of those who are occupying themselves about the rhetoric in colleges, are, as it seems to us, vexing their brains over the question whether a duck will swim when it gets to water. What we all need is not more glibness or assurance, for of these most of us have as much as is good for us, but well-ordered brains, which will stand us in good stead on great occasions as well as on small, and make us weighty as well as brilliant. Of the results of purely rhetorical training there is a melancholy example now to be witnessed in the case in which Mr. Tracy has just been reading his pamphlet. Upon certain natures its effects seem almost as baneful as those of excessive alcohol; as destructive of manliness, of simplicity, and of power, as productive of fatuous conceit and self-worship. It is almost certain to produce, too, love of notoriety; and when once this takes possession of a rhetorician, it consumes him utterly.

## SIR CHARLES LYELL.

THE telegraph announces the death of Sir Charles Lyell on Monday, February 22. His name is not less inseparably connected with the progress and, we might almost say, the completion of a great revolution in geological science (though less conspicuously connected with it) than the greater names in astronomy are with similar periods of transition in that science. The establishment of geology as a strictly inductive or positive science was in a great measure due to the early, clear, and steady conception of true method in its pursuit, which Sir Charles Lyell's works have done more to expound and promulgate than all other geological publications in this century. It would be difficult to estimate how much of the patient, soberly-directed labor of the modern army of geological explorers has been inspired by his researches and the influence of his teachings; but it is clear that the position early won by him through his writings and observations was a most important one for the guidance of a movement in which, from its magnitude and need of many leaders, no master-mind could by wisdom or energy have attained to such relative rank as has been won by genius in lesser movements of scientific progress. Lyell was born in 1797, at a time when the principles of sound method in geology were just beginning to be adequately appreciated. In that year Playfair published his illustrations of Hutton's geological theories, which as completed and amended may be said to have determined the chief line of progress in this century. Ten years later, in 1807, the Geological Society of London was founded. Of this body Lyell was made president at an early age in 1836–7, and again in 1850–1. He had published the first edition of his 'Principles of Geology' in 1832. The eleven editions of this work, of which the last appeared in 1872, and the seven editions of his 'Elements of Geology,' the last in 1871, may be regarded as chronicles of a progress of which he was the principal historian and a chief actor. Narratives of two visits to the United States, one for geological observation and the second for social as well as geological studies, were published in 1841 and 1845.

The publication in 1863 of his work on the 'Antiquity of Man' marks an interesting *dénoûment* of the great movement with which his lifetime was almost coincident, and with which his name and work are inseparably joined. At the end of the last century, the transmutation or development theory was independently and almost simultaneously proposed by three great thinkers, Goethe, Geoffroy St. Hilaire, and Erasmus Darwin. Its final triumph in our day was almost a direct consequence of the principles adopted by Lyell from Hutton and the Huttonians, and urged so clearly and effectively by him in his 'Principles.' Yet Lyell—and this was an interesting exhibition of a worthy trait of his mind—resisted the theory of development for a long time; until after the publication of that most remarkable book of the century, Darwin's 'Origin of Species.' He showed in the early editions of his 'Principles' a decided, though just and appreciative, opposition to Lamarck's theories; and it thus happened that Lyell was one of the few veterans in science who were converted from their older views by Mr. Darwin's arguments. Though nearly seventy years of age, he showed the genuineness of his conversion by rewriting in the tenth edition of his 'Principles' the chapter on the development theory, and other matters relating to it. This change gives his masterpiece a greater logical completeness and coherency than it had ever had before, and redounded to his credit in this way quite as much as in the exhibition it gave of his openness of mind to scientific arguments, or of the moderation of the conservatism which characterized him as a true English Liberal.

Hutton, the knowledge and practice of whose principles Lyell did so much to extend, was the first to declare that geology was in no wise concerned "with questions as to the origin of things." By "origin" was then meant the origin of the natures which things have and their first introduction in the theatre of the world. That cosmology should have been so far banished in half a century from zoölogical conceptions that Mr. Darwin could use, without incurring serious misunderstanding, the title 'Origin of Species' for his great work, is evidence of the progress made. "Origin" has now come to mean the coming to pass of anything in the course of events, and is concerned only with how things go on from one determinate appearance to another. "In the economy of the world," said Hutton, "I can find no traces of a beginning, no prospect of an end"; "a declaration," Lyell remarks, "the more startling when coupled with the doctrine that all past changes in the globe had been brought about by the slow agency of existing causes." But Lyell was not free at the outset, nor for a long time, from another misleading scholastic conception which scientific progress has also nearly banished, namely, the scholastic meaning of the word "species." From his deference to the authority of leading minds in systematic natural history he attributed to the authority of their observations what was only involved in a received meaning of a word, namely, that a species was only properly so called because it exhibited invariable characters, and yet that the word was applicable to actual existences. These naturalists, with this meaning in their minds, applied the name to existing and past organic races, implicitly asserting thereby more than their authority as observers could warrant. The word now means not an absolute, but only a comparative fixity of character, so that in Darwin's treatise both words of the title, 'Origin of Species,' appear with modern unscholastic meanings. But this was in great measure due to the influence of the doctrines and methods which Lyell has done so much to promulgate. In perfect sympathy with the scientific aspirations of earlier Italian geologists to explain the phenomena of the earth's formations "without violence, without fictions, without hypotheses, without miracles," he early perceived the value of scientific societies devoted to the patient collection of data for science, and principled against the premature speculation of theories. The Geological Society of London was such an institution, in which no "theories of the earth," as they were called, were tolerated. Such institutions, like the monastic refuges for culture of old, were securities to scientific observation against the vanity and ferocity of scholastic disputation.

Among the many graphic and instructive illustrations of geological changes from slowly-working natural causes, Lyell gives an account of a great flood at Tivoli, in 1826, in which the "headlong stream," as Horace had called it, the Anio, produced the most destructive effects; the flood coming "within two hundred yards of the precipice on which the beautiful temple of Vesta stands. But fortunately, this precious relic of antiquity was spared, while the wreck of modern structures was hurled down the abyss." Vesta, the goddess of the hearth, was the mythological representative of the stability of the earth; and when Aristarchus, the Samian astronomer, first taught the Pythagorean doctrine of the earth's motion on its axis and around the sun, he was publicly accused of impiety, for "moving the everlasting Vesta from her place." Lyell is reminded by this coincidence of Playfair's remark, that when "Hutton ascribed instability to the earth's surface, and represented the continents which we inhabit as the theatre of incessant change and movement, his antagonists, who regarded them as unalterable, assailed him in a similar manner with accusations founded on religious prejudices." There appears to be a strong natural association of religious feeling with the idea of stability; and three wrongly consecrated stabilities—that of the earth, that of its continents, and that of its forms of life—have one after another given way to the progress of knowledge, and, though with obstinate resistance from religious sentiment, the changes have taken place without permanent injury to religion.

It is in Lyell's character as a scholar and writer, however, quite as much as in that of thinker and observer, that his influence has been and will be felt. His style reveals the man in its calm, clear, scholarly spirit of accuracy. His sentences win confidence and disarm prejudice by their entire freedom from overstatement and advocacy. The man revealed by the style is a model of the qualities in mind and character which distinguish the highest modern social and scientific culture. A tender regard, akin to reverence—to reverence without servility—toward established standards of custom and opinion, kept him, while a Liberal in politics, religion, and science, very far from radicalism in any direction. He was a warm friend of America, and, during his two visits to this country, endeared to him many personal friends. He was married to a lady whose father was also distinguished in geology, Mr. Leonard Horner, formerly a president of the Geological Society, and especially distinguished in the annals of science for the researches for a chronological standard in geology in his examination of the age of the deposits of the Nile mud. Lady Lyell, whom death removed

from her illustrious husband two years ago, had been to him a most devoted and efficient helpmate, through powers and interests trained in the same direction, and by an amiability akin to his own. Sir Charles Lyell was born in Scotland, educated at Exeter College, Oxford, and called to the bar. He was knighted in 1848, and was created a baronet in 1864.

## ENGLAND.—THE COMING MEASURES.

London, February 13, 1875.

THE measures promised in the Queen's Speech are all of the domestic type. They are, indeed, more the sort of measures that one would look for from a parish vestry or a board of guardians than from the British legislature. Alterations in the arrangements of the law courts ; improvements in the dwellings of the poor ; amendment of the law relating to public health and regulating the pollution of rivers ; the registration of friendly societies; and the establishment of a public prosecutor—these are the unobtrusive measures which are to be proposed this session. It is not an ambitious programme, though it contains many useful and some necessary improvements. But no party feeling can be aroused by such schemes as these. The Law Court Bill is a remnant from last session, and indeed from the last Parliament. It would have become law last year but for the interposition of the ecclesiastical excitement, which, like Aaron's rod, swallowed up all the tame, decorous measures which had the bad luck to come in its way. Introduced as it has been in the House of Lords, at the very beginning of the session, it can hardly fail to receive the royal assent this time.

The necessity for a bill for the improvement of the dwellings of the poor is universally admitted. No one who has lived in one of your fine modern towns can form a notion of the squalor and wretchedness of the dens in which the poor of London, and of most of the large towns in this country, spend their days and nights. The medical officer to the local Government board has reported that in numerous towns the poorer houses are utterly unfit for human habitation, and that they are worst of all in London, Bristol, Merthyr, Newcastle, Plymouth, and Sunderland. In Liverpool, however, in which the most brutal population in the British Islands is congregated, the density of population is double that of London. Thirty thousand families, or (allowing five individuals to a family) one hundred and fifty thousand people, live in single rooms, of which fifteen thousand are dark, filthy, undrained cellars. In Manchester, which is not one of the six towns mentioned by the medical officer, carefully computed statistics, extending over the past ten years, show that, whereas the annual mortality in its healthiest parts is only four in 1,000, it amounts to seventy per 1,000 in its most crowded parts, which, considering that twenty per 1,000 is the normal rate of mortality, is almost enough in itself to prove the necessity of some such measure.

The bill empowers the local authorities in towns with a population exceeding 25,000 inhabitants to reconstruct the worst part of such towns, with money borrowed from Government, at three and a half per cent., on the security of the rates and the new buildings to be erected. The importance of such a measure as this is obviously great. But it would have promised to be more effectual if the provisions had been compulsory instead of being, as they are, permissive. Local authorities in England are difficult to move in any matter, especially in sanitary matters, which may involve expense. Rates are annually increasing all over England, both in town and country. It is obvious that a measure of the character of this Government bill cannot be effectually carried out without considerable expenditure, and considerable expenditure is precisely what most local authorities, except in a time of panic, are most desirous to avoid. The question of permission or compulsion will doubtless be raised when the bill gets into committee, and it will be decided by what it is customary and courteous to call the wisdom of Parliament.

In April, 1872, Mr. Disraeli, as you may remember, went down to Manchester, and there, in the Pomona Dancing Saloon, he made a great effort to resuscitate the fallen fortunes of Conservatism. It seemed a thankless and a hopeless mission, and the means which he took to raise his party from the dead, though admittedly original, did not appear to Liberal politicians and journalists calculated to be successful. He announced the hackneyed doctrine that cleanliness was next to godliness, and travestying the words of "The Preacher," instituted the cry of "Sanitas sanitatis, omnia sanitas" as the watchword that was to bring the Tories back to power. Many not unsagacious men laughed at the jingle of words, and thought that the old Tory party—the party of Pitt and Grenville—were indeed sunk deep in the miry clay when they had no better policy to offer against the blazing principles of Liberalism than a policy of the common sewers. But Mr. Disraeli was wiser than they. He twitted the Government on the preference they showed for the ballot over the health of the people, and now that he is in power he takes the earliest opportunity, with the approval of all, of acting up to his convictions. The "Artisans' Dwellings Bill" is the first instalment of this new Tory policy. The remaining schemes have not yet been laid before the House. But the fact that a bill for the regulation of the pollution of rivers is to be one of the principal measures, is an indication that the policy is to be pushed in an enlightened spirit. It is no exaggeration to say that, excepting some streams, or "becks," as they are called, in the mountainous parts of Cumberland and Westmoreland, known as the Lake District, there is hardly an unpolluted river in the whole of England. Between the sewage of towns and the offscourings of manufactories, distilleries, breweries, and the like, every stream and river in the country is poisoned and rendered unfit for domestic use. Sparkling brooks that not many years ago were frequented by speckled trout and silvery salmon are now transformed into gigantic cesspools, which a clean-living toad would be ashamed to haunt. No wise man or woman will touch a drop of London water until it has been boiled and filtered, and even then they will use as little of it as they can. Most of the houses are supplied with water from the river Thames. But the river Thames carries away in its tawny bosom the sewage of Oxford, a town of nearly 35,000 inhabitants ; the sewage of Reading, with 32,300 ; the sewage of Windsor, with 17,000 ; the sewage of Richmond, and a host of smaller towns, before it reaches London, and the water which is laid on in even the best houses of Belgravia, and South Kensington, and Mayfair, is all drawn from this polluted, filthy source. The manufacturing interest will no doubt be roused if any attempt be made to interfere with their prerogative of public poisoning. But the good sense, not to say the newly-awakened terror, of the country will support the Government if their measure be wisely considered, and be calculated to promote the end it has in view.

It is not likely that the appointment of a Public Prosecutor will be effected this session. The proposal raises wide questions upon which every one feels himself qualified to speak, and England clings tenaciously to the barbarism of private prosecutions. In most countries with any title to civilization, criminal charges are investigated and prosecutions are conducted by the state and paid for by the state. If you cross the river Tweed on the east, or the river Esk on the west, and enter Scotland—a part of the British Empire which Englishmen, at least, do not recognize as more civilized than their own country—you find a state organization of the most efficient kind, reaching from "Maidenkirk to John O'Groat's," and penetrating into the remotest corners of the country, and kept up exclusively for the detection and prosecution of crime. If a man shakes his fist in your face on one side of the Border, you complain to the public prosecutor of the district, and your assailant is indicted and tried at the public expense, and without any trouble to his victim. But if you are robbed and murdered on the other side of the Border, your representatives must bear the expense and the worry of bringing your murderer to justice. The state will not raise a finger or spend a penny to help them. Several attempts have been made of late years to get rid of this anomaly. But its roots are deeply embedded in English institutions, and the proverbial conservatism of the legal profession, wherever their interests or privileges are concerned, has hitherto been too powerful for the reformers. The present Government is strong enough to carry such a measure in spite of the lawyers, if it chooses to use its strength. Whether it will so choose or not, time will show.

On none of these measures can party passion be aroused. Both sides of the House are equally desirous that they should pass, and it is improbable that any factious opposition will be raised against them. It is in the minor matters that the present Government gives free vent to the good old stiff-necked Tory spirit. Last session it was a fourth-rate measure that discredited them, and brought together for a brief moment the scattered forces of the Opposition. This year Mr. Gathorne Hardy has introduced a trifling bill of a single enacting clause, "A bill to amend the law relating to Regimental Exchanges," which has already raised to a white heat the smouldering fires of the recently "consolidated" Liberal party. The clause is as follows :

"2. Her Majesty may, from time to time, by regulation authorize exchanges to be made by officers in her Majesty's Regular Forces from one regiment or corps to another regiment or corps, on such conditions as to her Majesty may for the time being seem expedient ; and nothing contained in the Army Brokerage Acts shall extend to any exchanges made in manner authorized by any regulation of her Majesty for the time being in force."

The effect of this clause would be to revive by a side wind some of

the worst evils of the purchase system in the army which was abolished by the Gladstone Government. If officers of one regiment, it is said, are to be legally entitled to bribe their poorer brethren in other regiments to exchange with them when they are ordered to dangerous or unpleasant stations, the old demoralization of the army will reappear. Rich men will remain in comfortable quarters among the clubs and luxuries of London, while the poorer men will do the work abroad and in India, and all the old underhand, backstairs influences which were supposed to have been rooted out of the army will grow again, if this bill should become law, to the grave detriment of the service. So the purists and the job-hunters are asserting in the lobbies of the House of Commons. Already three ardent army reformers have given notice of motions to reject the bill. The new leader of the Opposition has openly announced his hostility to the proposal, and a right good party fight upon the second reading of the bill, next Monday week, is confidently anticipated. Of course the Goverment will win, but the battle-ground is astutely chosen.

One other measure, emanating not from the Government but from a private member, will open the door to party strife. The bill to enable Dissenters to be buried in consecrated ground, and in accordance with the traditions of their respective denominations, is stoutly opposed by all the Churchmen in the House of Commons. The same feeling that animated a "learned simpleton" in the east of England to refuse his permission to the word "reverend" being placed upon a Wesleyan minister's tombstone, animates a large number of the representatives of the English people. The Churchmen are principally massed on the Tory side of the House, and it is expected that Lord Hartington, who is no bigot, will lead a fairly compact body of his followers into the same lobby with the introducer of the bill. Even if he were successful, which is highly improbable, the bill would have no chance, as the House of Lords would strangle it on its first appearance in their House. The Bishops would rise *en masse* to vindicate the sanctity of their churchyards, and the vast majority of the temporal peers would hold it desecration to allow the rights of Christian burial after the Episcopalian form, and in a consecrated churchyard, to be performed over a Dissenter. But, successful or unsuccessful, the Liberal managers would justly hold it a good party move to show some fight upon such an occasion. Except on these two measures there seems little scope for serious opposition. But in the game of politics as played in England, more than in any other pastime, you cannot tell what a day will bring forth. The calm despair of the Liberal benches may be aroused into active passion before the end of the session. At the eleventh hour some retrograde measure like the Endowed Schools bill of last session may be introduced, or ecclesiastical hares may again be started and hunted to the death. At the present moment it would appear as if the session would be one of little measures, but if the programme be carried out the public will be the gainers, and the Government, if it does not gain a crown of glory, will justly earn the civic wreath.

# Correspondence.

## ABOUT FIRST-MORTGAGE RAILROAD BONDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That cynical Frenchman Talleyrand says that business, in France, means getting all you can out of "l'argent d'autrui"—"other folks' money." Can it be the same in Wall Street, and even in the sacred haunts of Mammon at the "Hub"? The revelations at the late meeting of Dubuque bondholders certainly look so, and Mr. James F. Joy, the late railroad king of the West, testifies that the Dubuque method is the usual way of building railroads in the West. It is his idea of "business."

Let us look into this "business" a little. It has grown from small legitimate beginnings to an enormous system. It was natural that the towns and farmers of the West, where production is enormous and dirt roads impassable half the year, should want railroads within easy reach. They were, and are, on the prairies the farmer's great labor-saving machines. Within proper limits, the people of the prairies could well afford to club together their money and their labor and do a good deal towards getting a road ready for the ties and iron. They could well afford to take railroad stock and pay for it in money and labor, or vote county bonds in aid of the project, even if they never got any returns for it except in the enhanced value of their farms or other property.

In this way some very few successful roads have been built, and some others have proved to be worth the bonds issued to complete them; but in the long run and the majority of cases, this system of building has chiefly enured to the benefit of contractors and speculators associated with them. However legitimate and plausible in theory, it was always dangerous in practice, and in 1871 it had grown to be the giant evil of the railroad system. It was, let us be thankful, killed by the panic of 1873, of which it was one of the causes, and by the Granger folly now happily dying out. We hope and believe the system thus perverted is dead beyond resurrection, but with such a glaring instance of its bad features as the Dubuque roads furnish we ought to learn the lesson well and lay it up for warning in the future.

What is its practical operation? From the legitimate attempts of agricultural localities to build railroads let us look at the outgrowth. Encouraged by the success of a few roads thus built, contractors who have made money out of them commence operations. Aided by local landholders, country storekeepers, and others with more enterprise than capital, they get together funds enough to make the rough preliminary surveys. These for the sake of securing local subscriptions are often run round close to everybody's farm or town lot; sometimes a small land-grant is obtained, and what is called "tax aid" in the shape of town or county bonds is voted by the inhabitants, either as a bonus or to be returned in stock of the railroad. If the prospect seems favorable, the contractors sometimes muster funds or get contributions of labor enough to run a few furrows with an ox team and a deep plough. This is called grading and ditching the road, and the nominal value of the labor and tax aid often reaches large amounts, and figures in the coming programme as "large local stock subscriptions." Armed with this array of "margins" the contractor waits upon some railroad king, and tells him the road is going on rapidly "towards" completion—"the grading nearly all provided for" and nothing needed but a capitalist to furnish iron and equipment. If skilful, he hints that a neighboring rival king is negotiating for the control of the road, but that his friendship for the nearer monarch, or perhaps his loyalty purchased by previous similar favors, leads him to give King A the preference. Sometimes he adds, as an inducement, that if the king and his cabinet will join in the enterprise, he will give them a share in the profits of the contract in the shape of land, local aid, stock, etc. The contractor and railroad potentate have now on paper all the elements of success, and need only Talleyrand's lesson as to getting hold "of other folks' money" to carry out their scheme. To accomplish this they skilfully distribute the contract "where it will do the most good," amongst capitalists who, by leading off on the subscription-list for the bonds to be issued for carrying out the project, are most likely to gather in "other folks' money." These capitalists are deceived; not intentionally by the railroad king, because his head may perhaps have been turned by previous success. They are made to see a very good thing for themselves—a good feeder for the first-class road in which they are directors, and they hope the public, including the widows and orphans who are pinched for income, will get 8 or 9 per cent. for their money instead of 6 or 7. The contractors' intentions are good. The potentate's intentions are good. The intentions of other credulous directors are good. The intentions of the portion of directors who compose the "ring" are good; but it is well known that hell is paved with good intentions, and this kind of paving, unless laid upon a firm substratum of "good works," is pretty sure to make a road that leads to the devil.

Let us pursue the process a step further—and we could not have a better specimen brick than the Dubuque roads, engineered as they were by the able and naturally honest King James. The enterprising town of Dubuque wants some more railroads, and goes through some of the preliminaries we have hinted at for bringing their project to the attention of King James. The king comes East with his array of figures—he wants at first only $2,400,000, of which his ring, having first secured an interest in the contracts, take $800,000, thus setting an example of "faith," and strongly recommend to their stockholders the other $1,600,000, which is readily taken, and, owing to the confidence placed by the community in the statements and recommendation of the ring, even commands a premium in the market on its subscription price. Trusting entirely to their Western king, the cabinet exercise no further vigilance, and take no further precautions, but put the $2,400,000 at his disposition, to be turned over with similar recklessness to his local viceroy, who perhaps rewards all *his* friends with fat subcontracts, and certainly adorns his own town with magnificent machine-shops as an earnest of the railroad structures that are to come when Dubuque becomes a second Chicago. Encouraged by his success and stimulated by the handling of so much money, our viceroy projects another road to the West, the Iowa Pacific, in which he doubtless has his "Crédit-Mobilier" contract. He also takes up a project for a road south of Dubuque to Clinton, already under way, and a few months later our king returns East with a still more magnificent scheme, of a sixty-mile branch, intended to reach the Iowa Pa-

cific, and a sixty-mile extension south, requiring now only three millions and a half more bonds, underlaid of course with a contract similar to the first, spiced this time with a land-grant of 40,000 acres and other enticements for his friends of the ring.

The same game is played in recommending and placing the bonds. The contractor-viceroy spends the money like a prince as he is, and now, having fairly begun his Iowa Pacific, very naturally, and without meaning to steal any part of them, expends $173,000 of the funds entrusted to him upon that. *His* intentions, too, are good, namely, first, to feather his own nest as contractor, and next to benefit the river roads by giving *them* a new feeder. He then buys on credit (with perhaps a lien on it) the rolling-stock which he was bound to furnish as part of his contract. Under such a system the money of course wastes away like a snow-bank in May. The eastern end of the "Crédit-Mobilier" concern, when collapse comes, finds itself loaded down with the bonds, only a part of which they have been able to put off on the public, and so they are "sufferers who have been deceived," and think themselves rather objects of sympathy than of blame.

Upon another point the lesson is instructive. Trustees, professional men, widows, orphans, are led on by the shrewd capitalists, who show their faith, as Mr. Joy says, in the best way any man can do it, "by putting their money into it." Led on by this example and the delusive cry of "First mortgage bonds," they put their money into enterprises in which they would never think of taking stock, and yet they would have been ten times safer to have had stock if they had only assumed the management of it as stockholders and seen to its proper use. Instead of this they furnish the money, and let a set of speculating contractors mismanage it by the power of the stock which these have got for almost nothing.

Following out the Dubuque precedent, another danger is developed. The contractors take all the stock, and of course control or themselves become the "Board." They are at first bound by their contract to build the road, receiving therefor stock, land and local aid, and $25,000 of bonds per mile of "well-equipped and well-built roads." This will do pretty well when they are only local contractors, with no great pecuniary responsibility, but when they want to get in the Eastern ring with some real capital and much credit, a new feature is added to the contract—they are still to get all the assets of the road, including $25,000 bonds (first-mortgage bonds, mind you) per mile, *but are released from any obligation to build the road*—which the company must accept when the contractors have expended certain assets on it, whether complete or not. The Board (being in fact the contractors) do not examine whether the assets have been properly expended on it as provided in the contract, and even knowing that large sums have been unlawfully diverted to the building of another road, they accept the road and release the contractors, and instead of 237 miles "of well-built and well-equipped road," they receive only 182 miles of finished road with its machine-shops, after vast outlay only half done, and with its equipment and the road itself loaded with a large floating debt.

It has been argued that the value of the bonds is improved by having a certain sum of money put in behind them by a contraction company, and that such contracts as we have been discussing are perfectly fair if properly executed. Is this so? Take the Chicago, Clinton, and Dubuque case as an example: The contractors agree to put in $140,000 in money, for which they get 38,500 acres of land, worth, at their own valuation, $3 to $6, or say an average of $4 50 per acre—$173,000; and in addition all the stock, amounting to over $1,200,000. They thus take out of the enterprise more money value than they put in, with the chance of making a large sum in building the road and with an absolute release from any obligation to complete it. Hence the contract was a bad one, however well executed, besides having the vicious feature of making the contractors (in their capacity of directors) the judges of their own work, thereby removing every safeguard for its proper execution. However this may be in theory, we have seen in practice what waste, misapplication, and ruin come of allowing directors to use other folks' money in enterprises in which they themselves take the first chance of profit, giving to the public what chance is left of getting any interest on the money invested. Are we in this state of facts to have a verdict of "nobody to blame"?

GOOD INTENTIONS.

# Notes.

THE Rev. E. D. Neill, well known for his historical writings relating to the early settlement of Maryland, has reprinted from the St. Paul (Minn.) *Pioneer*, under the title 'Maryland not a Roman Catholic Colony,' three letters recently addressed to that paper. This little pamphlet forms part of the literature of the civil-allegiance controversy, as its object is to confute Bishop Gibbons, of Virginia, one of Mr. Gladstone's antagonists, who had claimed the Maryland General Assembly of 1649 as a Catholic Assembly (it was two-thirds Protestant), and the toleration act of that year as a manifestation of the spirit of the Catholic Church (it was an adaptation of the act of 1647, passed by the Puritan Parliament of England).——A new monthly *Journal of Education*, "devoted to educational interests, literature, science, and art," is announced to be published in Brooklyn during the present month.——The Agassiz Memorial Fund of $300,000 is said to be nearly raised. The "teachers' and pupils' fund" alone exceeds $9,000, the largest contribution ($2,555 07) naturally coming from Massachusetts. Illinois is second with $1,982 54, New York third with $1,106 97; Missouri and Maryland follow next with $882 79 and $815 33 respectively. No other State gives as much as $250. Pennsylvania ($108 81) falls behind Rhode Island ($140 05).——We have received from Mr. Edward B. Lasalle, C.E., of San Francisco, his pocket-map of Virginia City and the Comstock Lode, showing the latest changes up to January 1, 1875. It appears to give all the surface information that one could desire. For the underground workings of a part of the lode one may consult Mr. Clarence King's Mining Atlas (1870).——In the October *Bulletin* of the Essex Institute occurs an interesting statement by Prof. E. S. Morse, viz., that "the American Indians were acquainted with the fact that the glacial scratches on ledges and boulders run north and south, and that they used them as a guide." This he learned "from an old gentleman at Portland, whose grandfather remembered that the Indians sometimes found their way through the forests by scratching away the earth over the rock in order to note the direction of the smooth scratches."——The period of Italian history from the battle of Novara to the insurrection at Genoa has just been made the subject of a work by General La Marmora. It is entitled 'Un episodio del risorgimento italiano,' and but one hundred copies have been printed.——Scribner, Welford & Armstrong have secured for the American market a special edition of Schliemann's 'Troy and its Remains,' which will very shortly be issued from the press, illustrated with maps, views, plans, etc.——Dodd & Mead announce Dr. John Hall's 'Yale Lectures on Preaching'; Dr. Storrs's 'Preaching without Notes'; and an account, by Mr. George H. Stuart, of the revival in England and Scotland now going on under the labors of Messrs. Moody and Sankey.——Albert Mason will publish the second series of French's 'Historical Collections of Louisiana and Florida.'——G. J. Whyte-Melville's horsey tale called 'Katerfelto' will be republished by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia.

—English publishers' announcements include a work by Kegan Paul on 'William Godwin, his Friends and Contemporaries,' which will contain a number of hitherto unpublished letters from many literary celebrities; a complete edition of Wordsworth's prose works, political and other; a life of Fénelon, by the author of a recent life of Bossuet; a memoir of Sir Roderick Murchison, by Archibald Geikie; 'Insectivorous and Climbing Plants,' by Charles Darwin; poems by W. B. Scott, illustrated with seventeen etchings by the author and by L. Alma-Tadema; 'Aristophanes' Apology,' by Robert Browning; 'Life and Works of Titian,' by Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle; 'A History of Indian and Eastern Architecture,' by James Fergusson; 'Ecclesiastical and Secular Architecture of Scotland,' by Thomas Arnold; 'A History of Ancient Egypt,' by Prof. Brugsch; 'Studies from Genoese History,' by Colonel G. B. Malleson; and a 'Dictionary of English History.'

—A subscriber writes us from Boston: "In illustration of what your correspondent says of borrowers of the *Nation*—my copy goes to two families in Massachusetts, after my household has read it, and then to an American family in Japan. Still, I do not think the proprietors lose by it, for I doubt if these families could afford the subscription, and it gives circulation and credit to the journal."

—In *Lippincott's* for March, the paper on "Munich as a Pest-city" is as likely as any other to be read and remembered, especially by intending tourists in Germany. Why that city has an exceptionally bad reputation as the nest of cholera and typhus, why "diseases of the throat and lungs are very common," and why "the whole population suffers more or less from catarrh," is explained by the writer in a way to carry conviction. The situation of Munich—"upon a high, barren plain, sixteen hundred feet above the level of the sea, exposed to the full power of the sun in summer, brooded over by chilly fogs in spring and autumn, and swept the whole year through by all the storms that accumulate upon the mountains filling the horizon to the south and east"—seems cause enough for a large amount of sickness and mortality, and a permanent and immitigable cause of both. The soil is an equally fatal factor, having once been the bed of a lake, and consisting

to the depth of several feet of a loose gravel, in which no useful or ornamental vegetation can be made to thrive except by artificial aid, and through which all fluid-matter deposited on the surface percolates to the rocky substratum, and there stagnating generates poisonous gases. Scarcely a third of the seventy-five thousand tons of refuse matter annually thus deposited is taken out of the city. Sewers are of very recent introduction, and, being imperfectly constructed and not systematically flushed, rather serve to aggravate the evil of the undrained soil. The state of the city cellars, generally shared in common by the occupants of flats, and permitted to be used even for butchering; the crowding and frequent upturning of the cemeteries; the foulness of the water, which is drawn from wells "in close proximity to the vault, the refuse-pit, and the drain"; the imprudent open-air habits of the population, their indifference to pure air and to cleanliness within doors, their bad diet—are still other counts in this sanitary indictment, evidence of the truthfulness of which is to be found in the fact that nearly half the children born in Munich die in infancy, and that "the death-rate for the whole population is nearly forty in a thousand." It was in a street bordering on the English Garden that the cholera broke out in 1873, and that Kaulbach sickened and died of the disease. The writer's account of this park would seem to be somewhat darker than was necessary; at all events, it is in marked contrast with the description of the same pleasure-ground given by an American consul in Ellis's life of Rumford, to whom Munich is indebted for it. Doubtless, if the Count were alive to-day, he would be as prompt to recognize and strive to improve the sanitary condition of the city as the present authorities are slow in dealing with it.

—Mr. Richard Grant White contributes an article to the *Galaxy*, in which he suggests a question with regard to music which would probably stand much more discussion than it has ever received. Every one knows, Mr. White says, that there are various kinds of music, vocal and instrumental, ecclesiastical and secular, lyric and dramatic, choral, orchestral; music grave, gay, lively, severe. But the question has been asked, Is there a distinction between "absolute music"—*i.e.*, music as such, consisting of melody and harmony, and having absolute, intrinsic, musical beauty, and another kind of music known to the vulgar as "programme music," which Mr. White proposes to call dependent as opposed to absolute—*i.e.*, music which of course must consist of harmony or melody, or both, but which appears not for its own sake but to illustrate some printed words or statements of the composer, and which, apart from this programme, is meaningless and uninteresting? Everybody who goes at all to concerts will recognize the distinction between the two kinds as being at the present time a very real one, inasmuch as one is the sort of music which one ordinarily listens to with pleasure, while the other is the kind which necessitates a careful, laborious, and continuous study of the programme as long as the music lasts, and involves also grave doubt, in the case of persons unscientifically musical, as to whether they really have detected, as they were in duty bound, the neighing of the horses in the sounds emitted by the oboes, or the spectral shriek in the violins, or whether they have not really confused the whole thing, so as to be carefully following the *menu* of the first part when the music has already got into the middle of the second. We join Mr. White with great pleasure in his attack on "programme" music when carried to the modern extent, simply on the ground of the amount of physical and intellectual labor involved; but it seems to us that he makes too much of the distinction when he says that it constitutes a "revolution" in æsthetics. Some relation of dependence has been always admitted to exist between music and words. In fact, the existence of opera of any kind is proof of the possibility of using "dependent" as well as "absolute" music, and though there is a great deal of music in operas which bears little or no relation to the accompanying words, it cannot be maintained that composers generally, when writing operas, have written "absolutely," any more than music composed for the words of a particular poem can be called "absolute." In the non-absolute music of the past, however, the connection between the two has in most cases been kept up by making the music the principal, and the words accessory or dependent. What is proposed, as we understand it, by "programme music," is to reverse this order and make the music dependent on the words, which we believe will be found in the long run to be a mistake, for the reason that music is incapable of expressing and representing thought, line for line and word for word, and can never do more than suggest and harmonize with the general feeling expressed by the words. In the operatic music of the past there has been, no doubt, a great deal of melody the sentiment of which was wholly out of sympathy with the words, of which fact Mr. White gives some curious illustrations.

—The last *Atlantic* contains an ingenious article by Mr. Jules Marcou on "The Origin of the Name America." *Americ*, *Amerrique*, or *Amerique*, he says, is the native, aboriginal name for the high land in Nicaragua, lying between Juigalpa and Libertad, and reaching on the one side into the country of the Carcas Indians, and on the other into that of the Ramas Indians—the highest chain of mountains in the countries of these tribes, and a dividing line between the waters flowing into the Atlantic and those that empty into the Lake of Nicaragua. It is well known, Mr. Marcou says, 1st, that the termination *ique*, *ic*, in the Indian dialects of Central America, is applied to elevated, mountainous countries, or to dividing ridges; 2d, that no denominations are more firmly established than the names of localities, such as those of mountains, valleys, lakes, and rivers. "Even the most absolute conquest, unless it totally exterminate the aboriginal race inhabiting a country, does not destroy entirely the names of localities, or *lieux-dits*, as the French so well express it. These names may be slightly modified, by various spelling, but the primitive sound remains. And even where the aboriginal race entirely disappears, the names of places are often preserved, at least as synonyms; of which there are many examples in Canada, in New England, in the State of New York, and elsewhere throughout the Union." But in the *Lettera Rarissima* of Columbus, giving an abridged description of his fourth voyage (1502–3), he speaks of passing the Cape Gracias a Dios, on the Mosquito coast, and reaching the Rio Grande Matagalpa. After remaining there for several days, he stopped some time between the Island of La Huerta (the Garden Quiribiri) and the continent, opposite the village Cariaï, or Cariay. Columbus and his company were in search of gold mines, and of these the inhabitants of Cariaï (which is so like Carcaï that we may suppose the change to have come from an error in reading the manuscript letter of Columbus) had a great deal to relate. They led Columbus to another village called Carambaru, where the inhabitants wore golden mirrors round their necks. These Indians told them of several places where gold existed, one of them being Veragua, twenty-five leagues distant on the coast. Following these indications it seems highly probable that Columbus visited the gold mines, where the Carcas Indians are still working to-day, at the foot of the Americ mountains, a conspicuous range, with white cliffs, precipitous rocks, and huge, isolated rocky pinnacles; that he there repeatedly heard the Indians refer to these auriferous mountains, and give their name in reply to questions about gold, and finally, "We may suppose that Colombo and his companions on their return to Europe, when relating their adventures, would boast of the rich gold mines they had discovered through the Indians of Nicaragua, and say they lay in the direction of Americ. This would make popular the word Americ, as the common designation of that part of the Indies in which the richest mines of gold in the New World were situated." In this way the word Americ might have penetrated very far as a popular equivalent of the El Dorado on the other side of the Atlantic, until Hylacomylus of Saint Dié, at the foot of the Vosges, having heard the name, but being ignorant of any printed account of these voyages, except those of Albericus Vespucius, published in Latin in 1505, and in German in 1506, thought he saw in the Christian name Albericus the origin of this queer word Americ, and therefore called the country America. To corroborate this, Mr. Marcou says that Hylacomylus knew only the names Albericus and Alberico, the name being only spelt Americo and Morigo in Spanish documents that remained unpublished until many years after the death of Hylacomylus. The whole argument is of course inconclusive, in the absence of positive evidence, but it is a curious chain of probabilities, which are heightened by the circumstance that the Christian names of ordinary men are never used to designate a country, but only those of an emperor, king, queen, or prince. "Thus we say Straits of Magellan, Vancouver's Island, Tasmania, Van Dieman's Land, etc., while we have, on the other hand, Louisiana, Carolina, Georgia, Maryland, Filipinas, Victoria, etc. There is no exception to this rule in the case of Cristoforo Colombo, for no one has thought of giving the name of Cristoforia to a country, and that of Cristoforo to a town; while at several epochs many names of Colombia, Columbia, Columbus, and Colon have been given. Furthermore, in giving to Vespuzio the honor of naming the New World, Hylacomylus, using the Christian name contrary to all precedent, should have named it Albericia or Amerigia or Amerigonia or Morigia, and not America."

—When Mr. Forster was here the Union League Club gave him an entertainment, in the invitations to which he was spoken of as "the Honble. William E. Forster," a mode of styling him which called forth some criticism, inasmuch as his proper title is the "Right Honorable William E. Forster." The Easy-Chair in *Harper's Monthly*, speaking of the matter, however, says "Honorable" is not the correct term to apply to members of Parliament, as we apply it to members of Congress; which we think shows

some misapprehension as to the exact nature of the breach of etiquette which the Union League Club committed. Members of Parliament, as such, are not entitled to any sign of superior dignity whatever. The letters "M. P." are generally appended to their names, but this is simply description. They become neither "Honorable" nor "Right Honorable," nor anything else, in virtue of their office. "Honorable" is, in England, an appellation reserved for the younger sons of peers, from earls to barons; it is not a mark of office of any kind, but of birth only. The title of "Right Honorable," which Mr. Forster should have received, came to and cleaves to him as a member of the Privy Council. Every cabinet minister becomes a member of this Council, and the Cabinet, though only a portion of the Council, has in modern times, as all students of English constitutional history know, taken the place of the Council and discharges its duties. When a man, therefore, obtains a seat in the Cabinet he becomes a Privy Councillor and a "Right Honorable," and as he continues, even after the ministry to which he belongs goes out of office, to be a Privy Councillor during the King's pleasure or for six months after the demise of the crown, a "Right Honorable" he remains. But the whole council is never called together except on the accession of a new monarch, and none of its members are ever summoned on ordinary occasions, except those who belong to the Cabinet for the time being.

—We wish to call the attention of those who are interested in libraries to the plan for a catalogue proposed by Mr. J. Schwartz, jr, of the New York Apprentices' Library, partly because his system is novel and important, and partly because he is one of the few men who have an idea of what a catalogue ought to be, and why. The public, of course, do not know much about the principles of cataloguing, nor is it necessary that they should. Enough for them to consult with more or less dissatisfaction the catalogues that are set before them. But librarians might have been expected to penetrate a little deeper into the mystery. Apparently they do not. In his bibliographical education each becomes familiar with some system, and when he makes a catalogue adopts that without much question. And those who think for themselves appear to turn their attention to one part of the subject or to overcoming one class of difficulties, rather than to the general theory. Prof. Jewett's chief work, for instance, was in drawing up the rules for an author-catalogue, and he seems to have apprehended the principles of a subject-catalogue somewhat indistinctly. The makers of dictionary catalogues seem to have been especially impressed with the usefulness of title-entries. Prof. Abbot's main attention (the author-part not presenting much further difficulty) was given to the subject-part, and in the report in which he explained his system he dwelt mostly on the points which distinguish that from the same part in other plans. But whether or not he worked from a definite statement of the purposes of a catalogue, he evidently had in his mind a strong feeling of the objects to be accomplished, and his system provided for answers to all the five questions which a catalogue ought to answer—which no previous one had done.

—Mr. Schwartz was called upon to devise a plan when totally ignorant of library economy, and, after examining the principles at the bottom of previous systems, proceeded to form a new one *à priori*. Each previous system seemed to him to have been made to attain a certain result; by combining them, he could obtain all possible results: a classed index would assist those who knew the subject of their book; a title-index would serve the man who remembered the title of the book he wanted and that only; an author-catalogue would guide the more numerous multitude who want the works of a given author; and, he says emphatically, "if a reader does not know one of the three factors of a book, the *author*, *subject*, or *title*, *no* catalogue can assist him." He had already formed a very ingenious and practically successful system for the arrangement of books by combining the three ordinary systems, topical, numerical, and alphabetical, and probably the idea of a second trio was pleasing; but his formula was not broad enough. A good catalogue ought to state not merely what books the library has by a given author, or with a given title, or on a given subject, but also what works it has in a given kind of literature, as French or German, fiction or drama. The trio should be a quartette. In Mr. Schwartz's system there is a place for the kinds of literature, but none in his statement of principles; apparently he builded better than he knew. However this may be, Mr. Schwartz's scheme, in which he endeavors to harmonize and absorb the previous systems of arranging the books, constructing the catalogue, and recording the loans, is a very important contribution to library economy, and deserves careful attention. It would not, indeed, be necessarily any better for being constructed *à priori*, any more than the paper constitutions which the Latin races have made so freely on philosophical principles are more serviceable than the empirical constitution of England, but it is more satisfactory to the maker and to the critic. Mr. Schwartz by no means casts aside experience, but tries to profit by the work of his predecessors, intending to include in his all their systems, and assign each its proper place and work. The idea of the threefold combination is not absolutely new. Mr. Schwartz, however, with whom it is no doubt original, deserves the credit of bringing it forward prominently and of combining it with a scheme for an expansive arrangement of the library. It would be very unfair to judge him by the catalogue which was published in 1874 after a wonderfully quick preparation, and with a crude and unsatisfactory scheme of classification. He is now preparing a pamphlet in which his plan will be set forth in full, and with such modifications and improvements in detail as its practical use has suggested.

—The experiment of cheap workingmen's trains on the Eastern Railroad in Massachusetts has been on trial for two or three years, and it seems from the last report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners to be an established success. The trains leave Lynn for Boston at 5.35 o'clock every morning, and returning leave Boston at 6.35 in the evening, the fare being uniform, whether for the entire trip or any part of it. In 1870, these trains carried 187,016 passengers, and in 1874, 266,560, the receipts from them in 1870 being in round numbers $9,350, and in 1874 $13,325. The tickets for these trains are sold only in slips of twenty each; no money is received on the cars, and the average receipts for the year per trip proved to be $21 29. The cost of running one of these trains from Boston to Lynn appears, by the returns of the road, to be $14 14, and therefore it seems that the cheap train earns a profit of $7 15 per trip, or 55 cents per mile run. If the rate of progress which has hitherto been maintained is continued, the indications are that in another year the Eastern Railroad workingmen's trains will be found to be among the most remunerative, per mile run, which leave the city of Boston. The only difficulty seems likely to arise from their unmanageable size. Beginning in November, 1872, with two cars only, they had increased in August last to eleven cars, and nine is now the usual number. At first, these trains seemed to be regarded with a certain popular suspicion, especially by women, who used them but little. This is now rapidly changing, numbers of women go in them, and generally the class of passengers shows a constant and decided tendency to improvement. The Commissioners also say that the statistics of the several stations served by these cheap trains show more clearly, the longer the experiment is tried, that the receipts from the regular trains are not diminished nor are passengers drawn from them; they have apparently "called a new class of travel into existence," which, if it has any effect on the regular travel, only stimulates and develops it. The travel of the cheap trains during the past year has increased 42 per cent., that on the regular trains increasing at the same time 23 per cent. The introduction of cheap trains has, in fact, largely extended on the Eastern road the area in which labor can seek employment. The workingman can now daily carry his labor to any point from Lynn to Boston; as a consequence, the population moves more, and large numbers of people acquire the habit of travelling who had not the habit before. All this of course enures to the profit of the railroad as well as to that of the workingmen; and the managers of the Eastern road have this year "evinced a lively interest in the results of the experiment, and show no disposition whatever to bring it to a close." The Commissioners, in connection with this subject, refer to the Revere accident as the real cause of the introduction of cheap trains. That accident, in which a large number of lives were carelessly lost, made the company very much disliked in Massachusetts, and the managers felt that something must be done to "render the corporation popular." They therefore resolved to adopt the recommendation of the Commissioners and try cheap trains. The other corporations, which have had no accidents, show no disposition to follow their example, but maintain that there is no popular demand for such trains; that the population living along the line of the particular road to which the Commissioners address suggestions is "very peculiar"; that the change is either not desired or would be "most offensive" to it; and that any changes would occasion "great popular discontent." We commend this subject to the attention of those who are investigating rapid transit in this city, for there are few cities in the world in which the working population is so horribly and unnaturally crowded, chiefly owing to the fact that in the present state of affairs any rapid and cheap communication with distant places is just as much a physical impossibility as if there were a big wall, without any means of entrance or exit, built round New York. There is nothing that we can see to prevent the introduction of these cheap trains on the east side of the city as soon as the Harlem improvement is completed.

—We have more than once referred to the "Curtius Fund," raised among the philologists of the world as a well-deserved tribute to Professor

Georg Curtius of Leipsic, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his work as a university teacher. His brief words of acknowledgment to the contributors to the fund have just come to hand in this country, and we learn from the little pamphlet that the American contributions form a very respectable proportion of the whole amount raised, being considerably more than twice as much as was received from all other countries outside of Germany, taken together; just nine times as much, it may be added, as went from England. In this hearty response to the appeal of the American committee, there is matter for gratulation, as it shows both the appreciation by American scholars of the distinguished merits of the great German teacher, and their readiness to join freely in promoting an object of which they understand the claims. Curtius has many personal pupils among our colleges, who regard him with affection and reverence, and who were active in their labors in his behalf; but they were met almost everywhere with a willing and hearty response, and the American contribution is to be regarded as a spontaneous and really intended tribute to the claims of the recipient. What rules will be adopted for the administration of the fund, and the application of its income to the encouragement of philological science, is not yet made public, but is promised soon to be so. Curtius is stated to be at present engaged upon the second and concluding volume of his work on the Greek verb, of which the first volume appeared in the summer of 1873.

—The second number of *Italia*, published the fifteenth of January, is before us, and will be found, we think, more generally interesting even than the first number. The literary and scientific articles preponderate; indeed, besides the review of the political condition of Italy by the editor, there is but one article that can be called political. This is by Luigi Luzzatti, on "The Schools of Political Economy in Italy and their Controversies." The first number, it will be remembered, contained an article by Barzellotti on the literary movement in Italy since 1848; the present number continues the series with an account of the philosophical movement in Italy since 1860, by F. Fiorentino. Of scientific interest is the notice of Odoardo Beccari's various journeys between 1865–1874 to Ceylon, Arabia, New Guinea, etc. Beccari is an eminent botanist, and few travellers of modern times have undergone such risks and accomplished so much satisfactory scientific work. One object of *Italia* being to acquaint the Germans with out-of-the way places where the national life can be best studied, it gives in an article by Zumbini an interesting account of the mountainous region of Sila in Calabria. Raffaele Pareto discusses the subject of the Roman Campagna, giving plans and statistics for its drainage. Woldemar Kaden, who has lately become well known by his vivid pictures of travel in Italy, describes the Sabine hills, which have exercised such a powerful influence on modern German landscape painters. Art is represented by Von Reumont's account of the Collegio del Cambio at Perugia, with its splendid frescoes by Perugino. The purely literary part consists in a notice by Lang of modern works on Machiavelli; the Italian theatre since 1848, by Yorick (Ferrigni); a story by Heinrich Horner, entitled "Der Säugling"; and, as in the last number, metrical translations from Italian into German and *vice versâ*. They are all interesting; perhaps the most so is an Italian version of Goethe's "Römische Elegieen," by Guerrieri-Gonzaga. The publishers have not yet fixed the time for the appearance of the following numbers. The next will, however, be issued in the course of the year, and will contain among other things an article on the musical condition of Italy.

—The death of Corot the painter, news of which came last week, is to be added, not without a certain melancholy harmony, to that of Millet, who died January 21st, and both assist in swelling a sad list of losses suffered by art in France since the war. Corot died at the age of about seventy-nine years, and Millet at that of sixty; there was a kind of sympathy in the broad, individual, and unconventional way in which nature was represented by both. Corot's landscapes are refined suggestions, delineating rather the impression made by scenery on a poetic mind than the facts of scenery; his representation of trees is the best possible definition of tree-painting as an art, distinguished from tree-drawing as botany. He excelled in effects taken from the twilight just before dawn, animated perhaps with a few hints of figures derived from the twilight of history or fable, such as satyrs, centaurs, or demigods; and he could paint, as none else could, the cloud of undeveloped leafage that settles upon a wood in the earliest spring. Millet painted the lives of the peasantry. With a scrupulous sincerity, he delineated the hardness and laboriousness of existence among the poor, yet with such mastery of selection and arrangement as made his groups intensely poetical. Since Rembrandt, probably no painter has so contrived to surround the miserable epic of poverty with such subtle chiaroscuro of fascination. Millet's delvers of the soil have a peculiar and most dramatic appearance of belonging to the earth, like gnomes, and to the general appearance of nature amid which their lives have been formed. It would seem, to look at them, as if they had never been studied by the painter as *académies* or anatomical problems, in the atelier or dissecting-room, but only in place, as a part of the landscape which they occupy with the rocks and the trees. He said himself that his mission was to deliver "the cry of the earth"; this he did with ineffable tenderness and melancholy. Numerous examples of the art of Millet and Corot are owned by collectors in this country.

## STUBBS'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND.*

PROFESSOR STUBBS has long been known to be one of the highest living authorities on English history, and his book will not disappoint the high expectations of his friends. Many of its merits are patent on its face. It is filled with a mass of information rarely to be found in the pages of any English writer. The learning which is manifest in every line is not the erudition of a pedant, but the well-digested information of a man who has devoted the whole powers of his mind to a great subject worthy of study, and attempts to communicate within a moderate space some portion of the facts with which his memory is stored. There is, indeed, some danger lest Mr. Stubbs's learning should obscure from careless readers some characteristics of his work which deserve as much notice as the mere extent and grasp of his knowledge; and the best service which a reviewer can render is to direct attention to some of the salient features which give Mr. Stubbs's Constitutional History its peculiar character.

The first merit of this author's writings is that he writes history in a philosophic spirit, which (it may be added) is a totally different thing from performing that very worthless achievement which is called writing a philosophy of history. The essence of philosophical treatment of history lies in calmness of mind and in appreciation of evidence. In both respects Professor Stubbs stands prominent, and in curious contrast with several writers of powers in many respects equal to his own. He has nothing, for example, of the spirit of a controversialist, and hence, though he incidentally confutes a host of errors, never loses sight of the fact that the primary duty of a historian is to narrate history, and not to carry on a running fight with every heretic who may venture to deviate from the narrow path of historical truth. The advantage he gains from this is considerable. He finds it possible to learn something from men who hold on the whole erroneous views, and does not feel himself bound to denounce as fools or criminals persons who, like Mr. Coote, see traces of Roman influence in every line of English law; and, at the same time, he achieves what no controversial writer ever accomplishes. By the mere force of accumulated facts he, so to speak, "crowds out" of his path the ingenious fallacies of specialists and crochet mongers. Not a word is said of which Mr. Coote or Mr. Pearson, or any other believer in Roman or Celtic influence, can complain, but candid students who have weighed Mr. Stubbs's statements will feel convinced, once and for all, that (curious though the fact is) neither Romans nor Britons have exerted any appreciable influence on the growth of early English institutions. His intellectual coolness, combined with his firm hold of the canon that where evidence fails profitable speculation ceases, enables Mr. Stubbs to avoid all tendency to override a favorite theory. It is very instructive to contrast his language, with regard to the "mark-system," with the writings of Sir Henry Maine. Of the latter no one who appreciates originality and genius can speak without profound admiration. No modern writer has shown greater fertility in seizing the general aspects of law and history, or has done more to suggest and expound theoretical solutions for the difficult problems presented by early civilization. But this fertility in devising new theories is occasionally marred by a tendency to carry his speculations beyond the point at which they are supported by facts; and, instructive as are his suggestions with regard to the traces which may be found in England of the "mark-system," it is impossible not to suspect that these traces have, to say the least, been magnified by the force of imagination. Professor Stubbs, with characteristic prudence, fully admits that traces of such a system may be discovered among institutions of the Germans who colonized England, but is inclined to doubt whether the system existed at the time when the colonists passed from Germany to Britain. And he further is careful to propound a doctrine which (when once fully appreciated) cuts at the roots of a whole mass of ingenious speculation and rash dogmatism. "Among the first truths," he writes, "which the historical student, or, indeed, any scientific scholar, learns to recognize, this is per-

* 'The Constitutional History of England, in its Origin and Development. By W. Stubbs, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History.' Vol. I. New York: Macmillan & Co.

haps the most important, that no theory or principle works in isolation. The most logical conclusions from the truest principle are practically false unless in drawing them allowance is made for the counter-working of other principles equally true in theory, and equally dependent for practical truth on co-ordination with the first. . . . And with respect to primitive society this is especially noteworthy." The truth is that every page of Mr. Stubbs's work is an illustration of these sentences; for a chief result of the study of mediæval history is the perception which the student gains of the fact that in uncivilized, even more than in civilized, states of society a number of different principles, which often are at bottom scarcely inconsistent with each other, exert co-ordinate influence, no one being fully carried out, and, at the same time, none being without a certain real effect on society.

This full perception of the very complex nature of institutions which, like the English constitution, stretch back in their origin into the early ages of barbaric society, has, it may be suspected, produced a second marked feature in Professor Stubbs's work—that is, the very wide and extended view which he takes of his subject. On this point, as on some others, it is well worth while to compare him with Hallam. Neither writer need suffer anything from the comparison. They have each some merits which the other does not possess. Sources of information are open to Professor Stubbs which were unknown to his predecessor, and Professor Stubbs has availed himself to the full of this most legitimate advantage. Hallam, again, wrote with perfect fairness as far as intention went, but his speculations were tinged by political bias; for at the time when he wrote, questions of constitutional history had a far more direct connection with the politics of the day than they can have at present, or will in all likelihood ever have again. From such a bias Professor Stubbs is entirely free, and, what is perhaps more surprising, appears to be scarcely influenced by ecclesiastical sentiment or prejudice. A clergyman might, for example, be expected to show something more than justice to Becket, yet no writer has ever placed the conduct of Henry II. in a fairer point of view, or shown more clearly that in his conflict with the Archbishop the King was attempting to carry out a comprehensive scheme of administrative reform, of which his ecclesiastical legislation formed only a part. On the other hand, Hallam possesses in a far higher degree than the Professor the capacity for dogmatic exposition. Professor Stubbs, in his desire not to conclude too hastily, often fails to come to any conclusion at all, and in his very effort to put every fact of importance before his readers neglects at times the paramount duty of giving due prominence to the more important parts of his subject. There is, moreover, no doubt that Professor Stubbs loses something as regards success in exposition by that wide conception of his subject which forms the main distinction between him and Hallam. Constitutional history, as conceived of by the earlier writer, is, in reality, the account of the gradual transfer of sovereign power from the crown to the nation as represented by Parliament. His theme is the variations in the balance of power between King and Commons. The subject thus considered is a comparatively narrow one, and is contained within very definite limits. The writer who deals with it can omit whole fields of legal, administrative, or social history, and, though Hallam occasionally deviates into topics which have no direct bearing on the balance of power, he himself obviously feels that such deviations are hardly justified by his subject, and on the whole restricts his labors to the narrow province which he had marked out as his own. Professor Stubbs means by a constitutional history something much wider than an account of the struggle for supremacy between Crown and Parliament. His aim is to delineate the growth of institutions. The history of the law courts, of the administration, and of social changes is quite as much part of his subject as is the growth of regal or of Parliamentary power, and it is to be regretted that he should have chosen a title which, according to ordinary ideas, ties him down to a far narrower and far less interesting topic. The width of his subject, no doubt, is really a hindrance in the way of lucid exposition, but on the whole it gives his work a very peculiar character and value. He has already thrown a flood of light on early English institutions. When the book is completed we shall, it may be hoped, possess for the first time a sketch of the great complicated, administrative, ecclesiastical, and political system which goes to make up the English constitution.

"No unbiassed observer who derives pleasure from the welfare of his species can fail to consider the long and uninterruptedly increasing prosperity of England as the most beautiful phenomenon in the history of mankind. . . . In no other region have the benefits that political institutions can confer been diffused over so extended a population, nor have any people so well reconciled the discordant elements of wealth, order, and liberty. . . . The constitution, therefore, of England must be to inquisitive men of all countries an object of superior interest."

The well-known passage of Hallam of which these sentences form part, breathes the spirit of the generation who, believing firmly in the immense importance of political institutions, looked upon the English constitution as the most marvellous creation of political sagacity. The tone of the times has changed. There may be unbiassed observers who yet can conceive of no more beautiful phenomenon than the increasing prosperity of England, and there are inquisitive men on both sides of the Atlantic to whom the English constitution has ceased to be that object of superior interest which it certainly once was to statesmen of all countries. The cause of this change of sentiment would itself be a subject well worth careful enquiry. It is, however, after reading Mr. Stubbs's book a more natural question what is the real character and the true merit of that constitution which to the last generation seemed almost the most beautiful phenomenon in the history of mankind. Professor Stubbs is not a politician, and writes little which has a direct bearing on political questions, yet his work, which appears at first sight to be a mere mass of antiquarian knowledge, goes farther than any book with which we are acquainted to answer the enquiry we have propounded.

Any intelligent student who masters its contents will perceive two great facts, which, obvious as they are, have constantly been overlooked, though unless their bearing is fully understood the true character of the English constitution remains a hopeless enigma. The first fact has reference to what may be termed the form of the constitution, and may be summarily stated in the formula that the English constitution, like all mediæval institutions, has been from the first a mass of fictions. Of the fictitious character of the constitution as it has existed in later ages, every critic has been always aware, but it is often supposed that existing constitutional fictions are wholly or mainly due to the maintenance of ancient forms which have lost the significance they once possessed; and that this is one cause of the huge growth of fictions which obscures the real essence of English political arrangements is of course true, but it is not the whole or the essential cause. Take the institutions existing in England at any period you please, and you still will find the same phenomenon of a want of anything like rigid correspondence between fact and theory. William the Conqueror, for example, was as powerful and despotic a monarch as ever perhaps existed in a European country. The true basis of his rule was force, and nothing but force, yet William was in theory the elected king of the English people. The election was, as far as popular consent went, a farce, yet neither to William nor to his enemies did it probably appear a matter of unimportance. It made him, so to speak, in his own eyes and in those of his subjects, a legitimate monarch. It is again perfectly clear that Henry I. or Henry II. wielded an authority scarcely controlled by anything but by the necessity of keeping up the routine of government, yet neither to themselves nor others did these kings appear despots. To consult their council, to yield, in some respects, to the authority of the church, to keep, or pretend to keep, rights or customs which they had sworn to maintain, no doubt seemed to the kings themselves and to all their contemporaries duties which, though often neglected, were real duties. When you ask (and to have pointed out this is one of Professor Stubbs's great merits) whether such rulers were despots, you, in fact, make an enquiry to which it it is impossible to give an answer in the terms in which it is made. They had practically powers which the most powerful modern monarch does not possess, but the exercise of these powers was, in theory, limited by customs, by formulas, and by habits which had a very vague and uncertain influence, but still could not be set aside. The difficulty of determining the actual limits of the power wielded by the Angevin kings is exactly the same in character as that which meets the enquirer at all stages of English history. He is perplexed by the strange mixture of fiction and fact till he hardly knows which is shadow and which is substance. This element of confusion is not peculiar to English history. It is of the very essence of mediævalism. The duties and rights of lord and vassal, the relation of church and state, the true position of the German emperors—who were in fact German rulers of very limited power, but were in theory the successors and representatives of the Roman Cæsars—are each and all obscured by the intermingling of fact and fiction. The true peculiarity is that the constitution of England, being built up on the foundation of mediæval institutions, retains in its form the character of an age of which the spirit has passed away from the modern world.

The second great fact has reference to the spirit rather than to the form of English institutions, and may be expressed in the assertion that their one essential merit has been to secure the rule of law. Many characteristics constantly ascribed to the English constitution it has never as a matter of history possessed. It never, for example, was really an arrangement for placing the government in the hands of the wisest

or best of the nation. It never, again, until quite recent times, was a system based on anything like complete representation of the people. What we call representative government was, as Mr. Stubbs clearly shows, originally the mere outgrowth of a very complicated scheme of administrative arrangements; nor, further, did the English constitution at any time completely provide for the government by the nation in accordance with the national will. To use such terms as the will of the nation, the rule of the majority, or the influence of public opinion, in reference to the times of the Plantagenets or of the Tudors, is to fall into the worst of anachronisms, and to apply to former ages expressions which so applied are either meaningless or delusive. So far is it from being the case that England has always or generally been ruled in accordance with the national will, that even so late as a century ago the nation had not practically the power to choose by what ministers it would be governed. George III. kept one incompetent premier after another in power when the mass of the people certainly desired to keep Chatham in office. At an earlier period neither king nor commons dreamt that the people of England had any right to determine who should be the servants of the crown. As long, in fact, as enquirers strive to find in the original plan of English government what would now be considered the most essential characteristics of a popular institution, they are certain to fall into error, because they attempt to discover excellences quite foreign to the character of the English constitution.

Students who wish to understand the ground on which it really deserves admiration should take up a book like Mr. Stubbs's history, dismissing all preconceived ideas, look simply at the historical facts of the case, and ask themselves what has been throughout the essential peculiarity of English political development. The one marked characteristic will in such examination be found to be that, through a fortunate combination of circumstances, the rule of law was established in England at a time when it was unknown in every other great country of Europe. This supremacy of law has been the feature which has struck all acute observers of English political life. It was apparent to Comines when he wrote that "among all the world's lordships of which I have knowledge" England is "that where the public weal is best ordered and where least violence reigns over the people." The same feature at a later age struck Voltaire when he took refuge in a land of law and order from the dangers of illegal arrest and arbitrary imprisonment. It is, again, the one salient feature of the rule of the first two Henrys. These kings were in one sense despots, but they built up a great administrative system which established the power of the law throughout every part of their kingdom, and which, harsh and oppressive as it was, by the mere force of rigid routine at once curbed the lawlessness of feudal barons, and to a certain extent checked, if not the power, yet at any rate the arbitrariness, of the crown itself. Mr. Stubbs's present volume, taken together with his admirable collection of charters and documents illustrative of English history, gives the fullest account yet produced of this grand system of administration, which was planned in outline by William the Conqueror, and partly developed by the first and second Henrys. He directs attention to the curious paradox which lies at the basis of English institutions, that the great power of the crown was in a sense the cause of the ultimate freedom of the people. In his pages intelligent readers may see how the power of the king first checked the lawlessness of the nobility, then established a uniform system of law and of direct taxation which still forms the foundation of the English scheme of government and administration, and lastly accustomed the English people to that rule of the severe but always fixed and definite law which is the real glory of English institutions, and which, in ages when arbitrary government was universally established throughout the rest of Europe, made the English constitution, with all its obvious defects, seem the most beautiful phenomenon in the history of mankind to all statesmen and theorists interested in the welfare of the human species.

## THE PRINCE CONSORT.*

IT must be admitted that Mr. Theodore Martin had a difficult task. He was obliged to be fair and at the same time to be flattering—to please his own conscience and yet to please the Queen. Her Majesty, it is known, has established what the French call a *culte* of the memory of her late husband. She has been, throughout Mr. Martin's work, his constantly implied coadjutor; she has furnished the greater part of the material used; and she has, in a measure, prescribed the key in which the performance was to be pitched. Mr. Martin, on the other hand, strikes us as a man of sense and of taste—not a man to enjoy working with his hands tied—tied even with golden cords. He has solved the problem very happily, and succeeded in being courtly without being fulsome. The reader, indeed, forgives an extra genuflexion now and then in view of the cause at issue. All biographers stand pledged to take their heroes very seriously, and it is not always that exaggeration of praise is so venial a sin as in the case of the subject of Mr. Martin's memoir. The Prince Consort was an eminently honorable and amiable man, and in being summoned to admire him we are summoned to admire the great amenities and decencies of life. It is probable that if he had not been elevated by fortune into a position of great dignity, the eyes of the world would never have found themselves very attentively fixed upon him. But his merit and the interest of his life lay precisely in the fact that, without brilliant powers, he contrived to adorn a brilliant position. Fortune offered him a magnificent opportunity to show good taste. The Prince Consort appreciated his chance, availed himself of it to the utmost, and has bequeathed to posterity an image of the discreet prince *par excellence*. We take it that, if he had chosen, he might have done quite otherwise. His marriage was a love-match, and the Queen to the end seems to have been determined it should remain one. Her Majesty admits us into her confidence on this point with a frankness which is worthy to become a classic example of virtuous conjugal fidelity.

Mr. Martin gives an agreeable sketch of Prince Albert's early years, which were apparently passed in no more brilliant fashion than those of any well-born young gentleman with a taste for study. He was handsome, amiable, very well-behaved, and, if anything, a trifle too serious and high-toned. He was not fond of ladies and compliments, and thought they made one waste a great deal of time. From the first he was religious, as became a descendant of the first German prince who had come to the help of Luther. Mr. Martin gives a great many extracts from letters and journals, which, however, rarely offer anything salient enough to quote. The Prince's writing, like that of the Queen, though in a much less degree, is rather pale and cold, and tends to give one the impression that, in royal circles, the standard of wit is not necessarily high. Here are a few lines from one of the Queen's letters, written during a visit to Louis Philippe in 1843: "The people are very respectable-looking and very civil, crying 'Vive la Reine d'Angleterre!' The King is so pleased. The caps of the women are very picturesque, and they also wear colored handkerchiefs and aprons, which looks very pretty. . . . It is the population and not the country which strikes me as so extremely different from England—their faces, dress, manners, everything." Quite the best writing in this first volume of Mr. Martin's is to be found in his numerous quotations from the Baron Stockmar, a personage who has not enjoyed a wide celebrity, but who, without exactly being called one of the occult forces of history, exerted a very large private influence. He was a simple citizen of Coburg, where he practised medicine and became intimate with the Queen's maternal uncle, Prince Leopold, later King of the Belgians. Through him he was made known to the young prince and princess, before their marriage. He occupied no high positions, and though he was charged with an occasional political mission, the part he played was generally that of informal, confidential adviser. He was admirably fitted for it by his extreme integrity and sagacity, and the advice he gave—and which seems to have ranged over the most various points of public and private conduct—was remarkable both for its shrewdness and for its elevation and purity. His relation to the young Prince and to the Queen was one of paternal solicitude, and they apparently showed him in return an almost filial deference. Baron Stockmar seems to have been afraid that the Prince would prove rather too light a weight. "His judgment is in many things beyond his years," he writes in 1839; "but hitherto, at least, he shows not the slightest interest in politics. Even while the most important occurrences are in progress and their issues undecided, he does not care to look into a newspaper; he holds, moreover, all foreign journals in abhorrence." In this respect, later, however, the Prince left nothing to be desired. An active politician he of course was forbidden ever to become; but he was an attentive observer and a conscientious, an even laborious, reasoner. Baron Stockmar's good counsels on his marriage were especially opportune; there is something almost touching in the young man's devout desire to accommodate himself irreproachably to his high position. He was by nature discreet and cautious, and of a temperament, we should imagine, the reverse of nervous, and it probably cost him no great effort to keep himself carefully in hand. The difficulties of his position, however, were not small, and he had to resist encroachments as well as to avoid making them. His dignity had constantly to contend with the imputation, more or less explicit and ironical, as might happen, that he was where he was

* 'The Life of His Royal Highness the Prince Consort. By Theodore Martin.' Volume I. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875.

simply that the Queen might have heirs. But whatever there might have been originally of a trifle grotesque and anomalous in his situation, the Prince effectually lived it down, as the phrase is. He never became positively popular, and to the end of the chapter, we believe, the mass of his wife's subjects had their little joke about his imperfect horsemanship and seamanship; but he inspired a great deal of tranquil respect. Mr. Martin, indeed, offers evidence that the Prince was a good rider, and that early in his English career he proved his competency in the hunting field. After that he let the matter alone. He let it too much alone, probably, to please the lusty British public. His tastes lay in another direction, and were of the so-called elegant sort. He preferred the fine arts to the turf, and "encouraged" concerts rather than pigeon-shooting. He remained always a German in character, as he had excellent reason to do, but he played his part of Englishman very creditably. It was a part that had to be learned from the beginning almost, for up to the eve of his marriage he spoke English but poorly.

Mr. Martin's first volume is a record of the domestic life of the royal couple up to the year 1848. He touches a good deal, of course, upon public matters—often to an extent that leads one to charge him with being conscious of a want of lively interest in the Prince's more immediately personal history. The long and detailed chapter on the Spanish Marriages, for instance, strikes one as not being in the least biographical matter. The only relation these events had to the Prince was that during a visit of the Queen to Louis Philippe, in which he accompanied her, the French King had given a verbal assurance that no such projects were entertained. The Prince reformed the royal household, and put it on an economical footing, became Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, proposed to the Duke of Wellington the establishment of "courts of honor" to replace duelling in the army (a proposal which the "Iron Duke," thinking perhaps that it savored of German transcendentalism, received without enthusiasm), bought, with the Queen, the domain of Osborne, and spent much time and thought in planting and decorating it, established and conducted, baton in hand (as we infer) the so-called "antient concerts," set on foot the fresco-painting in the Houses of Parliament (ungrateful memento as this now appears), ordered pictures, composed songs, laid foundation-stones, studied industrial processes, and through all and above all was the most caressed and adored of husbands. Such conjugal felicity as that of the Queen and Prince would be remarkable in any walk of life, and we suppose that in their exalted station it is peculiarly exemplary. The Queen is determined we shall not lose a single detail of it. She chronicles that after her various confinements his "care and devotion were quite beyond expression. No one but himself ever lifted her from her bed to her sofa, and he always helped to wheel her on her bed or her sofa into the next room. For this purpose he would come instantly when sent for from any part of the house; . . . he ever came with a sweet smile on his face. In short, his care of her was that of a mother, nor could there be a kinder, wiser, or more judicious nurse." When he makes visits or receives them she registers with delight the favorable impression he produces, and is immensely gratified at the French compliments paid him by the Emperor Nicholas. Her Majesty's notes on this subject have a quality which bespeak some sympathy for the biographer who is compelled to interweave them with his narrative. The truth is that the Prince Consort was not in any degree, save through his marriage, an eminent man; and without resorting, in the case of this memoir, to the homely adage which restricts the material of which one may attempt to make a silk purse, we may say that even all Mr. Martin's courtly ingenuity and pulling and stretching of his material, quite fail to elevate his subject to heroic proportions. The Prince, like many other gentlemen, was a man of heart and of a good deal of taste of a limited kind, who took life seriously, and cherished an eminently respectable desire to do his duty in that station in which it had pleased Heaven to place him. He was an exemplary husband and father, and a placid dilettante, less in the large way than in the narrow. We suspect that his great modesty and good sense would have been somewhat ruffled by the prospect of being commemorated on the extensive scale of these volumes, which, although they do not reveal to us another unsuspected Marcus Aurelius, confirm our friendly and even tender estimate of him. The whole atmosphere of Mr. Martin's book, to tell the truth, is charged with an oppressive mediocrity. As to this, the book is really a very queer one. We are in the company of very great people; but, bless us, how extremes meet! The work is densely interlarded, as we have said, with notes and communications from the Queen's hand, and her Majesty's touch and accent are really irritating to the nerves, in their flatness and vapidity. The work is worth reading, however, for it provokes one to philosophic reflections. If some of the bad Roman emperors had not descended into the circus, and if Frederic the Great had been less of a scribbler, we would say that nothing could be more characteristically modern than this descent of a British monarch into the circulating-library. As it is, there are touches and oddities about it which make it modern enough. And without wishing to philosophize, many of Mr. Martin's readers will find much remuneration. The constitution of the human mind as yet is such that there is a great chance for a book which can offer you a bit like this: "Victoria was safely delivered this morning, and though it be a daughter my joy and gratitude are very great. . . . V. and the baby are perfectly well."

---

*Half-hour Lectures on the History and Practice of the Fine and Ornamental Arts.* By William B. Scott. Third Edition. Illustrations by W. J. Linton. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.)—It is a popular notion that a painter cannot be a good critic of painting, as though the preference inherent in choosing that branch of art, or a personal interest in the subject, deposed the judgment. The reverse is almost absolutely true, viz., that no one, not a painter, can adequately judge of a picture; and though men properly qualified by practice and study often err in comparative estimates of art, especially when they themselves enter upon it, it will be found that the mistake lies generally in overestimating themselves and their work rather than in underestimating their rivals.

Mr. Scott, whose reputation as an artist is above that of the average of English painters, is a good argument against the popular fallacy alluded to, and a still more striking illustration of *ne sutor ultra crepidam.* So long as the author adheres to his "history and practice" he does well; his studies have been wide, his collation is concise, and his book of great interest and value, though in style far from what a third edition should have made it. When, however, he attempts philosophizing on art he is *ultra crepidam.* He has the common tendency of writers who cannot generalize to suppose that everything must begin with some general statement, which is certain in the main to be incorrect. He opens this book with the following:

"Whatever touches us most deeply in the forms or motives of art dates no further back than that epoch in the history of the world when the great and wonderful change began from paganism to Christianity, from philosophy to revelation, from sensuous refinement to moral self-abnegation. When we pass beyond our own era, we enter an atmosphere foreign to modern vital principles; we cannot live in it—we may only indulge in it; it affects us intellectually, not feelingly. The fundamental ideas of the ancient artists are not ours, their habits have no interest to us; we cannot help thinking of them as having lived abstractively from sympathies and passions, cold and deaf to human cares and enjoyments."

In this passage the author has put as many errors as assertions. *As art,* nothing touches the highly-cultivated taste so deeply as the remains of Greek sculpture, and it is sufficient to quote this opening sentence to show that the writer's perceptions of art are hopelessly mixed up with some of those associated elements of sentiment and ecclesiasticism which have for the most part clouded the sky of modern art. For the rest, it would be curious if Mr. Scott could show that any such great and wonderful change has yet taken place in the world at large, or that modern society has been distinguished less for "sensuous refinement" and more for "moral self-abnegation" than that in which Socrates and Plato lived. Mr. Scott lives, we believe, in London, and can collect materials for a judgment without much trouble. As for his expression, "When we pass beyond our own era, etc.," it is hard to know what it means. It is a logical, analogical, and symbolical muddle, from which we may extract the possible meaning that we should not have been happy if we had lived with our present views and habits in the times anterior to the Christian era; which, as a generalization, is another absurdity, because there are undoubtedly large sections of the earth's surface where life is passed very much after the antique manner, and where many English travellers seem to be willing to accept the conditions of existence. If it means that we have no place in the thought of antiquity, it is equally untrue, for the thought of the ancients is part of our every-day education, and their art the basis of all our art. "The fundamental ideas of the ancient artists are not ours, etc.," is exactly controverted by what the author says on another page, that "beauty is the inspiration" of genius, for beauty in some of its forms has ever been, as it is now, the "fundamental idea" of all pure art; and the higher the education of the student of art rises, the more clearly does he perceive that Greek art contains for form, as that of Venice does for color, the essential or "fundamental" ideas of all subsequent genuine work. The author seems to have fallen into the superficial notion so common with a certain class of German critics, that human nature in B.C. 900 was in some incomprehensible way different from that of A.D. 1870, and that because Greek artists are known to us only by stone they must have been stone, intellectually and morally, "hav-

ing lived abstractively from sympathies and passions, cold and deaf to human cares and enjoyments."

In fact, the moment our author ceases to deal with ascertainable data of practice or history, he becomes unreliable ; and when he ventures into speculation or metaphysics he encumbers his book with unprofitable rubbish. Thus he tells us that Marc-Antonio was inferior to the German contemporary engravers, and adds : "Indeed, his copying thirty of Dürer's woodcut prints of the Passion of Christ . . . is an acknowledgment of his own inferiority in design at least"—as if that had anything to do with his inferiority, or the reverse, to his rivals the German *engravers*. Of Hogarth he remarks : "It is his invention, his inflexible tragic and satiric feeling, repulsive and gross as it is, that places him in the *first rank of art*"—the fact being that while Hogarth's "tragic and satiric feeling" places him in the first rank of satirists, he never was in the first rank of art. Finally, not to multiply instances, he speaks of lithography (p. 181) as "properly called chemical printing, in distinction from other methods which are purely mechanical," whereas there is no such distinction in the case, the term "chemical printing" being as inapplicable to lithography as to etching.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* | |
|---|---|---|
| American Public Health Association, Reports and Papers, Vol. I... | (Hurd & Houghton) | 6 50 |
| Abbott (Rev. E. A.), How to Write Clearly | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie, Part I., swd | (F. W. Christern) | |
| Bowles (Emily), In the Camargue : a Tale, swd | (A. K. Loring) | 0 75 |
| Baxley (Dr. H. W.), Spain, 2 vols | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Bibble Memoirs, swd | (A. Denham & Co.) | 0 20 |
| Becker (B. H.), Scientific London | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Belcher (Rev. H.), Short Exercises in Latin Prose Composition | (Macmillan & Co.) | |
| Craven (Mme.), The Veil Withdrawn | (Cath. Pub. Soc.) | 1 50 |

# Fine Arts.

## THE WATER-COLOR SOCIETY'S EXHIBITION.

III.

WATER-COLOR offers peculiar temptations to artists to introduce a style of figures into landscape which are a little more important than those usual in oil-color scenery, and which interrupt the out-of-door sentiment while by no means satisfying the closer study accorded to legitimate figure-groups. Of this class, the large parade of children in the autumnal woods (263), by Mr. Bellows, is an instance. This rather unlucky family of girls destroy the privacy of the woods, yet are not in the least interesting as child-characters. Birket Foster has introduced much of this perfunctory figure-furniture, trailing off from the saliencies of his landscapes in such a way as to build out the lines of the composition; and all the cartoon painters seem to think that the trick may be imputed to them for righteousness. Singularly enough, these groups of figures, unable to lie quiet in the corners and not fit for exhibition in the focus—the hobbledehoyhood between figure-painting and landscape-painting—are always groups of hobbledehoys. Great girls, with awkward hands and peasant sun-bonnets, and boys of terrible vacuousness, intrude into the picture with the self-dissatisfaction and unsatisfactoriness of their class. After these upholstery-figures, there is immense relish in the most capricious sketches of Mr. Homer, in the vaguest gossips or sea-side loungers of Mr. Bush, or even in the styleless and illustration-like group of turkey-shooters of Mr. Scott.

Mr. Bellows, in fact, with the other introducers of populating figures in the style of Birket Foster, is a determined architect of compositions. Every landscape he finishes has its allotted centre and periphery, its prominent object and its leading lines, its thread of white ducks or its pair of promenaders in strong relief, and the trick is titillating until you detect it. He paints like no English water-colorist ; yet the routine and stencil-work of the English water-colorist have artistically deadened him. His "Devonshire Cottages" and his "View near Torquay," his Surrey landscape and his elegant little india-ink sketch, are beautiful to the point of being pretty. He works, too, with megilp or other varnishy substance, so that his touches collect like corpuscles or coagulated particles, as a pen will write on a porcelain slate ; this vehicle, which allows him to use any quantity of body-color without losing transparency, has its advantages, and seems to comport well with his way of seeing nature ; but it enhances, for his water-colors, the look of sponginess and deliquescence which even in his oil pictures is sufficiently unsatisfactory.

Mr. James D. Smillie, too, in his pair of large subjects in distemper, introduces figures with a strong intention to make them mean a good deal. The lovers walking abroad in "Autumn" and the playing child watched by her mother in the "Spring," are placed where the eye is instantly clamped down upon them like an iron on a magnet ; they are expressive, and are not too big, but they are not sufficiently studied. The pair of pictures in question, though they have that set purpose of being ornamental we observe in fire-screens, are skilfully treated ; but they do not define their place in art between the sentiment-picture, meant to talk to the heart, and the decorative picture, intended to fill up an architectural space. A very finely pencilled composition by Mr. George H. Smillie, representing the Yo-Semite scenery, is rather unfortunately not open to sale, though it has attracted much artistic attention.

The painter who feels that his best, his sweetest mission is to please, should not, like Mr. J. G. Brown, extinguish a pretty little girl in a Louis XIV. wig. The confusion of epochs is distracting, and the most careful work given to outlining an accidental zigzag shadow on a cheek will not please in the case of a little female dandy with a drawing-room air sailing boats in the rustic horse-trough. Mr. E. L. Henry, who is a very delightful and entertaining and thorough antiquarian, seems not to have the slightest idea of handling water-colors. In his scene with the old yellow cabriolet, the background is sketched with a timidity that positively makes the spectator uncomfortable ; and again, a slip, unusual with Mr. Henry, has made the head of the rider quite disproportionate to that of the footman. Mr. Reinhart shows a good study of two French exquisites at sword-practice, full of alertness and grace, though a slight thing. Mr. W. L. Sheppard has a black voter succumbing to the wiles of a ward politician, designed in a rude and common manner, yet not inartistic, and, we need not say, strong and pat in expression. Vaini, the resident Italian, contributes several studies that are positively hateful for their etiolated rococo folly, their immodest pretentions of effect, looseness of design, and a general valet-like insolence not easy to define more exactly. It is the art of the modern Roman school brought down to the servants' hall.

The study of grapes by Mr. W. J. Linton is perfect for firm, bloomy plumpness, and easily the best fruit-study exhibited. That of the "Clove in the Catskills" is delicate and rather mincing in its movement of water, reminding one of Mr. Ruskin when most deeply impressed and most completely paralyzed by conscientiousness. The flower-studies of Mr. Lambdin have been alluded to before, but we may once again give prominence to his well-balanced campanili of tiger-lilies cut against an excellent sky, and his rose-bush, overrun and borne down by a lushy English ivy—a composition which amounts almost to a drama, and certainly does to a parable. To convey a landscape-feeling along with groups that are substantially still-life groups, has been a pleased object of study with many flower and bird painters, *e.g.* Mr. Lambdin and Miss Bridges—an object revived, we may say, since the studios were flooded by the Japanese patterns, with their statuesque groups of irises or tortoises in front, and the quick dash at an illimitable horizon above ; and no trick of composition so well carries the thoughts out of the sick-room air of the still-life painter's studio, with its varnish-bottles and porcelain saucers, its anxious-looking flowers, grape-bunches, and lemons half-cut through. Our obligation is not small to that nature-loving race which has added a sky-line and an outlook to our ornamental panels and screen-paintings. Collections like the present, with their varied experiments in decorative effect, are much occupied with the relations of object-painting, whether of birds, animals, or nosegays, towards the landscape setting. To paint a plant is well enough ; but to add that supplementary study which sets it with its natural relief against a chosen sky-motive, helps the suggestion and the escape of the mind almost to infinity. The dishevelled sheep and shepherdess of Mr. Magrath are in keen harmony with his rolling moors and blowing sky ; it would be hard to explain just what loss of sentiment or contraction of the perspective makes the sheep-drawings of Brissot mere animal models, and nothing more ; yet the eye instantly seizes the former as a poem, and the latter as an academic exercise. The dogs, by Le Jeune, have the gravity and meditative purpose of dogs, and define a storied epoch before or during the hunt, while they make the recital real by the appropriate solidity with which they stand out in the picture. On the other hand, the lions and tigers of Mr. Wolf have the cruel poison of the Zoölogical ; it would be but another step in art to introduce the arsenic under their hides and promote them to taxidermy ; they are painted with the thinness and flatness of transparencies, and the limner plainly shows the metaphysical English trait—he wastes himself in guesses at what the lion and tiger are thinking about, and in a sort of moral censure of their low, prowling ways, instead of giving his best thoughts to the expression of light, shade, and relief, so as to make the eye believe in the solidity of his forms.

To return to the unadjusted balance or oscillation of figures with landscape in some of these water-colors, there is reality in the forcible aid which Mr. J. D. Smillie's figures, in his "Idle Hours," give to the scenery. This drawing by the society's president shows each element consciously aiding

the other, while the human element is interesting enough, with its little tale of idle summer love, to bear its place in the foreground. If we compare it with the almost insulting presence of Mr. Bellows's great girls precipitated into the whispering woods—with Mr. Bricher's clay-cold pairs inserted at the proper place like statuettes in his avenues—with Prout's view of the Riva dei Schiavoni thronged with lay figures in nightcaps, *obligato* fishermen, causing us to understand in a new sense the flattering remark that Prout paints crowds one wants to get out of the way of—we shall see how much better a little thoughtful figure-work, even in such slight cartoon-drawings, is than the determined rush of vapid supernumeraries, whipped into a scene to give it a human and affable air. It is because the *aquarelle* seems especially taxed with this billeting of meaningless street-crowds or ornamental Birket-Foster groups, that the subject has been dwelt on here.

Mr. Richards, having long since invented the grave coast-scene in monochrome, with waves carefully cut in every facet like a gem, must be struck with the long procession of disciples he has involuntarily created. "Most can raise the flowers now, for all have got the seed." His best example this year is the group of cedars at Atlantic City, with their twisted, athletic limbs and foliage shorn sheer off to a level on the windward side, set on a coast all variegated with the ribbed patterns of drifting sand and the *moire* of pools left by the tide. Of his obvious imitators, Mr. Bricher, in his large Halifax scene, gives the more obvious qualities of the original, but there is a striking difference—in the unfeeling writing-master's flourishes in body-color with which the curl of the breaker and the high lights on the rock are defined. In Mr. Richards's marines every touch has the expression of soul. It seems to be hardly so, however, with the same artist's touch for foliage; more than once, as in the foreground trees of 298 and 174, he shows a new, blotted style that has neither generalization nor definition. Mr. Nicoll's late efforts in landscape or marine exhibit a peculiar sponged-out appearance, not referable to any effect we recollect in nature; the landscapes, covered with a sort of yellowish mucus that obliterates all articulation, are sickly-looking and uninviting; the sea-studies are often like views into a dirty aquarium; and where a strong effort is made to express the violence of strong spray, the motion is rather turbulent than imposing. The windiest air and the wildest foam act according to laws, and it is a better thing to try and express those laws, however imperfectly, than to express the confusion of mind which one is apt to feel in looking at such phenomena; a little more attention, and optical analysis will convince an artist that a riot of dashing spray looks otherwise than powder beaten out of a peruke, and that it expresses its wildness by rules which are the central part of the emotion it inspires.

The collection, in substantially its old form, will be opened for exhibition in Brooklyn next week, the sold pictures being replaced by others; and the continuation of the exhibition over so long a period between the two cities gives us opportunity for this extension of a notice now partly retrospective.


JUST PUBLISHED.

*Lectures on the Early History of Institutions.*

By SIR HENRY SUMNER MAINE.

8vo, cloth, $3.

*Ancient Law.*

Its Connection with the Early History of Society, and its Relation to Modern Ideas. Third American from the Fifth London Edition. 8vo, cloth, $3.

RECENTLY PUBLISHED:

*MISTRESS JUDITH.*

A Cambridgeshire story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler. With an Illustration. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

*AFRICA:*

The History of Exploration and Adventure, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and numerous Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

*ADAMS'S DEMOCRACY AND* Monarchy in France. From the Inception of the Great Revolution to the Overthrow of the Second Empire. Revised Edition. 8vo, $2 50.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE MAD-*ding Crowd. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*MILL'S THREE ESSAYS ON RE-*ligion. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*ESTES & LAURIAT,*

PUBLISHERS AND BOOKSELLERS,

143 Washington Street, Boston. (Opp. Old South.)

*TOO MUCH ALONE.* By Mrs. J. H. Riddell, author of 'Rich Husband,' 'A Life's Assize,' etc. 1 vol. 8vo, paper, 75 cts.

"It is one of the very best of recent fictions."—*Spy.*

"A Romance with an excellent moral."—*Commercial.*

"An unexceptionably interesting and instructive story."—*Eve. Register.*

The above or any book published in U. S. sent postpaid on receipt of price by

ESTES & LAURIAT.

*DODD & MEAD*

HAVE LATELY PUBLISHED.

By Hesba Stretton.

*THE WONDERFUL LIFE.*

A Life of Christ for Unlearned Readers. By the author of 'Jessica,' 'Lost Gip,' 'Bede's Charity,' etc. 16mo, Illustrated, $1 50.

"The book is charmingly written, the hand which penned 'Jessica's First Prayer' and 'Alone in London' having lost none of its grace in dealing with this higher theme."—*The Advance.*

"So it has been left for a woman, after all, to produce the best uninspired life of woman's Lord and Saviour yet published in our language."—*Christian at Work.*

By Norman McLeod.

*CHARACTER SKETCHES.*

1 vol. 12mo, Illustrated, $1 50.

CONTENTS: Billy Buttons—Our Bob—Aunt Mary—T. T. Fitzroy, Esq.—Mr. Joseph Walker—The Highland Witch—The Old Guard—The Water Horse—A True Ghost Story—Job Jacobs and His Boxes—Wee Davie.

By the Same Author, in uniform style.

*THE STARLING.*

12mo, Illustrated, $1 50.

DODD & MEAD, PUBLISHERS,

762 Broadway, New York.

Important New Books to be Published in March by

*DODD & MEAD.*

I. DR. JOHN HALL.

*THE YALE LECTURES ON* Preaching, for 1875. By Rev. John Hall, D.D., of New York. In 1 vol. 12mo.

II. DR. STORRS.

*PREACHING WITHOUT NOTES* By Rev. R. S. Storrs, D.D., of Brooklyn. 1 vol. 12mo.

III. DR. HALL AND GEO. H. STUART.

*AN ACCOUNT OF THE REVIVAL* in Scotland and Ireland, Under the Labors of Moody and Sankey. Edited jointly by Rev. John Hall, D.D., and Geo. H. Stuart. 1 vol. 12mo.

IV. DR. ATWATER.

*THE JEWISH TABERNACLE:* Its History and Significance. By Rev. E. Atwater, of New Haven. 1 handsome 8vo vol. Copiously Illustrated.

V.

*A NEW WORK ON META-*physics. By Rev. John Miller, author of 'Fetich in Theology.' In 1 vol. 8vo.

VI.

*A NEW STORY BY GEORGE* Macdonald.

VII.

*A NEW STORY BY THE AU-*thor of 'The Schönberg-Cotta Family.'

DODD & MEAD, PUBLISHERS,

762 Broadway, New York.

*HURD & HOUGHTON*

NEW YORK;

THE RIVERSIDE PRESS, CAMBRIDGE,

Publish the best editions of the works of

*DICKENS, BACON,*
*COOPER, MACAULAY,*
*ANDERSEN, CARLYLE,*
*MONTAIGNE, PASCAL,*

and other Standard authors.

SEND FOR A CATALOGUE.

*"THE READER" on several new and remarkable Text-Books, and the announcements of Messrs. Macmillan & Co. for this week, are on page* 158.

*Dr. Gannett's Life.*

*Ezra Stiles Gannett:*

Unitarian Minister in Boston, 1824–1871. A MEMOIR. By his son, WILLIAM C. GANNETT. With a Steel Engraved Portrait, after a crayon by Rowse, and twenty-four Chapter Vignette Illustrations. Price $3.

CONTENTS:

I. The Home and the Boy, 1801–1816. II. Seeking and Finding, 1816–1820. III. The Rise of Unitarianism in New England. IV. The Girding, 1821–1824. V. Morning Work, Without and Within, 1824–1836. VI. Rest in Europe, 1836–1838. VII. The Transcendental Movement in New England. VIII. Mid-day: Keeping the Faith, 1838–1852. IX. Afternoon: Anti-Slavery and War Times, 1852–1865. X. A Father in the Church, 1865–1871. XI. After-Glow. XII. Sermons.

For sale everywhere by all booksellers. Mailed, post-paid, by the publishers,

ROBERTS BROTHERS,

BOSTON.

*RAPID TRANSIT and TERMINAL FREIGHT FACILITIES.*

Report to the American Society of Civil Engineers. By O. Chanute, M. N. Fooney, Ashbel Welch, Charles K. Graham, and Francis Collingwood. 8vo, 81 pages, and folded Plate of Tables, paper, 75 cents.

D. VAN NOSTRAND, PUBLISHERS,

23 Murray St. and 27 Warren St.

*** Copies sent free by mail on receipt of price.

# MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.'S PAGE.

## *The Reader.*

MORRIS'S 'ENGLISH GRAMMAR,' FOR THE SERIES OF LITERATURE PRIMERS.—ELLIS'S 'LATIN PRONUNCIATION.'—LATIN GRAMMAR, READER, AND PROSE COMPOSITION, BY ALLEN, NUNNS, AND BELCHER.—WATSON'S 'LETTERS OF CICERO.'

Among the happy privileges prepared for the rising generation of students, that of learning from text-books composed in a philosophical method, and not an arbitrary method, is perhaps the most welcome; for the young are natural logicians, and instinctively resent being dragooned into science. In the 'Primer of English Grammar' just written by Dr. Richard Morris, President of the British Philological Society, and condensed into about a hundred pages of plain instruction, we find this advantage fully shown. The learner is made from the beginning to feel an interest in the historical aspect of our grammar; to appreciate those roots which, as they are the oldest, are the most vital and the strongest; and, while admiring the "sabre-cuts of Saxon Speech" which give incisiveness to all our best models of style, to recognize secondarily the graces and variations which came in with the intercourse which English history developed with the southern nations of Europe. Of Dr. Morris's little grammar in general, it should be noted that, apart from this progressive method which gives it some of the interest of a history, it has the clearest definitions, the most radical analysis of English syntax, and the most happily chosen models, ever pressed into the service of this branch of study. The wonder is how so much can be taught in a mere pamphlet.

This volume opens a series of "Literature Primers," prepared with the utmost skill of condensation, under the general editorship of J. R. Green, M.A., the author of an English history which has risen into a sudden prominence on account of its peculiarity of dealing rather with the progress of thought and culture in Britain than with mere politics. Mr. Green is attached to that method of Evolution which is the true method of studying all our history and all our science; the series of Primers will probably all recognize this evolutionary system, and will include an example of historical teaching from the pen of the editor himself. The compact force with which the various subjects will be presented will be found to depend in part upon that historic and progressive method which links all learning together as the development of the human mind. The Primers will soon be published in America by Macmillan & Co.

A cluster of Latin text-books, recently issued by this firm, is of extraordinary interest, because of the radical change in pronunciation and spelling now taught by the best English masters of the Latin language. The world-compelling tongue which has so long been the mainstay of international communication has been shorn of some part of its effect in our English education, on account of an arbitrary habit of pronunciation. Nothing is more certain than that this untenable habit, defended as it is by the prejudice of many generations, will have to yield to a more philosophical one. It seems strange at first to have *cujus* and *major* spelt with *i* instead of *j*, and so pronounced, and the *æ* and *œ* separated. The slow school may wince, as they do at the prevailing change of names of deities into the Greek forms instead of their Latinized translations; and many lovers of literature and poetry may declare, with a brilliant critic of the present day, that they are not willing to go through the thorny wilderness of change in order that their children may enter upon a philological Canaan; but it is as sure that the more philosophical method will obtain the suffrage of the future as it is that a nearer approach is thus made to the speech of the ancients. Our successors will become familiar with *maior*, *caius*, *Caesar*, and *Romae*, just as in course of time the deities of Pope's Homer will have the unfamiliar names, and not those of Swinburne's poems and Browning's new version of Aristophanes.

The little essay on the Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin, for the use of classical teachers, by Mr. Alexander J. Ellis, is a strangely enthusiastic performance, bearing on this change of habit, and tracing it to its depths. "The real trouble of the new pronunciation begins," he insists, "just where no trouble is suspected—in accent and quantity"; and he proceeds, with immense pains and the most original methods of copying oratorical expression, with study of all the pronunciation of the South, and with hints derived from Lucien Bonaparte, to teach the prosody of the Augustan age.

The Elementary Latin Grammar of John Barrow Allen, M.A., of New College, Oxford, is a short and admirable treatise, with some useful departure from former grammars in its analysis of the perfect tense, and with dependence on a multitude of classified examples rather than on repeated rules.

A 'First Latin Reader,' by Rev. T. J. Nunns, M.A., and 'Short Exercises in Latin Prose Composition,' by Rev. Mr. Belcher, are books resulting from wide educational experience and the study of many models, and prepare the student for composition and the enjoyment of the most delightful writers.

As an exercise and a literary pleasure, the selection from Cicero's Epistles, by Mr. Albert Watson, is a judicious presentment. These choice examples of a fascinating *causerie* include some of the great Roman's advices to his brother Quintus, the pro-prætor of Asia, and his correspondence with Atticus, to which we especially refer as a mirror of Cicero's own character, with its mixture of wisdom and foible.

Messrs. Watson, Allen, and Nunns's manuals belong to the Clarendon Press Series.

A New Series of

## *History and Literature Primers,*

EDITED BY J. R. GREEN, M.A.,

Author of 'A Short History of the English People.'

*ENGLISH GRAMMAR.* By the Rev. R. Morris, LL.D. 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper cover, 30 cents. [This day.

The following will shortly be published:

*HISTORY:*

EUROPEAN HISTORY. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D.

GREEK HISTORY. By C. A. Fyffe, M.A., Fellow and late Tutor of University College, Oxford.

ROMAN HISTORY. By the Rev. M. Creighton, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Merton College, Oxford.

ENGLISH HISTORY. By J. R. Green, M.A., author of 'A Short History of the English People.'

FRENCH HISTORY. By Charlotte M. Yonge, Author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe,' etc.

GEOGRAPHY. By George Grove, Esq.

*LITERATURE:*

GREEK LITERATURE. By R. C. Jebb, M.A. Public Orator in the University of Cambridge.

LATIN LITERATURE. By the Rev. Dr. F. W. Farrar, F.R.S., Head Master of Marlborough College.

ENGLISH LITERATURE. By the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke, M.A.

PHILOLOGY. By John Peile, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Christ's College, Cambridge.

THE BIBLE. By George Grove, Esq.

Others will follow.

### NEW BOOKS.

*EGYPTIAN SEPULCHRES AND* Syrian Shrines. Including a visit to Palmyra. By Emily A. Beaufort (Viscountess Strangford), author of 'The Eastern Shores of the Adriatic.' New edition, crown 8vo, $2 50. [This day.

*LAOCOÖN:* Translated from the Text of Lessing. With Preface and Notes by the Rt. Hon. Sir R. J. Phillimore, D.C.L. With Woodburytype Illustrations. 8vo, $4.

*L. VON RANKE'S HISTORY OF* England, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated from the German. 6 vols. 8vo, $24.

Professor Ranke has long been known as a most laborious and enlightened historian, and the special study which he has devoted to the history of England has borne fruit in the present most valuable work. As the title implies, the kernel of the book is a careful record and examination of the stirring events and changes by which the seventeenth century was marked in England, but the author has given us more than a history of this period, for he has prefixed to it a most interesting and luminous sketch of the earlier part of our history, presented in the form of studies of its most important epochs, and at the end has added a series of appendices comprising critical discussions on the chief contemporary writers of the period, and also by a mass of original documents, for the most part published now for the first time. The English version has been supplied by a body of translators, whose knowledge and appreciation of the work have ensured the production of a spirited and accurate translation.

*SHORT EXERCISES IN LATIN* Prose Composition, and Examination Papers in Latin Grammar. With a chapter on the Analysis of Sentences. By the Rev. H. Belcher, M.A., Assistant Master in King's College School, London. 18mo, 75 cts.

### NEW BOOKS.

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE* English People. By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. With Genealogical and Chronological Tables, and Colored Maps. Crown 8vo, $2.

"To say that Mr. Green's book is better than those which preceded it would be to convey a very inadequate impression of its merits. It stands alone as the one general history of the country for the sake of which all others, if young and old are wise, will be speedily and surely set aside.' —*Mr. S. R. Gardiner in the Academy.*

*SOCIAL LIFE IN GREECE.* From Homer to Menander. By the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Crown 8vo, $1 50.

"Mr. Mahaffy has in this little book given us the results of considerable reading, and has given them in a form which is both pleasant and interesting. . . . No omission greatly detracts from the merits of a book so fresh in its thought and so independent in its criticism."—*Athenæum.*

*SIR JOHN LUBBOCK ON*

*BRITISH WILD FLOWERS,* considered in Relation to Insects. With numerous beautiful illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 50. ('Nature Series.')

*SCANDINAVIAN HISTORY.* By E. C. Otté. With Maps. Globe 8vo, $2 50.

*THE THREE DEVILS,* Luther's, Milton's, Goethe's. With other Essays. By David Masson, LL.D., Professor of English Literature and Rhetoric in the University of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*A RAMBLE ROUND THE* World. By M. le Baron de Hübner, formerly Ambassador and Minister, and author of 'Sixte Quint.' Translated from the French by Lady Herbert. 12mo, cloth extra, $2 50.

*CHRIST AND OTHER MASTERS.* A Historical Enquiry into the Chief Parallelisms and Contrasts between Christianity and the Religious Systems of the Ancient World. By the late Ven. Archdeacon Hardwick. Edited, with Memoir, by the Rev. F. Procter, M.A. New and Cheaper Edition, in one volume crown 8vo, $3.

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo, $4.

*SELECTIONS FROM BERKE-* ley. With Introduction and Notes for the use of Students in the Universities. By Professor Fraser, LL.D., etc., Edinburgh. $3.

*PRACTICAL HINTS ON THE* Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin, for the use of Classical Teachers and Linguists. By A. J. Ellis, B.A., F.R.S. Extra fcp. 8vo, $1 75.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 11, 1875.*

## The Week.

CONGRESS adjourned on the 4th without passing the Force Bill, and the Tax Bill just escaped defeat. The appropriation bills all got through, as did the Mississippi Jetty Bill, and the bill to admit Colorado. New Mexico is still a Territory. The end of the session was not marked by the usual turbulence, though there was a good deal of confusion, and the proceedings in the House terminated in a very dignified and manly speech delivered by Mr. Blaine, on his retiring from the Speaker's chair. Mr. Blaine has undoubtedly "come out very strong" from the session, and for his ability displayed in managing the House during the filibustering of the Democrats, as well as his integrity and skill, has won a great deal of praise from his own party, from the Democrats, and from the press. His rise to a position of prominence among the leading men of his party is a gratifying sign, for he has obtained his honors not by unscrupulous partisanship, but by hard work in a difficult office, and has increased his popularity not by buncombe speeches, or the low arts of a demagogue, but by the exhibition of those qualities of firmness, good sense, and respect for the rights of others which ought to make a man popular. He has his faults, no doubt, but, compared with Morton, Logan, and the present leaders of the Republicans, he seems like an ancient Roman for virtue. In the next House he will be the leader of the Opposition, and it must be a source of consolation to every one who takes any pride in his country to reflect on the change this will effect. On the adjournment of Congress the new Senate convened in executive session, and Mr. Morton has been trying to get it to recognize Pinchback again. Besides this, the Hawaiian Treaty will demand action.

Mr. Henry Wilson, who has always been a good friend to the soldier in Congress, has tried at various times since the war ended to remedy the injustice done him in the payment of bounties. The injustice was that the three-years men, who enlisted early in the war and saw most of the hardest service, were promised bounties of $100, which were paid in depreciated paper, and therefore received less for more work than those who succeeded them, and who received $300, besides large local bounties. Ever since the end of the war he has been endeavoring to get this injustice remedied by equalizing bounties. Nearly ten years ago, he and other friends of the soldier got a bill passed, under which it is said that some $60,000,000 have been paid out of the Treasury, and which the soldiers generally thought a final measure. This, however, Mr. Wilson never thought enough, and he therefore was very glad to vote for the Equalization Bill of the late Congress, which proposed to remedy the injustice a little more, not exactly by taking $100,000,000 out of the Treasury, for that sum is not there to be taken, but by increasing the debt by that amount—if that was the amount (since no one seems to know exactly how much the bill appropriated)—and to affix his signature to it as President of the Senate. The condition of the bill when he signed it was this: The House had passed the bill, and the Senate had amended it, and the House had voted to non-concur; a conference committee then unanimously agreed to recommend to the two Houses that the House recede from its non-concurrence and agree to the Senate amendments, which the House did; on which, without further action on the part of the Senate, Mr. Wilson signed the bill. The President at once vetoed it, so that the measure is dead. There yet remain, however, two questions with regard to it which do not seem absolutely settled.

The first of these is whether the bill, in the condition we have described, was actually passed, or whether the Senate should have done something more with it. As to this, the Clerk of the House and the Journal Clerk of the House both declare that, in their opinion, the bill was passed, the receding of the House from its non-concurrence placing the two bodies in perfect accord. This seems to relieve Mr. Wilson from all blame as to signing the bill, but it throws no light whatever on the merits of the equalization policy, of which he and Senator Logan are the great expounders. The fatal defect in the scheme for equalizing bounties is that it is an attempt to remedy injustice done by the Government for the benefit of a particular class, though the injustice affected everybody in the country. The soldier who, having been promised $100, received it in depreciated money, was certainly unjustly treated, but so was everybody else who was made, by the Legal-Tender Act, to receive payment of debts in depreciated paper. There are other meritorious classes besides soldiers who have done the Government great benefits both during and since the war, who were paid, not bounties, but their salaries, in depreciated paper. Why should not the pay of all the civil servants of the Government who received their salaries in paper when gold was at 250, be equalized with those who receive the same salaries now with gold at 115? Such men as Mr. Seward and Mr. Adams did the country as much service, at least, as many of the patriots who enlisted in the ranks, yet we have never heard of any movement to have their salaries equalized. Besides this, we may go on equalizing for ever as long as the legal-tender power is kept alive; for if we equalize on the basis of gold at 115 to-day, we may have, before half the money is paid out, to begin all over again with gold at 125, and again at 150. The main object of these bounty bills, of which some half-dozen have been introduced into Congress since the close of the war, has of course been to secure the soldiers' votes, and they account in some degree for the disappearance of that well-known old plank from the party platforms, vowing that the pensions of the soldiers and sailors shall be paid.

Mr. Young Brown's case came up before the adjournment, owing to his desire to get the resolution of censure expunged from the records; but he was unsuccessful. Mr. Dawes said he had looked into the matter carefully, and could see nothing to palliate it. Brown's conduct was utterly black and forbidding. Now, Mr. Dawes must not be so stern a moralist. He must have some bowels of compassion for sinners. It is not every man that can live on his moral plane or on his friend Butler's. Why can't he avert his face and go to Pittsfield on private business when a Brown equivocates or uses bad language? We can tell him this ferocious virtue does more harm than good, because it makes poor fellows who are trying to reform feel hopeless, and drives them back desperate into vice. How would he feel if Brown should take to drink? We believe the truth of the affair is that poor Brown, who is rather a young man, has been studying Burke and Junius, and is very anxious to distinguish himself as an orator; and his invective against Butler was carefully prepared, as he believed, on the best models, and was committed to memory, and he was letting it off anxiously when the Speaker interrupted him; and the "equivocation" which horrified Dawes and roused the moral indignation of the House was simply the result of great mental disturbance on the part of an inexperienced orator. Probably nobody was more astonished than he was himself at its effect, and at seeing Dawes preparing to form a "hollow square" in front of the chair in defence of liberty of speech. As it was, we are informed on good authority, in the confusion Mr. Brown forgot one of his finest passages, which he feels keenly, and which is surely punishment enough in these humane days.

Judge Poland is one of two or three men who left the House at the close of the session with the honors of war—drums beating and colors flying. His triumph in the Arkansas matter was a most gratifying

close to his present term of service, because it was not only complete, but to most people unexpected, as the President lobbied against the adoption of the report of the majority, and as the success of the Desperadoes with the Force Bill seemed to indicate that they could carry anything they pleased. The Judge's course was all the more creditable because he was defeated at the late election. He, however, did not allow this to sour or depress him, but went at his work with renewed energy; had a little colloquy with Butler, in which he truthfully informed that "statesman" that he was a "liar"; pushed his report vigorously when the time came; routed the Carpet-baggers, after a telling speech, the delivery of which is said to have been a very picturesque incident, and which the Arkansas Legislature talk of commemorating by having the old gentleman's portrait painted, to hang in their hall, as he stood in his blue coat and brass buttons, shaking his long finger at the conspirators, and warning them of the wrath to come. Governor Garland has issued a proclamation appointing a day of thanksgiving for the deliverance of the State, and well he may, for seldom has a State escaped a greater danger than that of the seizure of its government by a band of thieves, backed up by the United States.

---

It seems to be admitted on all hands that there are at last unmistakable signs of a revival in business. Even the financial writer in the *Tribune* admits it now unreservedly. But we must point out to him that he described a state of things in the business world last Christmas from which no community could possibly recover in two months, or even get on the fair way to recovery. We are, therefore, driven to the conclusion either that he was mistaken then, or that he is mistaken now; we think the former. We called his attention several times during the winter to the probability that he was indulging in a gloom and despondency for which there was no real foundation in observed facts, and that he was doing much mischief by his wailings, because whatever the state of business, speculation being utterly dead, the evils of the situation were sure to be aggravated by whatever delayed the restoration of confidence. His position is a very important one, and we think whoever fills it ought to have a stronger sense of his responsibilities than the present incumbent seems to possess. If, however, he will now keep up his spirits and desist from crying down honest attempts to set the wheels of industry and enterprise once more in motion, we will look no more into his sad past. Prices are rising with tolerable steadiness on the Stock Exchange; the dry-goods dealers say their spring prospects are good; and there are signs that the prices of produce have reached the lowest point. According to all past experience of the effect of panics, recovery ought to begin now, as we are not far from the beginning of the third year since the last one. No commercial community can go on longer than this working on "short time," and we have no doubt that we should not have gone on so long were it not for the state of the currency and the power of Congress over it—an element of uncertainty which has never had to be encountered in any previous panic in this country. This is now removed, for a long period at least, by the adjournment of Congress, and by the fact that the state of parties in the next Congress will probably prevent all financial legislation. There could hardly be a more striking proof of the separation between the political class and the rest of the community than the fact that honest traders curtail their business when the national legislature is sitting, just as if its members were Mahrattas or Comanches who might any day make a swoop on people's goods.

---

Secretary Bristow has not allowed the public to remain very long in doubt as to the use he intends to make of the money he expects to get from the Tax Bill; for he has issued a call for $30,000,000 of registered bonds to be redeemed on account of the Sinking Fund, or rather—for there is no such fund—to be destroyed in reduction of the national debt. He has chosen registered bonds out of their numbered order, because these bonds are mostly held in the country, and the gold paid for them will therefore, it is supposed, stay in the country, and not, as would probably be the case if he called for others, go to Europe. The question whether he is right in making this selection, and whether he will attain his end in making it, is therefore at present the principal topic of speculation on "the Street." People using gold in their daily transactions and speculations who are "short" of it, applaud his action, and look for an easy spring and summer in the money market in consequence of the disbursement of so large an amount of gold, while large holders of the bonds as investors are grumbling over his calling them out of their order. Others again doubt whether the bonds will not be paid for when the time comes in the new five per cents. The general result, however, seems to be increased confidence in business circles. Two things seem certain, and they are things of vast importance—first, Mr. Bristow is evidently a man who will obey the law, and not wilfully violate it out of his own head; and, secondly, he believes in specie payments, or, in other words, sees the overwhelming importance of the currency question. He is accumulating gold heavily, and has now about $50,000,000; but if it goes out in this way for the redemption of bonds, of course this accumulation has no bearing on resumption. The volume of legal-tenders has been reduced during the week by $1,385,000, being eighty per cent. of the new bank-bills issued under the currency act of the first session of the late Congress.

---

The *Evening Post* was not satisfied with our view of the conditions of municipal reform a week or two ago, and says it has a "practicable theory which is very different from the *Nation's*, but which would promote the end that journal has in view," viz., "Let the property-owners, the substantial classes of society, interest themselves actively and constantly in municipal affairs, and the evils incident to the rule of municipal corporations by majorities will speedily disappear." Now, there are people who will receive this "practicable theory" with unseemly merriment; but we shall not treat it lightly. We only say that, if the *Evening Post* has known of this plan for some time, and has not revealed it, it has been guilty of a great wrong against the people of this city. If, on the other hand, it has revealed it, and "the property-owners and substantial classes" have paid no attention to the plan, what is the value of it? The painful truth is that our venerable contemporary has been sleeping over municipal affairs, and is apparently not aware that this "theory" it produces is about thirty years old, and that its worthlessness, after many trials, is really at this moment one of the symptoms of the municipal disease. No "property owner or substantial man" can give active and constant attention to municipal affairs under the rule of the majority without neglecting all his other business, and sooner than do this he will submit to heavy taxation or move away; and this is what he is now doing in New York, because, as he justly remarks, the object of municipal government is not to take all his time in attending to it, but to leave him his time for the conduct of his business. A municipal government which fully occupied the men of property and affairs, would hardly be any better than a government which compelled every citizen to protect his life and property at his own expense and with his own hand. The old catchword about "rich men attending to their political duties" is now so stale and foolish, that it ought not to be seriously produced in the discussion of city affairs any longer.

---

It will be remembered that in November, 1873, we gave a summary of a pamphlet purporting to contain a history of the Emma-Mine fraud by Mr. S. T. Paffard, of London, one of the stockholders. This, as might be imagined, was very disagreeable to Mr. Trenor W. Park and his confederates, and Park thereupon wrote or caused to be written some letters to one of his Vermont organs, giving that pleasing version of the affair to which he has since more than once treated the public, and speaking of Mr. Paffard in very insulting terms as "that man Paffard—a person of no character." The English *Mining Journal* was so very imprudent as to copy these letters,

and was thereupon promptly sued in the Court of Exchequer by Mr. Paffard, and the case came on for trial on the 17th ult. before the Lord Chief-Baron. The defendant offered a complete and full retraction and apology, and paid $500 into court as a "solatium," which Mr. Paffard accepted as full satisfaction. This will be a warning to English papers against copying Park's statements, and we trust will be a warning to the Vermont organs against allowing him or his friends to use their columns in defence of his mining ventures.

---

A question of parliamentary law of some interest has been raised in England by Mitchel's case, owing to the doubt in which even the lawyers find themselves whether his sentence had really been carried out by the lapse of the time for which he was banished and by his absence from the kingdom during the whole period. If not, why was he not subjected to all the other incidental disabilities of the position as well as unfitness to serve in Parliament? The discussion in the House of Commons was by no means satisfactory on these points, as was shown by the fact that over one hundred members voted against Mr. Disraeli's motion for the issue of a new writ, although most of them at least were opposed on general grounds to Mitchel's admission. As matters stand, however, the chances are that the House will be brought into very disagreeable collision with the courts of law, and in contests of this sort it is apt to get the worst of it; for, if Mitchel is again put up, somebody will probably oppose him, be beaten, and petition against his return, and then, on the trial of the petition before the Irish Court of Common Pleas, the question of qualification will come up, and the decision of the House of Commons be very possibly overruled.

---

Dr. Kenealy has published in his paper, the *Englishman*, an account of himself, and of the work cut out for him in the House of Commons, which is inexpressibly ludicrous, and makes it difficult to avoid the conclusion that his mind is unsound. He represents himself as by far the ablest lawyer and finest gentleman at the English bar, and on the eve of extraordinary professional success when his enemies, owing to his enlistment in the Tichborne case, having tried to kill him with presents of poisoned game, determined to get him disbarred. But this which seemed likely to prove his ruin was simply the means, under God, of causing him to found "The Magna Charta Association" and putting him in Parliament, where "he is going to destroy the Whig and Tory conspiracy against the people"; and being "a mighty army in himself, will carry all before him in Parliament, like Mirabeau in France and Chatham in England." As he "tamed the three judges in Westminster Hall, and kept them down like three cats that hardly dared to mew in his presence, so he will master the Right Honorable Humbugs who delude the people and pass the wicked laws under which they groan."

---

Garibaldi's appearance in Rome as a Deputy has been the occasion of many surprises. In his journey thither he caused dismay among the Radicals by giving them the cold shoulder when they sought to take him under their wing, and his public addresses since his arrival have been characterized by a studious moderation. He has urged the workingmen to bring up their children to the craft of the father, and both by his words and by his example has encouraged their turning their attention away from the distraction of politics and towards the cultivation of habits of industry and thrift. His own special work is to combat the third greatest enemy (after the Papacy and the foreigner) of the Agro Romano, and he is engrossed night and day with plans for diverting the Tiber from its present bed, preventing inundations, and contriving the drainage of the Campagna, in connection with the building up of a new commercial port at the mouth of the river. To this end he has been in active conference with Count Alexander Torlonia, famous for his successful enterprises in reclaiming marshy districts, with Sella and the Government engineers, and even with Victor Emanuel himself, with whom he had an interview marked by manifestations of mutual respect. He has elsewhere spoken quite loyally of the King—another wonderment for the Radicals, who had, it must be admitted, reason to expect something different on account of the ungracious tone of his letter declining the national bounty which had been voted him. Moreover, he allows that the Papacy has had its uses, though it has in his opinion outlived them. Perhaps, if the truth were known, official relations apart, there would be found to exist a perfect tolerance between the King, Pius IX., and the red-shirted Deputy, in all of whom the Italian sentiment is so strong. The Pope, indeed, not the least Italian of the three, is said to have waggishly remarked, apropos of Garibaldi's arrival, "We were two, and now we are three."

---

Marshal MacMahon almost succeeded on Monday in forming a ministry strong politically on every side except the Radical, and, in the matter of ability, strong on every side. M. Buffet, the Vice-President of the Council, has long presided with marked ability in the Assembly; the Duc Decazes has made an excellent reputation already in the management of foreign affairs at a very trying time; and M. Léon Say, the Minister of Finance, is known all over the world as an economist of uncommon power and attainments. General de Cissey, too, could hardly be improved upon for the War Department; and the Marquis de Montaignac, of the Navy, is perhaps as good a model for either soldier or sailor as can be found in France. Mr. Buffet's refusal, at the last moment, defeated this most promising combination. There is no denying that the complexion of the proposed cabinet was strongly Orleanist; and it will strengthen the growing suspicion that the first president of the impending republic will be the Duc d'Aumale, who will again be regarded as a stop-gap, inasmuch as the Royalists will think him too much of a prince to be regarded as simply an executive officer, and the Republicans will look on him as too much of a president to be altogether a representative of royalty; and so the definitive settlement of the question of the form of the government would seem under him still further postponed. The Bonapartists, however, still get the worst of it, though they procure a good deal of comfort from small incidents. For instance, Paul de Cassagnac, in his *Pays*, abused savagely General Wimpffen, who commanded at the surrender of Sedan, and, in accordance with the Bonapartist programme, threw on him all the blame of the disaster. Wimpffen sued him, and there was a great trial; but the jury found for the defendant on every point. The Bonapartists consider this a sign of popular disposition to rehabilitate the Emperor's memory, and it will serve pretty well for that purpose; but it is more probably the result of the French delight in finding a scapegoat which was largely instrumental in leading to Bazaine's conviction. They are also cheered by the completion of the Prince Imperial's course of study at the Woolwich Military School, where he has graduated seventh in a class of forty, and stands first in fencing and horsemanship.

---

The conflict between church and state in Prussia is assuming a character of increasing bitterness. A bill is before the Prussian Parliament, providing for lay administration of the property of Catholic parishes, and the Minister of Public Worship was savage enough, in his speech supporting the bill, to say that the necessity for it was proved by the fact that the State Administrator, who has taken possession of the property of the Bishopric of Gnesen, has discovered a series of embezzlements, extending over a year, of which several clergymen were cognizant, and in answer to a challenge from the Ultramontane side, he named them. This incident, however it ends, will perhaps call attention to the fact that enormous amounts of property are handled all over the world by the Catholic clergy, to all intents and purposes secretly and without lay auditing or interference, and this under a code of morals which makes an exposure of anything likely to bring discredit on the church what is technically called a "scandal," and therefore a grievous offence. We make no insinuation against the honesty of this clerical administration when we say that the strain it imposes on human nature is enormous, and would be unendurable were it not for the celibacy of the clergy and the enforced asceticism of their lives.

## THE FORTY-THIRD CONGRESS.

WITH the close of the Forty-third Congress the history of the United States will pass out of the region of the civil war. For the next two years the legislative power will be so divided that new statutes cannot be enacted and existing laws cannot be repealed. The Lower House may indeed thrust upon the Government some aggressive embarrassments, such as refusing appropriations; but the new majority there will come into power with a peculiar, and perhaps unprecedented, sense of responsibility that seems likely to dictate to party management prudence, fairness, and the absence of all irritating party warfare. So far as appearances will warrant prediction, it may be expected confidently that a calm will settle upon the political field, such as the country has not known for thirty years, in which there will be neither changes nor attempts to change existing laws. During this lull we may hope, if not conclude, that the agitated affairs of the South will settle into an abiding, because natural, equilibrium. The Forty-third Congress has been the chief disturbing element of the last two years, and even its inaction has been singularly a cause of active disturbance. In the next two years neither side will have anything to expect from Congress, and Congress will be practically unable to further the schemes of either set of extremists. The political work of the last three Congresses has been little more than a struggle to keep the intelligence and capital of the South from acquiring their natural ascendancy over irresponsible ignorance. With the last Congress the business of national legislation for State political effect has come to an end.

The Forty-third Congress also marks the terminal point in the course of the Republican party. A party may, indeed, come into power at the next Presidential election, retaining the same name, and made up largely of the same material; but nothing short of the extremest folly and wickedness on the part of the Southern people can revive the Republican party as we have all known it. Whatever may be its name, its policy and its leaders will pass away, to be classed respectively with things that are no longer needed, and with men that are no longer trusted. In the meanwhile, the President and Republican majority of the Senate will continue in nominal power; but not to direct the course of the party, nor to continue its policy. They will be mere place-holders, awaiting an impending change; remaining in office, necessarily and properly, after an extraordinary vote of want of confidence, but without power to do more than carry on the most narrow administration of government, under the surveillance of their political opponents in the Lower House. The political dynasty which really began with the election of Speaker Banks has really ended with the exaugural of Speaker Blaine. The contrast between the party in Congress in 1857 and in 1875 is a demonstration of its success and its decline—in the former Congress, a minority, but united and determined, with definite objects and an unmistakable policy before it, represented by the ablest and purest men that constituencies could possibly select, and having behind it the immense moral power of a people who thoroughly approved its action as being really devoted to the welfare of the country. In the last Congress, a large majority, yet weak and vacillating, divided upon every question of public policy, conscious that the political condition of the country depended upon their action, yet not knowing what to do nor where to go, led by a few men whose private characters were tarnished and whose public lives were simply those of unscrupulous politicians, and, at the end, when the country had emphatically pronounced against them, recklessly pushing through the most objectionable measures as the last expedient of party management.

The rise and fall of the Republican party is also clearly attributable to the successive policies which have been pursued in Congress. In the first stage of its existence—its conflict with the slave-power—its policy was characterized by moderation and strict submission to constitutional obligations. Nothing could have been more reasonable than for a people, of whom a majority were opposed to slavery, to leave constitutional rights undisturbed, and limit themselves to restricting the evil to the parts in which it actually existed. In the second stage—the prosecution of the war—Congress acted, for the most part, with all the vigor and decision that any legislature ever evinced; and if its wisdom was often questionable, it still acted with as much discretion as could well be expected from untrained men in a situation which was always serious, and often appalling. To supply, and equip, and animate the army, to leave the administration to the care of the ablest men in the country, to adhere rigidly to the determination of putting down the rebellion, was as judicious a policy as any set of legislators could have adopted. So far, the Congressional policy deserved respect, and certainly the country sustained and confided in the party. But in the third stage of the party—the restoration of civil government and the settlement of the issues of the war—the policy of Congress has been a tissue of blunders, and as nearly as possible an absolute failure. It allowed an untried Executive to do as he pleased, where a lenient yet firm and decided course should have been established at the first, assuring the exhausted and submissive communities of the law and order which they were not then fitted to maintain, and of their ultimate restoration to civil rights. It next resorted, as a political expedient, to military government, after the war was really over, and invited dangers and evils which were averted by the good sense of such soldiers as Canby and Meade. It then entered into the worst phase of its statesmanship—that of bringing the lowest stratum of society, the absolutely ignorant and irresponsible, to the top, and making it the governing class, practically disfranchising all that there was of intelligence and ability, and dividing society into classes by race, with all the evils that must ever be inseparable from such a division. In 1861, the South had no rightful pretext for rebellion, but since the war it has been the policy of Congress to invade our fundamental principle of local self-government, and to permit the destruction of those civil rights on the maintenance of which civilization and constitutional liberty depend. For some time, the good sense of the country was misled by the specious plea of necessity, but at last, when the test of practical results came to be applied, it was seen clearly enough that where the General Government had governed most, there affairs were worst; that where the experiments of Federal interference and negro supremacy had been most thoroughly tried, there they had most signally failed; that where the unfortunate freedman had been most protected, there he was most persecuted; that the welfare of the colored race, like that of all other races, depends upon industry, intelligence, and the orderly condition of society, and not upon the ballot and the irresponsible power of voting ruin upon everybody in the community except ourselves.

The last House of Representatives has also been a complete illustration of the disintegration that has been going on in the political field. The House has repeatedly differed from the Senate, from the President, and from itself. Considered as a unit, its decisions are full of extraordinary inconsistencies. It delayed the Civil-Rights and the Force Bills until the country had pronounced against them, and then voted for them. It repealed the "salary grab" and restored the franking privilege. It exposed and condemned the worst delinquencies of the civil service and did away with what remained of civil-service reform. It voted one day that the Republicans had carried Louisiana in 1872 and that Kellogg was the duly elected governor, and the next that the Democrats had carried the State at the same election and that Sheridan was the rightfully chosen representative-at-large. It stood up with commendable firmness against Colonel Scott's railway grants and the internal-improvement schemes, yet twice voted a gratuity of probably $100,000,000 in the Bounty Bill. Fortunately for it, the country has been spared the evils of its worst blunders, for which we may thank the vetoes of the President, the timid tardiness of the House itself, and the resolute opposition of the minority.

But let it not be supposed that the last House deserved the almost unqualified condemnation that fell upon its immediate predecessors. On the contrary, there has been no House of Representatives in the last ten years so unsoiled by subsidies and jobs and

private acts and personal scandals. At the close of its first session, one of its sagacious members said in effect that it was made up largely of well-meaning men of very moderate abilities and little experience or culture. The action of the House has continued to justify this opinion. In matters which these men understand, like grants and subsidies, they have acted sensibly and honestly; in the more complicated problems of government, they have been out of their depths—one day striking out for the shore and the next drifting out to sea. When analyzed, the responsible majority appears to have been an unorganized throng, not dishonest or reckless, but possessed of neither legislative experience nor knowledge of statesmanship; nominally belonging to one party, but really divided upon every question of a public nature; now guided by the good sense of a few of the older members, and presently misled by the wiles and sophistries of Butler; anxious to achieve something for their party and for the country, and to participate in the growth which generally attends an intelligent deliberative body, yet dazed and rendered helpless by the most complicated and ill-regulated legislative machinery that the world possesses.

## MITCHEL AND KENEALY.

THE election of John Mitchel in Tipperary, and of Dr. Kenealy in Stoke, are two incidents which are somewhat illustrative of what may be called the "transition period" in British politics; and what they illustrate is the purely sentimental view which the new voters seem disposed to take of the ballot both in England and Ireland, or, in other words, of their readiness to use it simply as a mode of expressing feeling, and without any reference whatever to policy or expediency. In Ireland, the voters have undergone, beyond all question, a pretty thorough process of secularization within the last twenty years. The influence of the Catholic clergy has declined as the church has been emancipated, and as foreign, and especially American, influence on manners and ideas has made itself more distinctly felt. The Fenian movement, which had its origin on this side of the water, never received any countenance from the priests, and it is safe to say that neither does the Home-rule movement. The more astute ecclesiastical politicians see clearly enough the advantages of a strong Protestant government, which, while ensuring security and tranquillity, furnishes the church with somebody to inveigh against, and which prepares "insidious wiles" and "snares" against which the clergy have to guard their flocks. The severance of the English connection, even to the extent contemplated by the Home-rulers, would deprive Cardinal Cullen of the character of a champion, to which he now owes a considerable portion of his influence, if not of his authority, in native eyes. Moreover, the Fenian movement made it pretty clear that if Irish independence were now achieved, the Parliament in College Green would by no means be controlled, as it probably would have been under similar circumstances forty years ago, by the clergy. The priests, if they had any influence at all on the elections or on legislation, would have to share it with a large body of American citizens, who would promptly return to the land of their birth to show the people how to "run the machine" on the New York or South Carolina model. There would be a good deal of talk about Malachi, and Brien Boru, and Patrick Sarsfield, and Wolfe Tone, but the work would be done under inspiration derived from "Boss" Tweed, "Boss" Shepherd, Niles G. Parker, Peter B. Sweeny, and other statesmen of that description. Gentlemen, in the sense in which the word is used either in the New or the Old World, would be carefully excluded from any share in the administration, through fear of re-establishing "the accursed system of caste." The church might possibly be appeased with large endowments for schools, colleges, or convents, but their value would be greatly lessened by the prevalent insecurity, or by the probable atheism and indifference to the ordinances of religion of the politicians of the new school. In fact, it may be fairly said that the church would not only gain nothing morally by the achievement of Irish independence, but would probably lose a good deal. It is even doubtful whether it has not suffered through the overthrow of the Protestant Establishment, because this did away with an invaluable wrong, for which the transfer of the revenues to "the old religion" would have been the only adequate compensation.

The general result is that the Irish voter is a freer and more obstreperous being than he ever was. He has got over much of his reverence for his clergy, and, the Tenure-of-Land Act having made him pretty independent of his landlord, he is really getting to be very prosperous materially. The last annual report of Dr. Hancock, the statistician, shows that the investments in Ireland in Government funds, joint-stock banks, and deposits in savings-banks, have increased during the past year by over $11,000,000. The total in 1864 was only $274,440,000; it was, at the close of 1874, $346,000,000, calculating the gold pound at five paper dollars. The amount of deposits in the joint-stock banks was in 1864 $75,115,000; it is now just double that amount. The deposits in the savings-banks are now $15,000,000; and other indications of the growth of wealth and of its increasing diffusion are equally favorable. The result is that seriousness has largely gone out of politics, and elections have come to have the character of a huge frolic, which gives the voters an opportunity of doing a little homage to a popular hero or hurling farcical defiance at some popular foe.

The election of Mitchel seems to have been one of these caricatures of popular government which we may now expect to become by no means uncommon. There is nothing in the man's career to win for him the respect of people in any stage of civilization. He talked fiercely of fighting, and never fought. He gave his parole as a prisoner, and broke it by a trick. He made himself here the apologist and ally of slaveholders and the enemy of the Government which had sheltered him. He is now old and feeble, as well as foolish, with nothing about him to strike the imagination in the smallest degree; he was bred a Unitarian, and he is an avowed sceptic. Nevertheless, the Tipperary people went wild over him, illuminated their houses and got drunk in his honor, and apparently, when they voted for him, did not care a straw whether he ever sat or not.

One might set this affair down to the account of Irish excitability if it were not for the election of Kenealy in England at the same time. The sole excuse for sending him to Parliament from a North-of-England borough is, that he was roughly handled by the Lord Chief-Justice at a trial in London, and was disbarred for publishing a scurrilous and libellous paper. But this mode of selecting legislators is hardly more rational than the hereditary mode, and is hardly more defensible than electing a man because he had lost a lawsuit or been burnt out without insurance. Nor is the matter mended by ascribing it to sympathy with the Claimant, because, if the Claimant be not an aristocrat trying to get back into the aristocracy, he is a common impostor, and in neither case has any claim that one can well explain on the sympathy of the workingman. There were signs of this strange inconsequence a year or two ago when Dundee elected a young, unknown man because he had composed a slight *jeu d'esprit* called 'Ginx's Baby,' revealing a certain amount of vague sympathy with the poor, over a jurist and legislator of the highest rank in the person of Mr. Fitzjames Stephen. A vagary of this kind would, perhaps, have been explicable had either of them had any personal connection with the borough, but they were both strangers. The electors, in fact, looking abroad over the United Kingdom for a representative, fixed on the obscure author of a small tale as the fittest man for their purpose, which would be somewhat like sending Mr. Bret Harte to the Senate from Maine for writing the 'Heathen Chinee' in California, though the author of 'Ginx's Baby' can make no pretence to Mr. Harte's literary standing.

As the working-class voters get into the way of using their newly acquired political powers under the guidance of their own feelings and impulses, we may expect an increasing number of such additions as Mitchel and Kenealy to the House of Commons. Men of strange fortunes and odd claims on popular sympathy will make their way into Parliament through some such incident or peculiarity as would catch for them the attention or applause of a crowd in the streets; and this will probably last until popular or working-

class constituencies begin to have a positive policy of their own, or, in other words, until they earnestly seek certain kinds of legislation, which thus far they do not, and their affairs are taken in charge by caucuses, or managers. At present, they are barely beginning to enjoy the power of electing and the consciousness of being represented. Before long, they will probably desire to impress their views on the policy of the Government, and, when this point is reached, representatives like Mitchel or Kenealy will hardly serve their purpose.

It ought to be said, too, that if the newly made voters abused their power much more than they are likely to do, they would not be so much to blame for it as those reformers who, during the last fifty years, have, both here and in Europe, been working for the extension of the suffrage. In their eagerness to break down privilege they preached the "natural right" theory of the franchise so forcibly as to dissociate in the popular mind the exercise of it from all responsibility. They made believe that everybody's title to vote was so strong and absolute that how one voted was nobody's business, and talked of representation as if it was in itself the fountain of all blessings, without regard to its quality. From this absurd doctrine has naturally flowed another still more absurd, that it is desirable that every constituency should reproduce its own morality and intelligence in its member; that if the ignorant and vicious, in short, send ignorant and vicious men to the legislature, nobody has any business to complain—as if a member's character affected nobody but those who elected him, or as if Kenealy's vote could not touch Gladstone, or Bright, or Darwin, or Fawcett, or Dean Stanley. The process by which this conclusion about representation has been reached reminds one of the state of mind of the opponents of capital punishment about convictions. After using for a great many years the difficulty of obtaining convictions as an argument against hanging, they gradually worked themselves into the belief that, the end of prosecution being conviction, if you only succeeded in securing a conviction, the nature or effect of the punishment was of no consequence; and they will accordingly show you with a triumphant air a table of convictions for murder, followed by sentences of imprisonment amounting (in practice) to terms of seven years on the average; and, if you ask what effect this has had on the frequency of man-slaying, will treat the question as impertinent. In like manner, many friends of popular government will inform you joyfully that the Workingman, or the Colored Man, or Woman, is at last "represented," and, if you ask how represented, will tell you that that is no affair of yours—that the voter settles this in his closet with his Maker.

## THE HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

THE Baltimore *American*, discussing the plan of the Hopkins University in that city, says "the *Nation* suggests to the Board of Trustees a university that would leave Latin, Greek, mathematics, and the elements of natural science out of its curriculum." This is so great a mistake that we are at a loss to understand how it could have been made. The *Nation* has never suggested anything of the kind. The university which the *Nation* has expressed the hope the Trustees would found, is simply a university with such a high standard for admission on all subjects that the professors would be saved the necessity of teaching the rudiments of either Latin, Greek, mathematics, or natural science; or, in other words, that the country would be saved considerable waste of skilled labor. The reason why we have ventured to expect this of the Hopkins Trustees is that they enjoy the all but unprecedented advantage of being left in possession of a very large bequest, with complete liberty, within very wide limits, as to the disposition of it. In other words, they are to found a university with it, but as to the kind of university, they may exercise their discretion. That this is a very exceptional position everybody familiar with the history of American colleges knows. All the older colleges are bound to the State, or to certain religious denominations, by laws or usages or precedents which impose a certain tolerably fixed character either on the subjects taught or on the mode of teaching them, or on both. They have traditions to uphold, or denominational interests to care for, or political prejudices to satisfy. The newer ones, on the other hand, are apt to have incurred a bondage even worse still, in having to carry out the wishes of a founder who, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, had only a faint notion of the nature and needs of a university, and in endowing one sought rather to erect a monument to his memory than to found a seat of learning. In so far as he was interested in the curriculum, he probably desired that it should be such as would satisfy some want which he himself felt, or thought he felt, in early life, or should diffuse some social or religious or political crotchet on which his fancy had secretly fed during his years of active exertion, and on the success of which he came to think, in the latter part of his life, that the best interests of the community were dependent. The number of these honorably ambitious but ill-informed and somewhat eccentric testators increases every year, as the country grows in wealth and the habit of giving to public objects gains in strength. The consequence is that we are threatened with the spectacle during the coming century of the greatest waste of money by well-meaning persons the world has perhaps ever seen, in the establishment all over the country of institutions calling themselves "universities" which are either so feebly equipped as rather to hinder than help the cause of education, or so completely committed by their organization to the propagation of certain social or religious theories as to deserve the appellation of mission stations rather than of colleges. We speak advisedly when we say that the cause of the higher education in the United States is really threatened as seriously by unwise donors of funds as by almost anything else. Education is now an art of exceeding delicacy and complexity. To master it, so as to have a trustworthy opinion as to the relative value of studies and as to the best mode of pursuing them, and as to the organization of institutions devoted to the work of instruction, a man needs both learning and experience. The giving him money to employ in his special work, therefore, without leaving him discretion as to the manner in which he shall use it, is to prepare almost certainly for its waste in more than one direction. To make the most of the resources of the country for educational purposes, it is necessary above all things that they should be placed at the disposal of those who have made education a special study, and who are free, as we understand the Hopkins Trustees to be, from any special bias or bond, and are ready or willing to look at the subject from every side. Their liberty, of course, brings with it great responsibility, all the greater for the reasons we have been enumerating.

Now, as to the use which they should make of this liberty, the Baltimore *American* fears that if they found a university of the class sketched by us some weeks ago, "the people of Maryland would be greatly disappointed—there would not be over fifty students," and "there would be a great outcry against the investment of three and a half millions of dollars for the benefit of so small a number." Whether the people of Maryland will be disappointed or not depends on the amount of consideration they give the matter. If they are satisfied that the foundation of such a university as is now talked of is the best use than can be made of the money, they will not be disappointed, and there will be no "outcry" at all. Being an intelligent people, they will on reflection see that the value of a university by no means depends solely on the proportion borne by the number of its students to the amount of its revenues, because, judged in this way—that is, as instruments of direct popular benefit—all the universities in the country might be pronounced failures. The vast mass of the community derives no *direct* benefit from them at all. Harvard, for instance, has an endowment of about $5,000,000, we believe, and the total number of its students is only 1,200, while the population of the State of Massachusetts is 1,500,000, so that, even supposing all the students to come from Massachusetts, which they do not, less than one person in every 1,000 profits by the University. The same story might be told of Yale or any other college. Considered as what are called popular institutions—that is, institutions from which everybody can or does derive some calculable, palpable benefit—the universities of this and every other country are useless, and there ought on this theory to be a prodigious "outcry" against them, and they ought, on the principle of equality, if allowed to exist at all, to be allowed to exist only on condition that they will give a degree at least, or offer an education, to every male citizen of sound mind. But nobody takes this view of them. The poorest and most ignorant hod-carrier would not hold, if asked, that because he cannot go to college there ought to be no colleges. Sensible people in every country acknowledge that a high education can in the nature of things be only obtained by a very small proportion of the population; but that the few who seek it, and can afford to take it, should get it, and should get it of the best quality, they hold to be a public benefit. Now, why a public benefit? The service that Harvard or Yale renders to the community certainly does not lie simply in the fact that it qualifies a thousand young men every year to earn a livelihood. They would earn a livelihood in all probability whether they went to college or not. The vast majority of men earn a livelihood without going to college or thinking of it. Indeed, it is doubted by many persons, and with much show of reason, whe-

ther a man does not earn it all the more readily for not going to college at all; and as regards the work of the world of all kinds, the great bulk of it is done, and well done, by persons who have not received a university education and do not regret it. So that the benefits which the country derives from the universities consist mainly in the refining and elevating influences which they create, in the taste for study and research which they diffuse, in the social and political ideals which they frame and hold up for admiration, in the confidence in the power of knowledge which they indirectly spread among the people, and in the small though steady contributions they make to that reverence for "things not seen" in which the soul of the state may be said to lie, and without which it is nothing better than a factory or an insurance company.

There is nothing novel about the considerations we are here urging. The problem over which university reformers have been laboring in every country during the past forty years has been, how to rid the universities, properly so called, of the care of the feeble, inefficient, and poorly-prepared students, and reserve their teaching for the better fitted, older, and more matured; or, in other words, how, in the interest both of economy and culture, to reserve the highest teaching power of the community for the most promising material. It is exactly forty years since John Stuart Mill wrote a celebrated attack on the English universities, then in a very low condition, in which he laid it down broadly that the end above all for which endowed universities ought to exist was "to keep alive philosophy," leaving "the education of common minds for the common business of life" for the most part to private enterprise. This seemed at the time exacting too much, and it doubtless seems so still; but it is nevertheless true that ever since that period universities of the highest class, both in Europe and in this country, have been working in that direction—striving, that is to say, either to sift the applicants for admission, by imposing increasingly severe tests, and thus presenting to the professors only pupils of the highest grade to work upon; or, at all events, if not repelling the ill-fitted, expending all their strength in furnishing the highest educational advantages to the well-fitted. In the last century, Harvard and Yale were doing just the kind of work that the high schools now do—that is, taking young lads and teaching them the elements of literature. At the present day they are throwing this work as far as possible on the primary schools, and reserving their professors and libraries and apparatus, as far as the state of the country and the conditions of their organization will permit, for those older and advanced students who bring to the work of learning both real ardor and real preparation. A boy has to know more to get into either of them to-day than his grandfather knew when he graduated. Nevertheless, with all the efforts they can make after this true economy of power and resources, there is in both of them a large amount of waste of labor. There are men in both of them, and in various other colleges, much of whose work is almost as much a misuse of energy and time as if they were employed so many hours a day in carrying hods of mortar, simply because they are doing what the masters of primary schools ought to do, and what no man at a university ought to be asked to do. It is a kind of work, too, which, if it have to be done in colleges at all, is already abundantly provided for by endowment. No Maryland youth who desires to learn a little mathematics, get a smattering of classics, and some faint notions of natural science, or even to support himself by manual labor while doing this, will suffer if the Hopkins endowment is used for higher work. The country swarms already with institutions which meet his needs, and in which he can graduate with ease to himself and credit to his State. The Trustees of this one will do him and the State and the whole country most service, therefore, by providing a place to which, after he has got hold of the rudiments at some other college, he can come, if he has the right stuff in him, and pursue to the end the studies for which all universities should really be reserved.

## PROPOSED CHANGES IN INTERNATIONAL LAW.

M. CALVO, author of the latest work in the French language upon international law, has published, in the form of a tract of a little less than one hundred pages, his report to the Institute of International Law at its late session at Geneva. It is entitled 'Examen des trois Règles de Droit international proposées dans le Traité de Washington.'

The tract is much more than the title indicates. It begins with an historic statement of the position of the United States in regard to the neutral powers during the civil war; of the facts relating to the *Alabama* and the other offending vessels; and of the diplomatic correspondence between the United States and Great Britain, down to the appointment of the Joint High Commission in 1871. It then gives a summary of the work of the Commission, with special reference to the Three Rules; and follows this with an abstract of the American and English "Cases," arguments of counsel, opinions of the arbitrators, and debates in Parliament upon the subjects submitted to the Tribunal. The author then takes up the subject of the duties of neutrals and the rights of belligerents as to matters upon which the Three Rules have a bearing. He examines, in historical order, the principal treaties, acts of belligerent and neutral governments, opinions of jurists, and interior legislation of states, for the purpose of showing that the Three Rules introduce no new principle or practice into international law, but simply express and define what was already generally recognized. He considers the establishment of these Rules for the purpose of the decision by the arbitrators, and the agreement to promote their operation in future cases, to have been owing to the fact that they were in some respects called in doubt by England, and might hereafter be by any nation upon whom they might bear unfavorably, and not to the absence of a usual general acceptance of the principles on which they rested. He credits our Government with the intention to secure these principles beyond dispute or cavil hereafter by accepted definitions and solemn agreements to abide by them. He gives a thoroughgoing and unqualified support to the American side of this controversy, except as to the indirect damages, and entirely sustains the construction of the Three Rules adopted by the majority of the Tribunal at Geneva.

The latter part of the tract is devoted to the subject of contraband commerce, blockade, the prohibition of privateers, and the inviolability of the private property of enemy citizens on the high seas. On these points he inclines to the extreme views which have usually been taken by the jurists of the Continent of Europe, not as to what now is but as to what ought to be the law and practice between nations.

The learned author proposes that the Institute of International Law shall recommend the chief powers to establish a mixed commission; that this commission incorporate the new or the not undoubted propositions respecting neutrality into a declaration like that of Paris of 1856, to which all nations shall be invited to give their adherence. He suggests the substance of a form of declaration for the above purpose, in eight articles, of which the following is a sufficient sketch:

Art. I. The principles heretofore applied to private property on land shall hereafter be extended to private property at sea. Privateers shall not be licensed, and ships-of-war shall make no pursuit, search, or capture of any private vessels, neutral or enemy, whatever be the nationality of the owners of the cargo, except in the case of vessels engaged in acts of piracy, or convicted of having violated blockade, or of being loaded with contraband.

Art. II. No vessel bound to a blockaded port, having no contraband goods on board, shall be liable to seizure or capture, unless some commander of a blockading cruiser shall have first given her notice of the blockade by an endorsement on the ship's papers.

Art. III. limits contraband to some twenty articles specified, mostly weapons or ammunition,—"et autres instruments quelconques fabriqués à l'usage de la guerre."

Art. IV. Each nation desiring to maintain neutrality shall give notice to the belligerents within three months after the declaration of war.

Art. V. To entitle a nation to the rights of neutrality, she shall be bound (1) to prohibit all manner of enlistments within her jurisdiction for the military or naval service of either belligerent. (2) Absolutely to prohibit the construction, fitting out, or selling for the account of either belligerent, of any vessel intended to be employed as a ship-of-war, privateer, or transport. (3) To prohibit the manufacture or exportation of contraband goods destined for either belligerent state.

Art. VI. The neutral state shall be held obliged to have sufficient legislation and penal provisions and police force, and shall make a *bonâ-fide* use of the same, with alacrity, to prevent or repress all attempts at the infraction of its duties respecting neutrality by sea or land, by all means in its power.

Art. VII. Any negligence in the performance of the duties announced in the preceding article, resulting in an effect upon the struggle, by impairing or embarrassing the results of operations in which a belligerent is engaged, shall lose the neutral state the benefit of its neutrality, and render it liable to make good in damages any injury its conduct has brought upon a belligerent state or its subjects.

Art. VIII. The neutral state which has strictly and in good faith conformed to its obligations as a neutral, may continue its commercial relations, except as to contraband goods, with all the ports of a belligerent which are not blockaded or invested.

That which will most interest the world is the changes which the report recommends. These changes relate to subjects which have been discussed

so fully for many years that no one can do much more than sum up arguments and considerations with which jurists are familiar. It is purposed to examine these proposed changes in their order.

PRIVATE PROPERTY AT SEA. (ART. I.)

This article proposes that the same principles be hereafter applied to private property at sea, as to capture, which have heretofore been applied to private property on land.

This is an attractive suggestion at first sight, but, on fuller consideration, many difficulties present themselves. First, what are the principles heretofore applied to private property on land? The rules respecting it are far more uncertain and complex, and depend far more on circumstances, than those bearing upon ships and cargoes at sea, as the kinds of property on land and their circumstances are infinitely more various. There are exigencies of battles and campaigns which authorize the destruction of all kinds of property, even the habitations and means of subsistence of man and beast. It is at the discretion of the invading force whether it shall subsist upon the invaded country; and, if it does so, it takes and uses everything it needs, subject to no law but humane considerations for the life and immediate comfort of the inhabitants. Merchandise stored for the purpose of sale would be taken without hesitation if needed. The invaders may take for their own use or destroy any kind of property which, if left untouched, would contribute directly to the military resources of the enemy state. Mere personal effects, works of art, science, or letters, would be spared, if used as such, and not held *in commercio*. (Nothing is captured at sea but merchandise, held *in commercio*, voluntarily embarked as such, *lucri causâ*.) In war on land no such thing is known as prize—that is, the transfer of commercial property or its proceeds, in which the enemy state has an interest, to the treasury of the capturing power, by judicial decisions. Simple booty or loot is sometimes permitted on land in special cases, but never at sea. An invading army may leave desolation behind it to delay the march of the enemy. What reasons or rules applicable to Sherman's march through Georgia and the Carolinas, or Sheridan's through the valley of the Shenandoah, can be transferred and applied to invoiced and insured cargoes, in ships registered and licensed by the enemy state, bound into an enemy port, there to pay duties to the enemy treasury equal perhaps to half their value or more? Besides, seizures of private property on land are made in territory where are the habitations and property of the citizens, where they have always been, and from which they cannot well be removed. Marine captures are made upon the common and neutral territory of the sea, where the property has been voluntarily sent as a commercial enterprise, the risks undertaken for the sake of the profits. The truth is there is so little analogy between marine and land captures that they have always been embraced in different categories and governed by different rules, as they rest upon widely different reasons. Property on land is of every possible character, variety, and degree, from the most sacred to the most common, from the most necessary to the most superfluous, from pure merchandise in the market to the most cherished personal objects. Search for it would involve the entering and searching of habitations, among women and children, the sick and the aged, by detached squads of soldiers, often with little chance for identification or control, where the captors are invaders, and where there is every liability and provocation to bloodshed, violence, and outrage. Private property at sea, subject to capture, is merchandise, selected for the purpose of the venture from the mass of property on land, the subject of insurance, and voluntarily embarked upon the common territory of the sea, solely *lucri causâ*, under regulations of the enemy state, contributing directly to its resources for war by duties and imposts levied at its discretion. It is put on board ships selected for the purpose, in the charge of seafaring men who have voluntarily embarked in the business with full knowledge, for the sake of the pay. The capture need never be attended by fighting; the unarmed merchantmen, if unable to escape, yielding to a necessity foreseen from the beginning by owners, insurers, and crew alike. The whole transaction may be as quiet as a transfer of credits from one belligerent to another on the books of the Barings. The responsible captor is the commissioned commander of a public ship, and all property captured must be taken into port and submitted to judicial investigation and decision, the officers of the captured vessel being always necessary witnesses. It has something of the features of a contention of exchequers under judicial supervision.

No one can satisfactorily examine the questions involved in the proposed articles unless he has a clear view of the one principle on which all belligerent restraint and repression of maritime commerce rest. War is coercion for a purpose. The more that coercion can be brought to bear upon materials and resources, and the less on life and limb, the better. It is within possibility that the isolation of a state from all commerce by blockade and maritime capture, with an army of investiture, may be coercion enough, without much actual fighting on land. The purpose of maritime capture is not to punish, distress, or impoverish individuals, but to cripple the resources of the state. The test of liability to capture is the property's actual or possible contribution to these resources. Maritime capture does not rest upon any of the reasons which govern penal or criminal proceedings. There is nothing in the nature of penalty for offences about it, except of course in special cases of violation of the rules of war. The citizen of an enemy state is not, as such, an offender, or liable to any punishment or penalty, whether he is a combatant or a non-combatant. The motive or the state of mind of the owner of property is no test of its liability to capture, whether he be a citizen of an enemy state, or of a neutral state, or even a loyal subject of the capturing power. The nature and predicament of the property are the test as well in case of contraband as of what is called "enemy property." All private property of a citizen of the enemy state is not "enemy property"; and, on the other hand, the property of a neutral or a friend may be "enemy property" in certain predicaments. It is only such private property as is brought within the category of "enemy property" that is the subject of capture; and that category is determined by certain rules which mainly refer to the actual, possible, or presumed relations of the property to the resources of the enemy state.

Many writers, and some of our best, have spoken of neutral carriers of contraband as offenders, and of the condemnation of their goods as a punishment or penalty for their offence. This is not careful language, and lets in a good deal of error. Neither they, nor even neutral blockade-runners, are offenders against any law, either international or municipal. Neutrals have a legal right to deliver their contraband, or run a blockade, if they can, by peaceful means, and the belligerent has a right to intercept them and convert to his own use the cargo and, in some cases, the vessel. But he cannot treat the neutral persons concerned as offenders, or inflict any kind of penalty on their persons or property for having done or attempted those acts. These enterprises are like lotteries permitted by law, in which a man may lose his venture, but for which he cannot be punished. Even the citizen of an enemy state is not an offender, and must be treated, whether a combatant or non-combatant, as one engaged or involved in a lawful enterprise. The introduction into the discussion of war powers of the phraseology of penal or criminal law, penalties or forfeitures for offences (except in case of violations of laws of war), may lead to mistakes as to the radical principles and reasons governing the subject.

These are by no means all the reasons which might be given in explanation of the present system and as objections to the proposed rule, but they are perhaps enough to show that the subject is one requiring much graver consideration than is often given to it. The question is this: Do humanity and public policy require that the law of nations shall give to all citizens of a State engaged in war passports over the high seas for purely commercial enterprises, guaranteeing the payment of the duties and imports into its treasury, as sinews of war, against all hostile intervention? Especially, whether this is desirable as free institutions increase and citizens are more and more responsible for the acts and attitude of their state? Shall the repression of enemy commerce on the high seas be no longer a legitimate means of coercion in time of war?

CONTRABAND GOODS. (ARTICLES III., V.)

Article III. proposes to limit contraband to some twenty specified articles of military weapons and equipment, "et autres instruments quelconques fabriqués à l'usage de la guerre." As the law of nations now stands, articles in their nature ambiguous, or, as the phrase is, *ancipitis usûs*, may be treated as contraband under certain circumstances. For instance, provisions destined to a besieged town; spars, coal, and steam-machinery bound to a port which is a naval arsenal; or ship's stores bound to a neutral port, not for a market, but to be delivered to the enemy's fleet lying at anchor in such port. The test is their liability to become a direct contribution to the war powers and resources of the enemy. As the rule of contraband is applied only to neutral property, the test of liability to contribute must be more clear, strong, and direct than is needed in case of property of an enemy citizen. All property of an enemy citizen may be said to contribute in some degree to the resources of the state. His property, found on the highway of nations, is liable to capture, except where it is exempted by certain rules dictated by humanity and an enlarged public policy. The property of the neutral, on the contrary, has, *primâ facie*, no relation to the enemy's state, is *primâ facie* exempt, and can be taken only where a strong case is made out against it; and that case is limited to one of direct contribution to the aid of the enemy, not in the way of general resources, but

of specific and immediate military use. Upon this principle, some articles, like swords, muskets, and powder, being mainly of military use, are always contraband, if destined to an enemy's port. Other articles, such as pianofortes, pictures, and marble statues, are never contraband. But the greater part of supposable articles are of a mixed and ambiguous character, yet may, under some circumstances, form a most direct and effective contribution to the relief of the enemy. Hitherto, prize courts have not limited themselves to an inspection of the physical nature of the articles, but have enquired into other facts bearing upon their destination and inevitable contribution to the aid or relief of the enemy. A cargo of steamer's coals, destined to Malta, Gibraltar, or Aden, of steam machinery to Norfolk, or of breadstuffs to a besieged town closely pressed by famine, would be held contraband ; and so would a steamship, unarmed, and with only a navigating crew, if easily convertible into a crusier, bound for an enemy's port in ballast, to be sold in the market. If the new rule is adopted, all circumstances will be shut out, and only what is purely a necessary weapon or equipment for battle can be cut off from reaching the enemy, if the property of a neutral.

But the most important proposal of all is that of Article V. It is scarce possible to limit the effects it may produce upon the duties of neutral states and the industries of neutral countries. It proposes that neutral states shall be required to prohibit the manufacture or exportation of articles contraband of war "qui seraient destinés à l'un des états belligérants." If this means destined to ports or territory of the belligerent state for a market, it is a proposal which we think will hardly be listened to by any state having large manufactures or commerce ; nor would it be much more favored by a maritime state with small means of manufacturing articles of war and dependent for them on foreign trade. A large part of the capital, industry, and skill of the world is permanently invested in the manufacture and transportation, in time of peace as well as of war, of things which all admit to be contraband in case of war. Governments, corporations, and individuals must always be supplying themselves with such articles, not solely in view of possible war, but as a protection against domestic violence, private dangers from men or beasts, for purposes of the chase, civic celebrations, and many public works. That this whole industry, of so permanent a character, shall be subject to such repression and interruption in case of a war between two foreign powers, would be a most serious matter as regards those industries alone. But it becomes still more grave when we remember that the neutral government will be required, at the peril of war or reclamations, to be diligent in the use of detective and repressive force to prevent such manufacture and traffic. If the proposed article refers, as it probably does, only to such goods when intended to be sent and delivered directly to the authorities of a belligerent state, under a contract with such authorities, the objection will be diminished, but by no means removed. If a neutral citizen carries articles contraband of war, which are the property of the belligerent state before their exportation, or which, by a previous contract with such state, he is to deliver into its possession, he may be something more than a dealer in contraband ; he may be liable to be treated as engaged in the enemy's service. If the obligation of the neutral state is confined to the prevention of the organizing and equipping of what is by itself a naval or military force or expedition, or the component parts of one, including vessels of war, it is a reasonable requirement. But it may well be doubted if it will be thought reasonable or even of much practical value to require watch and ward over the making and exporting of separate articles—such as guns, swords, powder, balls, saltpetre, saddles, and harness—though destined by contract for the possession of the public authorities of the belligerent. Whichever be the intent of the article, is it not better that these permanent industries of the world should be allowed to go on in spite of wars between other nations, the private parties interested taking the chance of their capture upon the high seas ?

### BLOCKADE. (ART. II.)

The learned author proposes, in this article, no change in the law of blockade, and no definition of points in doubt. As to notification of an existing blockade, the provision is substantially that which President Lincoln made in his proclamation of April 18, 1861, establishing the first blockade,—"If, with a view to violate such blockade, a vessel shall approach, or shall attempt to leave, any of the said ports, she shall be duly warned by the commander of one of the blockading vessels, who will endorse on her register the fact and date of such warning ; and, if the same vessel shall again attempt to enter or leave the blockaded port, she will be captured." This clause was omitted in the proclamation of 27th April, extending the blockade to the ports of Virginia and North Carolina. Commodore Pendegrast, in a proclamation announcing the actual existence of this blockade, limits this warning to vessels approaching without knowledge of its existence.

Our diplomatic correspondence on this subject was not definite or decisive ; but the prize courts of the United States gave to the paragraph the only construction, it must be confessed somewhat forced, which would not make the proclamation *felo de se*, namely, that it was intended for the benefit of the innocent and not of the guilty. Judge Grier says ('Prize Causes,' 2 Black, 678), "According to the construction contended for [by the claimant], the vessel seeking to evade the blockade might approach and retreat any number of times, and, when caught, her captors could do nothing but warn her, and endorse the warning upon her register. The same process might be repeated at every port on the blockaded coast. Indeed, according to the literal terms of the proclamation, the *Alabama* might approach, and, if captured, insist upon a warning and endorsement of her register, and then upon her discharge." Indeed, under the proposed rule, during a large maritime war, the neutral ports nearest the blockaded region would be found full of fast-sailing steamers, advertised to take cargoes for running blockade, and warranted unwarned. If all that is meant by Art. II. is that such a notification shall be given to vessels having no actual or constructive notice of the establishment of a blockade at sea, it is of little value, such notices having always been legitimate, and used when necessary and practicable. To require them, to the exclusion of other modes of notification, even to an innocent vessel, would be unwise.

### PRIVATEERS. (ARTICLE I.)

As to privateers, the world seems pretty well agreed that the objections to allowing them outweigh the policy and rights of states which are at the disadvantage of having small navies and a large and exposed commerce. Their prohibition is immediately in the interest of great naval powers, and the right to use them is one which smaller states cannot be required to relinquish but by consent. In our civil war we were able to dispense with privateers by the device of establishing a volunteer navy for the period of the war ; and other states having a large mercantile marine may do the same.

### FOREIGN ENLISTMENT OR NEUTRALITY ACTS. (ARTICLES VI., VII.)

These articles bear upon the points arising under the Treaty of Washington of 1871, and the decision of the arbitrators at Geneva.

It may be assumed as now settled that if a neutral state fails of its duty, the absence of adequate legislation or of detective or coercive machinery furnishes no justification. If this absence was without bad faith or gross neglect, it may be an excuse which a belligerent should accept. The importance of the proposed articles on this head lies principally in other directions. They propose to prohibit absolutely in neutral ports "la construction, l'armement ou la vente pour compte de l'un ou l'autre belligérant, de tout bâtiment destiné à être employé comme navire de guerre, croiseur ou transport." They make it the duty of the neutral not only to have the proper machinery but to use it, *bonâ fide*, "avec empressement," to prevent or repress any infractions of these duties attempted or committed. The articles do not use the phrase "due diligence," but make the neutral answerable for the consequences of "toute négligence" in the performance of these duties. These consequences must be such as shall have had an influence upon the contest by affecting injuriously the results of operations of either belligerent. There seems to be no attempt at drawing a line between direct and indirect consequences, or at determining the extent to which the consequences of the injury can be traced, in respect to awarding damages. These omissions are no doubt intentional, and seem to be judicious. It is also proper to bear in mind that M. Calvo does not put forward these articles as the final definitions or the exact phraseology which the declaration should assume, but rather as sketches of the objects and bearing of the proposed rules. Article V., section 2, on the subject of building and fitting out vessels which are intended to be used by a foreign belligerent, does not seem to go beyond the provisions of the British Neutrality Act of 1870, or the judicial constructions which have been given to our own Act of 1818.

Whatever opinions may be entertained as to the expediency of some of the provisions recommended by these articles, and they are fairly open questions, not only the Institute of International Law, but the jurists and statesmen of all nations, are under obligations to M. Calvo for the great pains he has taken in bringing his studies and thought to bear upon these subjects, for the thoroughness of his preparation, and for the unquestionable value of many of his suggestions.

R. H. Dana, jr.

Boston, Feb. 5, 1875.

## A FRENCH LOVE-MAKING IN THE LAST CENTURY.

PARIS, February 12, 1875.

THE eighteenth century has been much abused for its frivolity, its levity; and it has, so to speak, abused itself as much as possible in its literature. Whenever we think of the men and women of that period, they appear to us in a sort of decoration drawn by Boucher and Watteau, surrounded with Cupids and with fantastic shepherdesses, in an artificial scenery; they sing and laugh and smile; they ignore sorrow and death and the approaching Revolution; their lives are woven with silks of all colors, and seem like a perpetual masquerade. This is the classic conception of the eighteenth century, but it is, of course, only partly correct; for in the most artificial civilization Nature does not lose her immortal rights. Read Madame du Deffant's correspondence with Walpole, and you will find under her frivolity a depth of melancholy, of *ennui*, which is almost too dreadful. Rousseau touched the inner chords of mankind when he defended nature and what was then called sensibility—that is, the eternal passions of our race. M. de Loménie, who has, more than anybody in our time, shown us the true eighteenth century in his 'Beaumarchais,' has shown in his history of Madame de Rochefort that the men and women of her time had a very remarkable disposition for long, enduring, and passionate friendships. Love was not always found in the bonds of matrimony, as marriages were made and arranged without the choice of the parties. But in the struggle for life of society, partnerships were formed which were often indissoluble.

A correspondence has just been published which is worthy of the greatest interest, as it shows this side of the manners of our ancestors in a very extraordinary manner. It is the correspondence of the once famous Chevalier de Boufflers, who still holds his place among our minor poets, and the Countess of Sabran. Boufflers was so witty that Madame du Deffant could ask herself if he had not as much *esprit* as Voltaire himself. His 'Journey to Switzerland and to Ferney,' written half in prose and half in verse, is very typical; his 'Queen of Golconda' made his reputation as a poet; but he chiefly excelled in those small pieces which are mere trifles of literature. He addresses, for instance, verses to Brilliant, the pet cat of the Maréchale de Luxembourg, and ends thus:

"Luxemboug est votre maîtresse:
Que n'est-elle la mienne aussi?"

Boufflers wrote the 'Queen of Golconda' when he was still in orders; he had the promise of a bishopric, but he did not feel what is called the vocation for the Church. The Abbé de Boufflers was unwilling, however, to lose forty thousand francs in ecclesiastical benefices which King Stanislas of Lorraine had promised him, and he got himself made a Knight of Malta, as this order allowed him to own benefices. He entered the army, and made a campaign in Hesse in 1762. He was colonel of the Chartres regiment in 1777. At the time when he made the acquaintance of Madame de Sabran he was twenty-seven years of age, while she was already thirty-nine. From her portraits, she must have been charming. She had essentially "la grâce, plus belle encore que la beauté"—to use a verse of Voltaire's; eyes full of softness, what the French call smiling eyes; a sinuous and intelligent mouth, an expression of great elegance, distinction without pride. Madame de Sabran, though she did not live at court, belonged to the best society. We find among her friends the Countess of Andlau, a daughter of Helvetius, the Princesse d'Aremberg, the Polignacs, the Countess Daschkoff, and Prince Henry of Prussia, a brother of Frederic the Great, who was, like many Germans of his time, quite a Francomaniac.

Madame de Sabran lived in the winter in a hotel of the Faubourg Saint-Honoré, and in the summer at Anizy-le-Château with her uncle, who was Bishop of Laon. The correspondence begins in 1778, and already Madame de Sabran calls the Chevalier familiarly "my brother." She was a widow with two children, Elzear and Delphine, and soon assumes a maternal tone towards the gallant Chevalier; after a little while she calls him constantly "mon enfant." She falls in love with him, and bids him "Go, be as free as air; use and abuse your liberty; I love you too much to make you feel the weight of a heavy chain. I wish you to be guided towards me by your own will, and not by any politeness or obligingness; I will not be happy at your expense." This marks the nature of the first relations between them; she feels the difference in their ages more than he does; she is afraid of losing him, and treats him like a spoiled child. There is so much real affection in her charming letters that one cannot help wondering why she does not marry him, though she is twelve years older than he is. Alas! Boufflers had too much ambition; he knew that he would lose his benefices by marrying. Madame de Sabran had a good fortune, but he did not wish to bring her nothing but his name; he tried to conquer a good, a great position; and it must be said to his credit that he did not hesitate, in order to win the right of marrying Madame de Sabran, to suffer the greatest hardships. He accepted a mission to Senegal. Boufflers in Senegal! No greater sacrifice can be imagined; the pet of the salons of Paris, the refined poet and soldier, under the tropics among the savages. His journal from Senegal to Madame de Sabran shows us a new Boufflers, not the artificial author of the 'Queen of Golconda,' but the natural man. He left for Senegal in 1785, and returned for a few months the year after to take his seat in the French Academy. He again went out to Senegal, and came back on the very eve of the Revolution, in time to be named deputy to the States-General in Lorraine. The Revolution broke up all his plans: his long efforts had been vain; he did not conquer the fortune, the position, which seemed so necessary to him.

From the tone of the correspondence and of the journal from Senegal, it can hardly be doubtful that Boufflers and the Countess had been secretly married, probably at the time of Boufflers's first return to France. She calls him constantly "mon mari" after that period, and she makes many allusions which seem to prove what I here advance. When they both became exiles she was already getting old, they both were poor; but they solemnized their marriage at Breslau in 1797. They came back to France in 1800, and Boufflers had to accept a small pension from Napoleon. He died in 1815, at the very moment when his name could have called him to the new House of Peers. His wife, though she was older than he, survived him twelve years; she composed her own epitaph, which is quite worth remembering:

"A la fin, je suis dans le port
Qui fut de tout temps mon envie;
Car j'avais besoin de la mort
Pour me reposer de la vie."

There is a real touch of melancholy in these four lines, a sense of weariness which is sometimes felt also in the long correspondence of the two lovers. Imagine Boufflers in Senegal, Madame de Sabran in the midst of the polite society of Paris; the difficulties of such a correspondence are much greater than can be imagined, for after a while it seems as if the correspondents had no longer anything in common. Madame de Sabran speaks in some of her letters of the book she is writing on manners and society; she had good opportunities for observation, and her remarks on the men and women she sees are very acute. She belongs to the great moralistic school which has never been interrupted in France, from La Bruyère to Vauvenargues. She has what the French call *le trait*, a word which I cannot well translate. For instance, speaking of a man who had just died, she says: "He was the Solomon of our age, *à la sagesse près*" (the wisdom excepted). She describes herself in a drawing-room with an ambassadress, with Madame de Boufflers, the cousin of the Chevalier, and with Madame de Cambise. "I was comparing their various modes of being witty; the ambassadress had chosen the most amiable, Madame de Cambise the most refined, and your dear cousin the maddest." "Marshal Soubise," she says, in another place, "has had a fit; he is now struggling with death, and there is no appearance that he will have the best of it, for he is not accustomed to victory" (an allusion to Rosbach). But Madame de Sabran does not indulge much in criticism; she is of an affectionate disposition, and, what is more striking than anything, under all her *enjouement* there is a perpetual sadness. She had been married as a child to M. de Sabran, who was fifty years older than herself; she had hardly known him; all her affections were centred in her two children and in Boufflers, and Boufflers was away. She knew that when he returned he would find her an older woman: "The days are marching; old age is coming; by what *charms* will you be held by me, by gout or rheumatism?" In another place she says: "You are my God. If I had suffered for the *other* the thousandth part of what I have for you, I should be sure to go to Paradise with a martyr's palm. I have not chosen well. I have attached myself to a master who is light and capricious, who cannot see in my heart the depth of the tenderness I feel for him, and who abandoned me to my weakness at the very moment when I most felt the need of aid and of consolation." This extraordinary separation of two lovers, caused by mere worldly ambition, reminds me of the Latin phrase, "Et propter vitam, vivendi perdere causas." In order to secure future happiness, they renounced all happiness; they lost the best years of life—Madame de Sabran in idle regrets, Boufflers in a vain struggle with fortune.

Boufflers's journal in Senegal has an intrinsic value, if you look upon it not as a mere chapter of a love-story. It shows in very minute details the state of colonization in Saint Louis in the last century, the character of the French agents, of the French navy of that time. Boufflers appears in it in a favorable light, humane, a slave of his new duties, intelligent, active; of course his heart is always in France, in Paris, and the best part of it goes to his charming correspondent, though she always fears that he does

not give enough of it, and is certainly the more generous of the two correspondents.

What has become of the family of this most amiable person? She had two children, Elzear and Delphine. Elzear became, I might almost say of course, the occasion of much trouble to his mother. He was lazy, without character; the emigration threw him into Germany; he returned to France in 1800 with his mother, became a sort of a familiar slave of Madame de Staël, and used to spend weeks at Coppet. He tried his hand at some fables; he wrote a comedy for Madame de Staël; he was a very ordinary man, and he died without having married. Delphine had inherited the wit and loveliness of her mother. She married M. de Custine; she saw her father-in-law and her husband mount the scaffold during the Terror, and remained in Paris with a young child at the risk of her own life. She lived much, till the end of her life, in Normandy, in the Château de Fervaques. Her son is still alive, but he has sold Fervaques. Madame de Sabran died, as I have said, in 1827; she spent the latter part of her life with Elzear, living chiefly on the memories of the past, a phantom of a bygone age among the new society which sprang out of the Revolution.

# Correspondence.

## "RHETORICAL TRAINING."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the last number of the *Nation* is an article adverse to the teaching of rhetoric in our colleges. The argument seems to be this: Oratory without thought is vain; *ergo*, let there be no teaching of oratory. (Faith without works is dead; therefore, let us not teach faith.) Is this logical? Yes, if the two are inconsistent. If the trained thinker cannot, in the nature of things, write or speak well, and *vice versâ*, we must make our choice. If training the mind to think well cannot go on with training it to the best methods of expression, we are brought to the dilemma—otherwise, not.

It seems to me that the opponents of rhetorical training in our colleges fall into the mistake, or resort to the fallacy, of sliding from rhetoric to declamation, and from declamation to "spouting." Are they convertible terms? They are so used in your article. You say, and justly enough, that fluency, glibness, ease, and assurance on one's feet are common enough in this country, and that "what we need is not more glibness or assurance, . . . but well-ordered brains." True; but what follows? Are we to train the intellects of men who are to be senators, barristers, preachers, and lecturers, and not train their powers of expression? Your article is apropos of Mr. Tracy's reading a manuscript speech to a jury for six days. Why did he do this? I presume it was because while he could think well, reason well, and write satisfactorily, he could not trust himself to extemporaneous utterance. Now, look at Mr. Evarts, who will close the case. He is a clear, strong thinker, with "well-ordered brains," and he can trust himself to extemporaneous utterance, and never writes out a speech. He left Yale College and Harvard Law School the best orator and debater of his day, able to think while he spoke, and speak as he thought and felt. Most of the good and useful speakers, as well as the great orators, have trained themselves in elocution from the earliest, and most assiduously, and especially those in whom the training least appears, whose style is the most pure and simple. There is no rule for great geniuses; but systems of education cannot be based upon such exceptions. And great geniuses do much more of training than the simple suppose. Of our own Massachusetts orators, Ames, Webster, Choate, Channing, Buckminster, Everett, Phillips, Garrison, all were assiduous cultivators of the powers of utterance from boyhood up. (The notion that Webster was not a speaker at college is a mistake. See his 'Private Correspondence,' Vol. I., pp. 46, 50, 52, 53, and 67.) And how has it been with Pitt, Canning, Peel, Gladstone, Lowe, Roundell Palmer, and most Oxford and Cambridge men who have risen to fame—to say nothing of Greeks and Romans—not as declaimers and spouters, but as men who could express thought, will, and emotion by extemporaneous speech before large numbers most effectually?

I agree in your dislike of the intercollegiate rhetorical exhibitions in large, crowded halls in our cities; but, for the reasons so well set forth by Gov. Chamberlain a few numbers back, not because rhetorical training is undesirable.

Perhaps all your article meant to do (although it said much more and otherwise) was to deprecate a growth of declamation at the expense of mental training. But here again what is the remedy? Is it not to encourage mental training to the utmost, and to do the utmost to secure at the same time a rhetorical training which shall deliver us from the vicious habits of this country and generation? Is it a condition, on which alone the well-trained brain can be had, that it shall leave college a mute? Must a man so trained leave college with all the defects of utterance, station, and gesture he brought there from an uncultured home, or with the tricks he took in insensibly from the poor declaimer or uncouth wrangler or wit of the country bar, or village pulpit, or platform; or, quite as bad, with the vicious declamatory style he learned from some tasteless teacher of elocution in a pretentious "institute" or "academy"? It is an ill-considered position, if not a vulgar prejudice, to suppose that training in rhetoric and elocution, whether in writing or speaking, means the increase of fluent, easy writing or fluent, declamatory speaking—in short, that rhetoric means what is called "mere rhetoric," which means either vicious rhetoric, or writing or speaking by men who have too little to say. Rhetoric is the art of enabling men who have something to say to say it to the best advantage. Much of the teaching of rhetoric is the unlearning of bad habits, the rooting out of false notions, and the substitution of the best models for the worst. Do boys come to college free from all habits or predilections as to speech? Certainly not. They have been picking up and adopting bad habits and false notions of elocution from their cradles up. They do not come to college natural, unsophisticated readers and speakers, whose only dangers lie in non-natural, artificial styles which may be taught them there. On the contrary, most of them come to college with styles of reading and speaking as unnatural, as affected, as conventional and traditional, as any of the tricks and habits of the stage; and this is as true of the yeoman or mechanic's son from the country as of the prize declaimer from the city school—indeed, it is more true of the former. There is as much affectation and conventionalism, as far a departure from nature, in the awkward, tobacco-spitting, nasal, popular orator and wit of the country bar or the vociferating revival preacher, who are the models of one class, as in the boys, however unfortunately trained to public speaking, in our higher schools. Both have much to unlearn. So it is with writing. Does the youth come to college without a style, or without tastes or predilections as to style? What shall we say of his daily reading of cheap papers and magazines and novels, and of sensational speeches and lectures?

The truth is, the function of the teacher of rhetoric in our colleges, whether it be in writing or speaking, is not to impose on the student an artificial style, not to promote affectations, traditions, "fluency, spouting, and assurance," but largely to make men unlearn bad tricks, discard bad habits, rectify vicious tastes and notions, and chiefly, in this country, to unmake declaimers and spouters, and to accustom young men to purer models and higher styles of reading, writing, and speaking, where they are but the most natural and effective agents for the transmission of thought and emotion from man to man. It is to enlarge the views and widen the experience of the early follower of the one model. It is, in fine, to restore, as far as can be done, the broken relations between thought and expression, emotion and utterance; to enable the man of brain and affections to put himself into communication with the minds and hearts of other men under the most favorable circumstances.

Your article deprecates oratory before a man has anything to say. At school the boy's training in elocution should be largely voice, in reforming and curing, and strengthening and varying, the functions of utterance, and accustoming the boy to stand on his legs before others in reading aloud, in oral recitations of lessons, and in speaking the thoughts and emotions of others, in prose and verse, which he can understand and feel, though he is too young to originate them. Men enter college now (I speak of Harvard) at the age of nearly nineteen, on the average. Have men from nineteen to twenty-three, educated as well as America can educate, nothing to say? If not, when will they have something to say? Shall their training and practice be put off until they preach their first sermon at twenty-six, or argue their first cause at thirty, or make their first speech in Faneuil Hall? I grant that bad early teaching in elocution, whether declamation or reading, is especially injurious. But it need not be bad at college. Few men left Harvard in Professor Channing's time who have not, in later life, thanked his memory for his teachings, drillings, and criticisms, all tending to bring back to what we call nature in public utterance—that is, to what the best taste shows to be the most fitting and effective, however various, and however much individual qualities and idiosyncrasies are respected and preserved.

R.

Cambridge, March 6, 1875.

["R.'s" synopsis of our argument is hardly correct. The argument is—Oratory without thought is vain; rhetorical training in youth is apt to promote oratory without thought, and make it seem

a good thing. Moreover, this training is not necessary to produce the only things it can produce—fluency and assurance—because they are common enough without it; *ergo*, rhetorical training is undesirable. We never meant to maintain that a young man's powers of expression, any more than his other powers, cannot be improved by training. Defects of pronunciation or intonation can, and of course ought to be corrected in youth, and are hardly corrigible after youth is past. We doubt extremely, however, whether they have ever yet been cured by a professor in college. Purity of accent and clearness of enunciation are almost always the result of assiduous efforts on a man's own part to follow models of speech which are constantly within his hearing—or, in other words, those of the society in which he lives, his own family or his friends and companions—or of unconscious imitation of them. We have heard of the acquisition by girls who had plenty of time for it, more than a young man can ever give, from the steady teaching of a "tone master," but we have never happened to see or hear of a young man who got them from class-room exercises. The ordinary lesson in "elocution" we take to be, in ninety cases out of a hundred, futile. It may now and then help a natural orator to rid himself of glaring tricks of manner, or to improve some of his own methods; but, in so far as it attempts to enable a cold or timid man, who is not a natural orator, to go through an orator's motions, and produce sham fire, and simulate that unconscious action of the brain on the muscles which alone can produce lawful and honest gesticulation, it is simply a deceitful process, of which the only result is "rhetoric" in the narrower, though now ordinary, sense of the term. The cases which "R." cites of American and English orators who were "assiduous cultivators of the powers of utterance from boyhood up," seem to us to strengthen our position. These men were all either natural orators or had such a strong sense of the necessity of rhetorical powers—in order to open to them a field for the display of other and higher powers—that they trained themselves diligently in speaking. We maintain that such men will always do so, and that the best safeguard against the growth of bad rhetoricians and against the elevation of rhetoric into undue prominence, is to be found in leaving this training to the student's own conviction of its necessity to him, in order to complete his equipment. It will thus come as an appendage to thorough culture and really high ambition, and not as a cloak for laziness, windiness, and mediocrity, as it is so often in public life. If ducks were rational and we could train them, we would of course devote ourselves mainly to impressing on them the necessity of laying eggs and getting fat, feeling sure that a right-minded duck would under this teaching certainly take her daily swim, as necessary to her higher development; we should be careful not to preach to her the enormous importance of swimming as an accomplishment, knowing well that she would go to the water naturally in any case, and that good-for-nothing ducks would spend most of their time in it.

This is not really as far-fetched a simile as it may seem at first sight. As we said last week, good delivery has become an inherited trait of the race on this continent. We appeal to everybody who hears much public speaking to say whether bad delivery, or awkward or incorrect language, are not very rare, on the platform, in the pulpit, in Congress, or at the bar. Nearly every American who attempts oratory at all has a good enunciation, produces well-turned sentences, and has a graceful and easy manner. If you frequent the House of Representatives, you will find that the trash which fills so large a space in the *Congressional Record* has been rolled off with a certain finish which almost disguises its quality until you see it in print. In fact, we know of no reason, in one's experience of American forensic life, for supposing that the neglect of rhetoric by school or college produces any bad results. On the contrary, we see many reasons for suspecting, in the absence of precise knowledge on the subject, that it is unduly cultivated, to the neglect of better things. Now if, as we believe, the curriculum of colleges ought to be framed with some reference to the prevailing social or political tendencies of the day, there can be little doubt that the duty of American colleges towards oratory is to encourage orators to seek the things in which they are plainly most wanting, for which the public at large offers fewest premiums, which are hardest to acquire, and which are the basis or root of all oratory. The tendency of the time is, as we all see, to overrate fluency and assurance, to underrate knowledge and mental discipline; and the highest duty of a university is to counteract this tendency, and restore the balance between thought and expression.

We do sincerely deprecate speech-making by boys, although we have nothing to say against the exercises in elocution which "R." recommends; and we do not believe that young men under twenty-one or twenty-two have, in the great majority of cases, anything to say worth saying in public, and we think it a great misfortune for a young man to be led into supposing that he has. During his undergraduate course he is, if a bright fellow, in a fever of enthusiasm over his discoveries of things with which the rest of the world has long been familiar, and is busy filling his memory with ideas and passages which he is not able to digest from authors whom he is not competent to weigh. This is useful work, if it is kept in its proper place. It is not useful, but hurtful, if his seniors encourage him to believe that it is all that is needed to qualify him to instruct the public.

If we may be allowed to close criticism with a suggestion which is the result of much observation, we will say that the most efficient and safest mode of teaching the art of expression, whether oral or written, to immature persons, is simple narration. Nothing is more difficult, from a literary point of view, than clear and correct narrative. The number even of practised writers who are capable of it is small. There can be no better exercise in the choice of words, in the construction of sentences, in memory and arrangement and perspective, than it affords. To require a student to recount a complicated transaction, on his legs or with his pen, without flourish or ornament, putting the facts in their proper order, giving each its due amount of space, and keeping clear of vagueness or cloudiness, is to give him the best sort of rhetorical training, and the only safe sort. It cuts off all temptation to "spouting" and all opportunity of shirking, or of filling in vacant spaces with sound, and represses all false notions of his own powers. The flights of fancy, the ornament, the unearthly wisdom, the long foresight, the burning patriotism, the deep disgust over the degeneracy of the times, had better come later, if they are to come at all, as the result of real feeling and larger experience and of noble ideals.—Ed. Nation.]

## Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'Travels in Central India (L'Inde des Rajahs),' by Louis Rousselet, profusely illustrated; and 'English-Gypsy Songs,' in Rommany, with metrical English translations, by Charles G. Leland, Prof. E. H. Palmer, and Janet Tuckey.——The sale is announced in April of a part of the valuable library of Mr. Thomas W. Field, viz.: works relating to the American Indians (described in his 'Essay towards an Indian Bibliography'), and to the American Revolution and War of 1812, and the historical collections of the various societies in the United States. The catalogue is in preparation by J. Sabin & Sons, 84 Nassau Street, who say of the Indian collection that it is by far the largest of the kind ever sold in this or any other country.——The *American Bibliopolist* for February contains a complete and racy exposure, by Mr. Sabin, of the Banvard-Brown "£1,000 book hoax," a matter with which we have not troubled our readers, though it will always deserve a place among the curiosities of advertising. The book ('The Life of a King') has since appeared, and, so far as the editor's part is concerned, bears about the same relation to literature that his panorama did to a Turner landscape. The dedication, however, is not lacking in ingenuity: "To those of my Southern fellow-citizens who once expressed a wish to be governed by a British prince."——The third Statement of the (American) Palestine Exploration Society is devoted to an identification of Mount Pisgah by Prof. John A. Paine, the Society's botanist and archæologist. The discussion is an exceedingly interesting one, and is marked by caution as well as candor. Due credit is given to Saulcy and the Duc de Luynes, while the pretensions, misstatements, and romancing (to give it a mild name) of Dr. H. B. Tris-

tram are unsparingly exposed. The application of the test of the view from Mount Pisgah (Jebel Siâghah) appears to confirm Prof. Paine's identification in every respect. Non-contributors to the funds of the Society will receive an ample return for the fifty cents required to purchase this pamphlet. The financial secretary's office is at 78 East Ninth Street.——The *Geographical Magazine* for January contains a map of tropical South Africa, prompted by the news of Lieut. Cameron's discovery of an outlet to Lake Tanganyika, the River Lukuga. The western goal of this persevering explorer, the Congo coast, is beautifully shown in detail in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for December 31, 1874, with reference to the hitherto not very successful labors of the German African Expedition; and a side-map shows the entire unexplored field of Central Africa, which this Expedition has appropriated to itself. The three plates of Part 25 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas are (1) a North Polar chart, remarkable also as embracing the whole of the Russian possessions; (2) an admirable map of Europe, physical, political, and statistical, in which the depth of the ocean and of all the internal waters is geographically shaded as well as expressed in fathoms; (3) a map of the East Indies (New York: L. W. Schmidt).

—The eighth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' begun in 1852, was completed in 1860. Volume I. of the ninth, edited by Dr. Thomas Spencer Baynes, is now before us (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) The typographical features of the work are those with which the present generation is familiar, and the usual topics have been chosen for the steel-plate illustrations at the end of the volume. To the end of time, we suppose, Aeronautics, and Agriculture, and Anatomy, and Africa, and America will be thus delineated in the Encyclopædia. With balloon-pictures, indeed, the Encyclopædia is associated in our earliest recollections, and it would not be quite the same thing without them; nor, sentiment apart, do we think that too much importance or interest is ascribed to an art which has thus far been attended with so many costly failures, and so little substantial benefit to mankind. When we add that woodcuts are inserted in the text with tolerable frequency, we need say nothing more of the external appearance of the work. The plan of it as distinguished from that of other encyclopædias is well known. It aims to give a résumé of the present state of knowledge concerning the chief objects of human study and research, and to do this in broad and comprehensive articles rather than in detail; in other words, it is less a dictionary than a collection of treatises—less a work of reference, strictly so-called, than a means of self-education, an instrumentality for private culture. It may be imagined, however, that this line cannot be sharply drawn, and in fact the editor admits that the recent progress of science renders necessary a much greater subdivision than formerly. The treatment of controverted questions which he marks out as proper for the 'Encyclopædia' is critical and historical rather than dogmatic, and he gives evidence of his impartiality in his selection of contributors. He acknowledges his obligations to Huxley and Clerk Maxwell for hints as to the headings under which modern science should be distributed. To the former he entrusts the Animal Kingdom (in Vol. II., Vol. I. ending with Anatomy); to St. George Mivart, the Ape; to E. B. Tylor, Anthropology; to A. R. Wallace, Acclimatization; to Proctor, Astronomy; to Sidney Colvin, Art, etc., etc.

—In biography, the 'Encyclopædia' continues to omit notice of all living celebrities, so that, for instance, one finds neither Ali Pasha nor Alexander II. of Russia; and Abd-el-Kader is admitted only out of deference to the report that he died at Mecca in 1873—Brockhaus makes him still living at Damascus. This department, as well as geography and statistics, is less full in the 'Encyclopædia' than in the 'Conversations-Lexikon,' and the reference to authorities is much more consistently and amply provided in the German than in the English work. Typical of the difference between them are the extended articles, elaborately illustrated also, on Abattoir and Abbey and Abbot, which are wanting or but cursorily treated in Brockhaus; and the article on the cave Adullam. The 'Encyclopædia' speaks of the common humorous allusion to this resort of those in distress, in debt, or discontented, but gives no later example than 'Waverley.' Brockhaus, on the other hand, having in view what is fresh and current, and likely to come up in conversation, adds an article, Adullamites, devoted to an account of Mr. Bright's famous application of the cave in 1866. Abyssinia, Afghanistan, Africa, and America are treated at great length in the 'Encyclopædia.' The last-named will naturally be most critically scrutinized in this country. In the general sketch of the discovery of the continent it is somewhat surprising to meet with no allusion to the origin of the name, nor to Americus Vespucius in a chronological list of the early voyages and settlements. In discussing the aboriginal American languages, the writer gives nearly a page of extracts from Prof. Whitney's 'Language and the Study of Language.' The article on American Literature is written with knowledge and discrimination, and will, we believe, cause no ruffled feelings on this side. It is inspired, too, by the best feeling towards the United States, as this friendly admission may indicate: "Few Americans have ever so misconceived a British statesman as we misconceived Mr. Lincoln, or gone so far astray in regard to any crisis of our history as we did in reference to the moving springs and results of their Civil War." The estimates placed upon Emerson, Lowell, and Hawthorne, among others, are worth reading, and will command respect if not general assent. We notice but one misprint of an American name—*Hilliard* (Geo. S.) for Hillard; and the writer has not been careful to make it understood of English readers that N. P. Willis has been dead some years.

—A correspondent, writing from Baltimore, asks: Is it not likely that Shakspere, in giving that trait of Hotspur's Kate,

> "Indeed, I'll break thy little finger, Harry,
> If thou wilt not tell me true"—
> [*I. K. Henry IV., II.* 3],

had in mind the following passage of Polydore Vergil, referring to the same lady?

"Saeva in familiares, petulans etiam erga maritum, cujus secreta se exquaesituram minitabat, vel *frangendo digitorum ossicula*, si veritatem pandere constantius recusaret" (xxvi. 2).

The old historian seems to think it a rather serious business. It is odd that this has escaped the notice of all the Shaksperean commentators I have access to.

—It does not very often happen that the authorship of an anonymous publication of the fifteenth century comes to light at this late day. It will, therefore, interest bibliographers to learn that an old manuscript note in a black-letter volume of that period, belonging to one of our public libraries, seems to indicate, with tolerable certainty, the author's name, which, so far as can be ascertained, has hitherto remained unknown. Among the early-printed books in the library of the Cornell University is a thin, admirably-preserved folio, possessing the broad margins, the beautiful, jet-black typography, and the rubricated initials so dear to the heart of the ardent bibliophile. It has neither title-page nor colophon; neither date, place, nor printer's name, and consists of forty-two folios, of which the first, thirty-third, and thirty-fourth are blank, the final signature, on the last leaf but two, being E4. Each page is made up of either thirty-six or thirty-seven lines, and the water-mark of the paper is a unicorn. The book is altogether unknown to Panzer, but a tolerably accurate description of it will be found in Hain (No. 6,066), who gives neither the date nor the name of the author, but states that it was printed by Arnold Therhoernen (ter Hoernen), a printer who exercised his craft at Cologne from 1471 to 1483. It is to Arnold ter Hoernen that the introduction into typography of Arabic numerals is ascribed, and they are sufficiently common throughout this volume in the many citations of chapter and verse from the books of the Bible. The title of the book occupies the first line and a half on the second folio or first printed page, and, with the abbreviations written in full, reads as follows: "Declaratio quedam modi et forme venditionis et emptionis reddituum perpetuorum et vitalium." At the end of this title, filling out the line in the text and continuing the sentence, are written these words: "magistri Gherhardi de elten ordinis predicatorum." The handwriting, and the abbreviations used, indicate that this note was written not long subsequent to the publication of the book—certainly not later than the early part of the sixteenth century. This manuscript annotation has not been correctly read by a later possessor of the volume, who has attempted to write it out in the upper margin as follows: "Eximii Magistri Fratris Everhardi de Alten ord. pred Declaratio," etc., mistaking *Gh* in Gherhardi for *Ev*, and *e* in Elten for *a*. The author of the volume, therefore, without much doubt, is Gerardus de Elten, or, in the vernacular, Gerhard von Elten, who was probably born at Elten, a small Rhenish town not very far from Cologne. He was a Dominican, and the only work which Panzer ascribes to him is a theologico-legal tract, of a character similar to this one, entitled 'Super receptione puerorum ad religionem'—a dissertation on the lawfulness of admitting boys to a participation in the rites of religion before they have attained the age of puberty. This was also printed by Arnold ter Hoernen at Cologne—a fact which may be taken as corroborative of the statement made in regard to the authorship of the 'Declaratio.' A second and last edition of the 'Declaratio' was printed at Memmingen, Bavaria, in 1494, still without the name of the author. The copy of the first edition which we have here described contains the book-mark of "Georgius Kloss M.D. Francofurti ad Moenam"—who published at Frankfurt in 1811 a surgical work in Latin—and a note on the inside of the cover giving the date of the volume as 1480, which is more than likely to be correct. The only

work in which a notice of Gerhard von Elten is to be found is Quétif's 'Scriptores Ordinis Prædicatorum' (Paris, 1719–21), which is unfortunately a rare book on this side of the ocean, and cannot, therefore, be easily consulted.

—Mr. Seymour Haden, one of the most eminent of the English medical profession, has written to the London *Times* on the present mode of interment, and the proposed substitute of cremation. At the outset he invites a consideration of the following propositions: 1. That the natural destination of all organized bodies that have lived and that die on the earth's surface is the earth. 2. That the evils which the cremationists would have us to believe are inseparable from the principle of interment are independent of that principle, and wholly of our own creation. 3. That the source of these evils is to be found not in the burial of the dead, but in the unreasoning sentiment which prompts us to keep them unburied for as long as possible, and then to bury them in such a way that the earth can have no access to them. 4. That the burial of the body supposes its resolution by the direct agency of the earth to which we commit it; and again, that the earth is fully competent to effect that resolution. 5. That to seek to prevent this beneficent agency by enclosing the dead in hermetically-sealed coffins, brick graves, and vaults is in the highest degree unphilosophical, since it does but engage us in a vain resistance to an inevitable dispensation, and since it has led us to accumulate in the midst of us a vast store of human remains in every stage and condition of decay. 6. That the remedy for such evils is not in cremation, but in a sensible recognition of, and a timely submission to, a well-defined law of nature, and in legislative action to enforce the provisions of that law. Mr. Haden never loses sight of the fact that what under "the influence of the air was putrefaction, in the earth is resolution; that which was offensive becomes inoffensive; that which was decay, a process of transmutation." There are two methods of excluding the air from a dead body—the direct and natural method of placing it in the earth, and the evasive and unnatural method of enclosing it in an air-tight coffin.

—In answer to his own question, "How, then, are we to bury our dead?" Mr. Haden says:

"Clearly, within a reasonable time of their dissolution and in coffins, if we must have coffins, of such construction as will not prevent their resolution. No coffin at all would, of course, be best, or a coffin of the thinnest material, which would not long resist the action of the earth, or a coffin the top and sides of which admitted of removal after the body had been lowered into the grave, or a coffin of some light permeable material, such as wicker-work, open at the top, and filled in with any fragrant herbaceous matters that happened to be in season. A layer of ferns or mosses for a bed, a bundle of sweet herbs for a pillow, and as much as it would still contain after the body had been placed in it of any aromatic or flowering plant for a coverlet—such a covering, in short, as while it protected the body from the immediate pressure of the earth as effectually as the stoutest oak, would yet not prevent its resolution. I can conceive no better form of coffin. Let us emulate the healthy sentiment of those older Jews who considered it an indignity and an injury to be refused prompt burial, and so to be made an offence to the living, and bury it while it is fresh and lovely, and while, if we feel it to be an effort and a sacrifice to part with it, we may also feel that we are making that effort and that sacrifice in the cause of the dead."

Further on it is pointed out that as a body, properly buried, is resolved in five or at most, six years, it follows that, at that interval or at intervals as much longer as we please, we may bury again and again in the same ground, with no other effect than to increase its substance and to raise its surface. Mr. Haden concludes his long and interesting letter by a protest against the wild project "to drive into vapor the bodies of the 1,600 people that die weekly in London alone," and he asks pertinently enough, "What are we to do with the residuum, with this six, eight, or ten pounds of solid matter (the average weight, by the way, of the Egyptian mummy) that the furnace is incapable of driving off?" The letter has caused much excitement and correspondence from high and low, expert and inexpert, and the *Times* was justified in its remark that it is seldom that a question which concerns everybody, and which is beset with prejudices and interests, is so carefully, sensibly, and reverentially treated as it has been by the writer of "Earth to Earth."

—We were at a loss to account for Judge Goodrich's fierce onslaught upon Christopher Columbus, lately noticed in these columns. It is just possible that he had heard of the request made to the Vatican Council to consider the claims of Columbus to beatification. Count Roselly de Lorgues, a biographer and infatuated admirer of the great navigator, is the prime mover in this holy work, and is said to have met with great encouragement at Rome. He has accordingly, while awaiting the reconvocation of the Council, prepared a work called 'L'Ambassadeur de Dieu et le Pape Pie IX.,' which has been described as a complete tractate on the religious and mystic life, the predestined vocation and mission, and the apostolic virtues of Christopher Columbus. Since the apostolic times, he asserts, no one has been greater in the world or in the church than Columbus; and he shows how revelation of the latter's mission was seasonably made to Job, Isaiah, and Malachi. All this must be as fuel to the Protestant flame of Judge Goodrich; but would he not do well to revise some of his epithets in the light of the Comte de Lorgues's Part II.—"a luminous grouping of all the evidence as to the eminent degree attained by the cardinal and divine (*théologales*) virtues of Christopher Columbus"?

—No other French work which has recently fallen under our observation promises so much amusement as the foregoing. The following deserve nevertheless to be mentioned. Mr. Tracy's performance in Brooklyn, as exhibiting a regrettable tendency of the American bar, should lend interest to Théodore Froment's 'Essay on the History of Forensic Eloquence in France before the Seventeenth Century,' and the complementary work by the same author on 'The Eloquence of the Bar in the first half of the Sixteenth Century.' They are valuable also in a biographical point of view. One of the jurists celebrated by M. Froment, the Chancellor Pierre Séguier, has been made the subject of a separate work by René Kerviler, who is an ardent and in some respects a successful apologist of the man to whom French letters as well as French jurisprudence owe much. Another order of talent and discipline is criticised in 'Nos Diplomates et notre Diplomatie' by Louis Lherbette, to which M. Picard furnishes a preface. Prof. Casimir Gaillardin, in the second part (vols. iii. and iv.) of his 'History of the Reign of Louis XIV.,' entitled "The Epoch of Power and Glory under Colbert and Louvois," and Pierre Clément, in his 'History of Colbert and his Administration,' cover similar ground. The latter is a posthumous work, an abstract and popularization of the same author's 'Lettres, Instructions et Mémoires de Colbert'—two volumes replacing nine, of course with the omission of proofs and documents. Teachers of the classics may profitably examine the Abbé Fabre d'Envieu's 'Onomatologie de la Géographie grecque,' which he also calls "the art of learning the Greek dictionary by studying the geography of ancient Greece and its colonies"—a novel plan, which would seem not without its advantages; 'Aldus Manutius and Hellenism at Venice;' Jean Aicard's 'The Venus of Milo,' being researches on the discovery of this statue based on inedited documents; and, when it appears in print, M. Dezeimeris's dissertation on the author of the *Querolus* of Plautus, a play which he attributes to one Axius Paulus, an Aquitanian, known as the author of a comedy called *Delirus*, the copyists being held responsible for the change of name to Accius Plautus. Long purses may be recommended to subscribe to 'La Musée Fol,' published by the city of Geneva in illustration of its museum of that name—a rich and choice collection of antiquities, and art-objects of the Renaissance. The volume already issued is a folio of 87 pages of text, with 32 plates and 29 vignettes, and is occupied with antique terracottas, the essay on this subject being by M. Fol himself. Finally, let us mention here the proposed printing in 10 quarto volumes of La Curne de Sainte-Palaye's 'Glossary of the French Language from its Origin to the Time of Louis XIV.'

—M. Auguste Brachet, so favorably known by his 'Grammaire historique de la langue française' and 'Dictionnaire étymologique,' both of which have been translated into English, has just rendered his native tongue another service in a work intended to illustrate the language and literature of the sixteenth century. It is entitled 'Morceaux choisis des grands écrivains du XVI^e^ siècle, accompagnés d'une Grammaire et d'un Dictionnaire de la langue du XVI^e^ siêcle' (12mo; Paris: Hachette et Cie.) We suppose M. Brachet intends to lead his countrymen gradually back to the first period of their literary glory, the marvellous thirteenth century. From that the transition to the Chanson de Roland would be easy enough. It is strange that the French, who in national matters pass for a vain people, should so long have neglected their early literature, which has found its most zealous students in Germany. This neglect, however, is in a fair way of being repaired by the efforts of such men as Brachet, Meyer, Paris, and others; and we are glad to learn that the interest excited by their labors has led to the formation of an Early French Text Society, which, from the list of works promised, seems to embrace Provençal as well as Old French. Among these works are: Aiol, 'La Bataille de Roncevaux' (the modernized version of the Chanson de Roland); Tristan, the works of Crestien de Troies and Marie de France (already frequently printed in Germany and France); 'Le Roman de Berinus'; 'Le Roman des Sept Sages' (published by the Stuttgart Litterarischer Verein) in Provençal and French, the former version, which is as yet inedited, and not known to Provençal scholars, being likely to prove only a translation from the Old French; 'Girart de Roussillon' (this poem, it is well to bear in mind, has nothing to do with the celebrated Provençal epic

of the same name); the chansons of Thibaut, King of Navarre, collections of farces, and mysteries, etc. The annual subscription is 25 francs, or life-membership 250 francs; an entrance fee of 10 francs will be charged to all members after the first 300.

—Of the volumes of papers presented to the first International Congress of Orientalists, held in Paris in 1873, the first is recently published, and in process of distribution to the members; for the second, additional funds are needed, and Mr. Van Name, Librarian of Yale College, is authorized to receive a certain number of new subscriptions at the original amount, twelve francs, entitling the subscriber to the publications of the Congress. For the second meeting, at London, last September, Messrs. Trübner & Co. may be said to have already published its transactions in an extra number (3s. 6d.) of his *American and Oriental Record*. It is a pamphlet of only about sixty pages, but these are of immense size, and in part of very close print, double-columned, so that the amount of material included is far beyond what would be believed possible. We have all the presidents' and chairmen's addresses in full; a large number of papers unabridged, besides others in briefer or longer abstract, and the more important of the oral remarks and discussions; with a parcel of miscellaneous matter relating to the meeting, the organization, the entertainments, and the like—in short, an account of the whole affair. The addresses especially are in good part popular *résumés* in different branches of Oriental study, and of an interest quite as much popular as scholarly.

—The compilation of a dictionary of living authors and their literary offspring is apt to be a thankless task. Users of such books are not particularly appreciative of the patient drudgery and wearisome searching entombed in them. The moral courage requisite to the undertaking must be considerable. Somebody is sure to die just in time to render the fresh tale of the types incomplete, and some omission of importance is highly probable. We were led to these reflections on examining a new book of this kind. A Saxon clergyman (Dr. Wm. Haan) has published a 'Sächsisches Schriftsteller-Lexicon' (Leipzig: Schaefer. 8vo, pp. 391. 3 Thl.), containing short biographical sketches of the "learned authors and artists now living in Saxony," together with lists of their works. Dr. Haan adopts the very desirable plan of admitting magazine articles as well as books. The result is that the volume decidedly increases our respect for Saxon literary activity, at least in its quantitative aspect. The omissions of the book are curious and glaring. One would suppose that the very considerable concentration of the literary life of this little kingdom in two or three neighborhoods would ensure completeness in the compilation. Above all, a fair representation of the labors of the Leipzig University professors was certainly to be expected. We have looked in vain for such well-known names as Credé, Hankel, His, Ludwig, Reclam, G. Wiedemann, Wunderlich, and Zirkel. Ahren's death is not mentioned, though he died at least three months before the very apologetic preface was written. Of Kolbe's continuation of Erdmann's chemical *Journal*, and of Roscher's new history of political economy, the compiler seems quite ignorant. We may have been very unlucky (one looks naturally for familiar names), and these omissions may seem very slight to the theological mind, but they happen to include perhaps the first microscopical geologist, a very noted physiologist, a distinguished professor of clinical medicine (and writer upon thermometry), and the authors of important works or papers on physics, midwifery, and embryology. In fact, the only portion of the book we feel quite sure about consists of the three pages which enumerate the works of the editor himself. From this we learn that he has already displayed considerable compilatory activity—a fact which renders the failures of the present book the less excusable.

## LIVINGSTONE'S LAST JOURNALS.*

IF this large volume is a very interesting book, it is so in spite of a great many drawbacks. It is an enormous mass of raw material, which the author alone could have put into coherent and presentable form. But the author died at his work, in the African forests; and, under the circumstances, it is matter of surprise and gratitude that the record of his labors, imperfect as it is, should have survived him and found its way back to civilization. His African servants, with an admirable instinct of what might be desired of them, preserved every line of his diaries and memoranda, and brought them, with his remains, through an almost heroic journey, back to his starting-point at Zanzibar. His ashes were conveyed to solemn interment in Westminster Abbey, and his journals, on their side, have been buried, as one may almost call it, in this ponderous volume. The editor's work has been simply to decipher and transcribe; selection, arrangement, elucidation, have been left out of the question. The mere task of making out the MS. was often a formidable one; for, in the absence of available writing material, Dr. Livingstone was at times reduced to the most awkward devices—such as scrawling with extemporized ink on old scraps of English newspapers. A fac-simile of a page of this portion of the journal is given by Mr. Waller, with the result of producing an almost equal admiration for the energy which produced and the energy which deciphered it. But it is a question whether the editor might not with advantage have understood his duties in a rather larger way. The advantage would have been greatly that of the general reader if the matter had, in the common phrase, been "boiled down" to half its present bulk. As the work stands, it bears no small analogy to the pathless forest, intersected with large districts of "sponge," through which Livingstone himself had often to pursue his own uncertain way. What has dictated the course actually adopted—that of simply stringing together and printing *verbatim* every line of the material—has been an extreme veneration for the writer's memory. This will be shared by all readers, and certainly a real admirer of Livingstone will be willing to take some little trouble in order to keep pace with him. It may be said, however, that some omissions Mr. Waller might very safely have made. The journal is largely interspersed with religious reflections and ejaculations intended solely for Dr. Livingstone's own use. They are interesting to students of character, for they help to explain the sources of the great explorer's indomitable resolution and patience. He was an ardently sincere missionary, and he believed that he was doing his work with the eye of God constantly upon him. But it seems a rather cruel violation of privacy to shovel these sacred sentences, written in the intensest solitude, into the capacious lap of the public, in common with all sorts of baser matter—including the rather sensational and not particularly valuable illustrations with which the volume is adorned. It is as interesting as it ever was to be admitted behind the scenes of a man's personality, but it is more important than it ever was that the privilege should not be offered to all the world, but reserved for the few who can present a certain definite claim to initiation.

This volume covers a period of something more than seven years. Dr. Livingstone left Zanzibar, on the east African coast, in the month of March, 1866, and he succumbed to exposure and exhaustion on the borders of the great Lake Bangweolo, which he himself had discovered, on the last of April, 1873. He had intended this expedition to be his last, and his hope, shortly before his death, was to finish his work and return home in a year or two more. His work was to establish certain geographical facts which he had left in uncertainty, notably of course the real nature of the sources of the Nile, and to do what missionary work he might in the way of humanizing the natives and mitigating, if he was powerless to arrest, the abominations of the slave-trade. This he regarded as his solemn duty, although evidently it was a duty in the performance of which he took an immense satisfaction. He made sacrifices, he suffered hardship, he performed heroic feats; but the life he found in Africa had become with him a personal passion, and we doubt whether his strong sense of duty would have been capable of making the great sacrifice of remaining quietly in England in the lap of civilization. Incidentally he had such a project as this: "One of my waking dreams is that the legendary tales about Moses coming up into inner Ethiopia with Merr, his foster-mother, and founding a city, which he called in her honor Meroe, may have a substratum of fact. . . . I dream of discovering some monumental relics of Meroe, and, if anything does remain, I pray to be guided thereto. If the sacred chronology would thereby be confirmed, I would not grudge the toil and hardship, hunger and pains, I have endured—the irritable ulcers would only be discipline." Elsewhere he says: "An eager desire to discover any evidence of the great Moses having visited these parts spell-bound me; for if I could bring to light anything to confirm the Sacred Oracles, I would not grudge one whit all the labor expended." During this long period he was wandering hither and thither over an immense region, exploring the basin of the great Lualaba and Chambeze Rivers, and the three great lakes—Nyassa, Bangweolo, and Tanganyika—marching for weeks together through forest and jungle, and living for months in African villages on the same hard allowance as the natives; observing everything, noting everything, suffering everything that exposure and a diet but one degree removed from starvation could subject him to. It seems to the reader a dog's life; but Livingstone had a genius for it, and he broke down only under a terrible accumulation of hardship. The details of his journeyings we have not space to set forth; they imply a constant reference to the very excellent and detailed map which accompanies the work, and a somewhat intimate acquaintance with Living-

* 'The Last Journals of David Livingstone in Central Africa, from 1866 to his Death. Continued by a Narrative of his Last Moments and Sufferings, etc. By Horace Waller, F.R.G.S.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1875.

stone's previous explorations and those of the other great African travellers —Speke, Grant, Burton, and Baker. The geography of Central Africa has become a department of science by itself, into which, apparently, one must venture only if armed to the teeth, and grasping the standard of some particular theory. The general reader will here find entertainment enough independent of the doctrinal side of the matter.

Dr. Livingstone started with eight attendants, some Asiatics (he had come from Bombay, where he had been making a long visit, and found important furtherance in his schemes), some Africans, and all, save two or three, capricious and untrustworthy. But he prefers his negroes to his Indian Sepoys, and throughout judges the Africans very leniently and hopefully. If he knew them less well, and had not paid so hard for his knowledge, one would be tempted to say that his estimate of them was rather tainted with "sentimentalism." It is very different, for instance, from that of Sir Samuel Baker, in his lately-published 'Ismailïa,' whose evident feeling on the subject is such that there was something almost ludicrously anomalous in the humanitary nature of his expedition. In the second year of his journey, Dr. Livingstone's charity was sorely tested by the desertion of two of his servants, who carried with them, among other precious articles, his only store of medicines. To be without quinine, amid the African malaria, was to stand at a fatal disadvantage. It was only in 1871 that Stanley overtook him, and he was during this long interval fighting, unassisted, a harsh battle with the symptoms which carried him off a year and a half later. In the summer of 1869 he made his way for the first time into the Manyuema country—a region differing in many of its characteristics from those he had hitherto explored. Here he spent more than two years. "It is all," he says, "surpassingly beautiful. Palms crown the highest heights of the mountains, and their gracefully bended fronds wave beautifully in the wind ; and the forests, usually about five miles broad, between groups of villages, are indescribable ; climbers of cable size, in great numbers, are hung among the gigantic trees ; many unknown wild fruits abound, some the size of a child's head, and strange birds and monkeys are everywhere. The soil is excessively rich, and the people, though isolated by old feuds that are never settled, cultivate largely." This paradise is now given over in great measure to the Arab slavers and ivory-traders from the station at Ujiji, on Lake Tanganyika—a gentry who, if they carry commerce in one hand, carry plunder and murder in the other. To the abominations of slavery in this and in other regions, Dr. Livingstone alludes frequently and in terms of deep disgust ; they haunt him, he declares, by day and by night ; they are the "open sore" of the land, crying aloud to heaven to be healed. He speaks of seeing among the enslaved Manyuema a strange disease, which seemed to be literal broken-heartedness. They drooped and pined, but complained of nothing but a pain which they indicated by laying their hands on their hearts—the position they themselves attribute to the heart being higher up. They were not visibly ill, but very soon they succumbed to this pain and died. Here, also, Dr. Livingstone observed the soko, a large monkey, with much analogy with the gorilla, but of a more amiable disposition. The soko, from Dr. Livingstone's account, seems painfully human.

At Ujiji, to which place he made his way back laboriously, in a state of great destitution and exhaustion, he met Mr. Stanley. This episode figures very briefly in his journals, though it was evidently a very welcome one. Naturally, it completely re-equipped him, and the reader really feels a kind of personal relief when he perceives that the exhausted old man obtained some more quinine. Mr. Stanley was with him for upwards of five months, and when Stanley returned to the coast, after having vainly urged him to do likewise, he started to make his way back to Lake Bangweolo. It is not unkind to say that this was the very fanaticism of enterprise, and the interest of the book, from this point to the close, is of a very painful nature. Dr. Livingstone enters a region of apparently eternal rain, and lives in a drenched condition for the following year and a half. His health fails rapidly ; he makes great marches in spite of it, and only gives up the attempt to advance when his hand is too weak to trace the entries in his diary. The story of his death is compiled very successfully from the statements of those two faithful servants who made their weary pilgrimage back to Zanzibar with his remains. They found him on his knees in the attitude of prayer, beside his bed, with life extinct. This was extremely characteristic. Half the interest of this volume will be found in the reflection it offers of his devotion (when we feel we have a right to observe it), his candor, his singleness of purpose and simplicity. The combination of these qualities, with his unshrinking pluck, his extraordinary endurance, his faculty of universal observation, and of what we may call geographical constructiveness, made him of all great travellers one of the very greatest.

## RECORDS OF THE PAST—ASSYRIA AND EGYPT.*

THESE little volumes are the first of a series intended to make the results of recent study and interpretation of Egyptian and Assyrian monuments and records accessible to the general public. Hitherto these results have been so scattered through journals in many languages, and in the transactions of learned societies of various countries, that only scholars, particularly interested in this field of enquiry, have been likely to be well informed as to the progress of decipherment of hieroglyphic or cuneiform texts, or as to the contents of those newly interpreted. These volumes, therefore, answer to a definite need ; some of the best scholars in this department of knowledge contribute to them, and they are edited by Dr. Samuel Birch, the distinguished Egyptologist. He is responsible for the general arrangement of the materials, and his reputation is a guarantee for the accuracy and thoroughness of the work. The contents of the two volumes already issued (a third is just about to appear) are miscellaneous and of various importance and interest, but they are well chosen to illustrate the wide range of time and of subjects covered by the texts already interpreted. But it were greatly to be wished that Dr. Birch had not confined his editorial functions within such narrow limits as he has chosen to establish for himself. "In order," he says, "to render the volume[s] as popular as possible, and make the information afforded as simple as it can be given, the translations are only accompanied by such notes as are absolutely required to explain intelligibly a few of the more obscure passages." But to make the volumes truly popular and most serviceable to all but the special scholar, a different sort of editing is required. The critical and explanatory apparatus accompanying the texts is not only meagre, but is positively insufficient for a full appreciation of their historic and literary importance. Even a good classical scholar and a well-informed student of history would find more information than is given here convenient, while the mere general reader would find it indispensable.

The grounds for adopting a course of such reserve are, probably, in reality, prudential. The Society of Biblical Archæology, of which Dr. Birch is president, does not wish to stir 'burning' questions. But it is no service to the Bible to make the progress of knowledge difficult ; and it is no help to learning to shrink from controversy on doubtful and open matters of critical investigation and interpretation. Controversy may be disagreeable, but it is unavoidable. The Bible must take care of and defend itself against the revelations of hieroglyphs and arrowheads, as it has had to defend itself against the discoveries of geology and the researches of physiology. In future volumes it may be hoped that an attempt at least will be made to give some chronology (however rough or hypothetical) of the different documents printed, some references to the history with which they connect themselves, and some explanations of the allusions made, and the incidents referred to in them. Thus only can the volumes be made "popular."

The main contents of both volumes have greater historical and archæological than literary interest. We have, indeed, long since learned to look for but scanty contributions from either Egypt or Assyria to speculative or imaginative literature. There was little activity of thought among the people of either land. Through the vast period of Egyptian civilization, generation succeeds generation with slight increase of curiosity, with slow development of mental faculty, occupied with interests similar to those of their predecessors, and content with the same forms of expression. The hereditary, fixed conditions of society hindered that independence of the individual of which progress in reasoning and activity of imagination are the result. Literary effort and expression are the sign and proof of a higher stage of personal and social development than either Egypt or Assyria attained. Their people remained occupied throughout the whole period of their greatness with the external conditions of life, and with mere objective matters of thought. The "wisdom of the Egyptians" was not a deep philosophy, but a mingling of childish speculation with the accumulation of knowledge, the invention and the experience of thousands of years of uninterrupted tradition and transmission. Such expression as they required for their sentiments, emotions, and faith, they found in the practical arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting, and even in these there is no progress from step to step of wider or more complete expression of the inner nature. The arts remain external, subjected to rule, uninspired by the effort to express passion or character. The bas-relief is sculptured narrative, the picture is painted description of incident ; very seldom of emotion, never of a complex, realized, mental ideal. These forms of expression were, for

* 'Records of the Past : being English Translations of the Assyrian and Egyptian Monuments. Published under the Sanction of the Society of Biblical Archæology.' Vol. I. Assyrian Texts. Vol. II. Egyptian Texts. London : Samuel Bagster & Sons. 1874. Sm. 8vo, pp. iv. 176 ; pp. x. 176.

the most part, sufficient for the people. Neither in Egypt nor Assyria did the age of poetry arrive. The greater part of the written or inscribed monuments of both peoples consist mainly of records, in various forms, of public events or private affairs; of inscriptions in honor of kings, or hymns and invocations to the gods, or rituals of worship, or calendars and other similar astronomical documents. A few brief pieces of literature proper, showing a mingling of traditional and individual elements, have indeed been preserved.

In the volume before us of translations from Egyptian sources, there are two tales drawn from papyri in the British Museum, one of 'The Two Brothers,' the other of 'The Doomed Prince,' which are of special interest, not merely as indications of Egyptian genius and taste, but as containing —though written perhaps fifteen hundred or two thousand years before our era—resemblances of incident so close to tales familiar through Europe, from Scandinavia to Italy, as to point to an origin still more remote in the dim ages before distinct history begins. And in the Assyrian volume, the piece of most interest is that called 'The Legend of the Desert of Ishtar,' in which we find the earliest known form of a legend universally spread through Asia and Europe, under a hundred different forms and with various meanings, of the descent to Hades or to hell of some divine or human personage. The legend in its Assyrian form, as translated by Mr. Fox Talbot from a tablet in the British Museum, is of such general interest, and is so much the most poetic of the remains of Assyrian antiquity that have yet been disclosed to us, that we make room for a considerable part of it. Ishtar was the goddess of love. The object of her descent into the infernal regions "was probably," says Mr. Talbot, "narrated in another tablet which has not been preserved. I conjecture that she was in search of her beloved Thammuz-Adonis, who was detained in Hades by Persephone." But the object of her descent is of little consequence, so far as the value of the narrative that exists is concerned. Enough remains to illustrate the imaginative spirit of the Assyrians, and to connect us with them by a closer link than any formed out of the sculptured stones and alabaster bas-reliefs of their long-buried palaces.

"To the land of Hades, the region of . . .
Ishtar, daughter of the Moon-god San, turned her mind,
and the daughter of San fixed her mind [to go there]:
to the House of Eternity, the dwelling of the god Irkalla:
to the House men enter—but cannot depart from:
to the Road men go—but cannot return.
The abode of darkness and famine
where Earth is their food: their nourishment Clay:
light is not seen: in darkness they dwell:
ghosts, like birds, flutter their wings there:
on the door and gate-posts the dust lies undisturbed.
When Ishtar arrived at the gate of Hades
to the keeper of the gate a word she spoke:
'O keeper of the entrance! open thy gate!
Open thy gate! again, that I may enter!
If thou openest not thy gate, and I enter not,
I will assault the door: I will break down the gate:
I will attack the entrance; I will split open the portals;
I will raise the dead to be the devourers of the living!
Upon the living the dead shall prey!'*
Then the Porter opened his mouth and spoke,
and said to the great Ishtar:
'Stay, Lady! do not shake down the door!
I will go, and tell this to the Queen Nin-ki-gal.'†
The Porter entered, and said to Nin-ki-gal:
'These curses thy sister Ishtar [utters],‡
blaspheming thee with great curses . . .'
When Nin-ki-gal heard this . . .
she grew pale, like a flower that is cut off:
she trembled, like the stem of a reed.
'I will cure her rage,' she said: 'I will cure her fury:
these curses I will repay to her!
Light up consuming flames! light up blazing straw!
Let her doom be with the husbands who deserted their wives!
Let her doom be with the wives who from their husbands' side departed!
Let her doom be with the youths who led dishonored lives!
Go, Porter, open the gate for her,
but strip her, like others at other times.
The Porter went and opened the gate.
'Enter, Lady of Tiggaba City!‖ It is permitted!
May the Sovereign of Hades rejoice at thy presence!'¶
The first gate admitted her, and stopped her: there was taken off the great crown from her head.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the great crown from my head!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal.'
The second gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the earrings of her ears.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the earrings of my ears!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'
The third gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the precious stones from her head.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the precious stones from my head!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'
The fourth gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the small lovely gems from her forehead.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the small lovely gems from my forehead!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'
The fifth gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the central girdle of her waist.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the central girdle from my waist!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal.'
The sixth gate admitted her, and stopped her: there were taken off the golden rings of her hands and feet.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the golden rings of my hands and feet!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands their removal!'
The seventh gate admitted her, and stopped her: there was taken off the last garment from her body.
'Keeper! do not take off from me the last garment from my body!'
'Excuse it, Lady! for the Queen of the land commands its removal!'
After that mother Ishtar had descended into Hades
Nin-ki-gal saw her, and stormed on meeting her.
Ishtar lost her reason, and heaped curses upon her.
Nin-ki-gal opened her mouth and spoke,
to Namtar her messenger a command she gave:
'Go, Namtar! [some words lost.]
Bring her out for punishment. . . .'"

The end of this last line is mutilated, and the remaining lines of the first column are imperfect. But we learn from them, and from the second column of the tablet, that Namtar was commanded to afflict Ishtar with dire diseases and torments. The story goes on to relate how, after the goddess of love had been shut up in Hades, the world began to miss and mourn her. The assembly of the gods was summoned, and the sun, weeping, complained of her departure. Then the god Hea laid a plan, and formed the figure of a man of clay, and bade the phantom go to save her, and awe Nin-ki-gal with the names of the great gods. The phantom was successful in his errand, and Nin-ki-gal dismissed the goddess, and the gates, as she passed through them, restored to her her garments and her ornaments.

It is vain to seek for a complete elucidation of the allegory of this ancient poem. But it is better to leave it as a mere story, a work of the imagination, than to distort it into a solar myth, or pervert it into an ethical narrative. We commend these volumes to all classical students, and lovers of the early records of our race.

* This very violent language is evidently introduced by the writer of this legend in order to justify the subsequent wrath of Proserpine.

† Nin-ki-gal answers to the Proserpine of the Latins. Her name means 'goddess of the great region'—*i.e.*, Hades.

‡ The end of this and several following lines is broken off, which makes the translation uncertain.

‖ A principal seat of Ishtar's worship.

¶ These words are evidently ironical.

## THE STUDY OF CHRISTIAN CLASSICS.*

WHILE fashionable educators are devising methods for the apotheosis of mediocrity, incapacity, and indolence, Lafayette College is preparing text-books for the study of the Fathers of the Church! Our readers, however, may be reminded that the study of the early Christian writers was introduced into Harvard more than twelve years ago. Still, it must be confessed that Lafayette, in this respect, is in advance of any other literary institution in the country, inasmuch as the endowment by Benjamin Douglass for the study of the Fathers enables it to employ two professors of "Christian Greek and Latin" (an odd expression, by the way). We only hope that these professors of Christian Greek and Latin are not paid on starvation principles, so familiar to college instructors. "For many centuries," says the notice preceding the title-page of the volume before us, "and down to what is called the Pagan renaissance, they [the writings of the early Christians] were the common linguistic studies of the educated Christians." If by "the Pagan renaissance" the author means "the Reformation," the statement may be said to be essentially correct; for not long after that epoch the Fathers (absurdly regarded as a college of Egyptian priests) began to be attacked by Protestant scholars because they were believed to favor Rome, and because they did not confirm the peculiar doctrines of the Reformers. If Augustine was occasionally well spoken of, it was chiefly because he was thought to agree with Luther and Calvin. "It would seem," says Dr. March, in the preface, "that the study of them [the events] in the admirable language in which they were originally recorded, might help to make our college graduates not only learned in the Greek language, but stout-hearted men, ready to work and suffer for the truth." Nevertheless, the Greek language must be learned from its early authors. The most eminent of the Greek Fathers owed their mental discipline to those authors. "Origen," says Porphyrius, "being a Greek [in religion] and having had a Greek education, adopted a barbaric religion [Christianity] and prostituted his learning to the defence of that religion. He lived like a Christian, but philosophized like a Greek, subjecting the sound teachings of philosophy to foreign myths. His constant companions were Plato, Numenius, Cronius, Apollophanes, and the most distinguished Pythagorean writers." Porphyrius, it must be remembered, was one of the bitterest and ablest opponents Christianity ever had. The inventor of the anecdote that John Chrysostom was in the habit of reading the plays of Aristophanes, evidently believed that popular preaching was intimately connected with comedy.

* 'The Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius. The First Book and Selections. Edited for Schools and Colleges by F. A. March, LL.D. With an Introduction by A. Ballard, D D., Professor of Christian Greek and Latin in Lafayette College; and Explanatory Notes by W. B. Owen, A.M., Adjunct Professor of Christian Greek.' New York: Harper & Brothers.

'Latin Hymns with English Notes, for Use in Schools and Colleges. By F. A. March, LL.D., Professor of Comparative Philology in Lafayette College.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

The first book of the Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius, followed by selections from some of the other books, forms the second volume of the "Douglass Series." That Eusebius was one of the most prominent ecclesiastics of the first half of the fourth century is proved by the complimentary expression, *the rascally Eusebius*, used by Julian ; and it must be kept in mind that this emperor bestowed such titles only upon persons of much merit ; thus, he applies the epithet *knave* to John the Evangelist and speaks of Paul the Apostle as the *greatest impostor on record*. The faults of Eusebius as a historian are those of omission rather than of commission. His theory seems to be that narratives prejudicial to morality should be suppressed. This is considered a serious error by the curious. Had Eusebius enlivened his history of the church with relishing allusions to the adventures of Agrippina, Messalina, Faustina, and Fausta, it is not absurd to suppose that advanced theologians might be tempted to learn Greek. Our author's 'History,' then, would rival the 'Historia Arcana,' the most interesting portions of which—namely, the performances of the Empress Theodora and the geese—were actually committed to memory (in Greek, of course) and repeated in conversation by an English prelate of the last century.

The text is remarkably free from typographical errors. The notes are intended for students imperfectly acquainted with the grammatical forms and syntax of the language. In a second edition, these notes must be thoroughly revised.

Whether the 'Latin Hymns' can be profitably used in college may be doubted. For our own part, we cannot go as far as the editor of this work : "For inspiring and elevating thought," he says in the preface, "and for vigor, harmony, and simplicity of language, the 'Hymns' are better than any Augustan odes." The thought of the 'Latin Hymns' is indeed often inspiring and elevating. But it is of the modern flavor ; we miss in them that total change of atmosphere which throws a new zest into life ; that contrast of men and manners which is needed if the mind is to be rid of narrow prejudice and onesidedness. As to the other point—the language—men who felt themselves half-inspired might well express themselves with vigor and simplicity. But the vehicle in which the ideas are conveyed is an artificial and conventional one. The words are Latin—most of them. When the Portuguese author of the 'Guide to English Conversation' asks and answers : "Do you understand French language ? She do know me," the words are all pure English, but the sentence is not English. So in the 'Latin Hymns,' though the words are Latin, the combination of words is not Latin. In fact, from the rigid classical point of view, it would be scarcely an exaggeration to call it a kind of pigeon-Latin ; not very much more like Latin than pigeon-English is like English, than cigar-box Spanish is like Castilian

But while we do not consider these hymns suited for the purposes of what a German would call *formale Bildung*, they are an indispensable part of education ; only, instead of confining them to the narrow college world, we should be glad to see them in the hands of all mature men and women of education. Their very modern tone—"so much like English"—with its motley jingle of rhyme, assonance, and accentuation, makes them easy reading for imperfect Latin scholars. Even as mere bits of history they are curious. But especially are they of value as a check on the rank sentimentalism and prettinesses of our modern hymns or "human compositions," as they are called by some theologians.

This collection begins with Hilary, and contains the seven great hymns and most of the familiar ones, one hundred and fifty-one in all : "Veni Creator Spiritus," "Dies Irae," "Stabat Mater," "Cantemus cuncti melodum," etc. The last two hymns in the book are Luther's "Feste Burg," translated by Buttmann, and the "Rock of Ages," by Mr. Gladstone. In the Latin heading of the latter, by the way, there is a slight oversight : "Augustus M. Toplady et W. E. Gladstone." Is not Mr. Gladstone's first name Gulielmus ? There is no accounting for tastes, but to our mind the introduction of these two hymns, and particularly of the latter, mars the general effect. Not but what it is always interesting to see difficulty surmounted by ingenuity. The box made of 11,824 pieces of wood by a convict is interesting ; it is interesting to see Miss Anna Leake, the no-armed lady, deftly embroidering with her toes ; and it is interesting to see Mr. Gladstone (if he has no better way of spending his time) overcoming imperfectly the difficulties of Latin rhyme. But the interest of a real Latin hymn is of a wholly different kind. It must be old, it must be a *vox clamantis in deserto*, as it were the outpourings of one clothed with camel's hair and with a girdle of a skin about his loins. Shift the time and the scenery and bring it down to a concrete live Englishman, who rings for his boots and his shaving-water, the spell vanishes, the imagination refuses to work, and we cry out with the theologians aforesaid : "Enough ! This is a 'human composition.'"

We notice in this volume more misprints in the text : Page 204, line 20 and 25, *Illiuc ;* p. 56, line 10, *juvat ;* p. 20, line 8, *canditatus ;* p. 101, line 19, *fumas ;* p. 32, line 18, *moeror ;* line 23, *ocyus ;* p. 57, line 11, *Occulive*. On the same page, line 25, we are in doubt whether *quaerelis* is intentional or not. Barbarisms quite as bad are certainly found in the Pompeian *graffiti*, for instance, *laesaerit* for *laesĕrit*, *maeae* for *mĕae*, *haberae* for *haberĕ*, etc., not to speak of Schuchardt's unrefreshing lists. But we had not supposed that anybody would now say *coena*, *coelum*, or *coelestis*.

# Fine Arts.

## NOTES ON THE THEATRES.

IF one held the belief that there is any very intimate relation between the stage, as it stands in this country, and the general cause of American civilization, it would be more than our privilege, it would be our duty, as vigilant observers, to keep an attentive eye upon the theatres. For in New York, at least, these establishments have rarely been more active than during the past few weeks, and the moment would be highly opportune for drawing from the national diversions a critic's moral as to the national state of mind. In fact, however, we suspect that moralizing too rigidly here is a waste of ingenuity, inasmuch as the diversions in question are not especially national. New York possesses half-a-dozen theatres of the so-called first class, in addition to a host of play-houses of the baser sort, whose performances are dramatic only by that extension of the term under which the romances in the Sunday papers may be spoken of as literary. These theatres are all, for the time, working at high pressure. Each has brought forward its *pièce de résistance*. The trumpets are blown and the public is convoked. The public assembles in varying numbers—on the whole, it seems to us, in very goodly ones. The public evidently likes play-going, and is willing to pay for it—to pay a good deal, and to pay often. But except at the Fifth Avenue Theatre, it does not go with the expectation of seeing the mirror held up to nature as it knows nature—of seeing a reflection of its actual, local, immediate physiognomy. The mirror, as the theatres show it, has the image already stamped upon it—an Irish image, a French image, an English image. The French and English images indeed are multiplied, and an Italian image, we perceive, looms above the horizon. The images may be true to an original or not ; the public doesn't care. It has gone to look and listen, to laugh and cry—not to think. This is so true that we fancy it must have resented even the very slight intellectual effort necessary for finding "Women of the Day" at the Fifth Avenue as preposterous an attempt to portray as it was a dreary attempt to entertain. Nevertheless, if the theatre with us *is* a superficial institution, it shares the peculiarity with other social phenomena, and the observer may commit as great a fault in taking it too easily as in taking it too hard.

Our drama seems fated, when it repairs to foreign parts for its types, to seek them first of all in the land of brogue and "bulls." A cynic might say that it is our privilege to see Irish types enough in the sacred glow of our domestic hearths, and that it is therefore rather cruel to condemn us to find them so inveterately in that consoling glamour of the footlights. But it is true that an Irish drama is always agreeably exciting ; whether on account of an inherent property in the material, or because it is generally written by Mr. Boucicault, we are unable to say. "The Shaughraun" will, we suppose, have been the theatrical event of the season ; and if a play was to run for four or five months there might have been a much worse one for the purpose than this. There is no particular writing in it, but there is an infinite amount of acting, of scene-shifting, and of liveliness generally ; and all this goes on to the tune of the finest feelings possible. Love, devotion, self-sacrifice, humble but heroic bravery, and brimming Irish *bonhomie* and irony, are the chords that are touched, and all for five liberal acts, with a great deal of very clever landscape painting in the background, and with Mr. Boucicault, Mr. Montagu, Mr. Becket, and Miss Dyas in the foreground. For Mr. Boucicault, both as author and actor, it is a great triumph—especially as actor. His skill and shrewdness in knocking together effective situations and spinning lively dialogue are certainly commendable ; but his acting is simply exquisite. One is hard cleverness, polished and flexible with use ; the other is very like genius. The character of the Shaughraun is very happily fancied, but the best of the entertainment is to see the fancy that produced it still nightly playing with it. One hears it said sometimes that an actor acts with "authority" ; certainly there is rarely a higher degree of authority than this. Mr. Boucicault smiles too much, we think ; he rather overdoes the softness, the amiability, the innocence of his hero ; but these exaggerations perhaps only deepen the charm of his rendering ; for it was

his happy thought to devise a figure which should absolutely, consummately, and irresistibly please. It has pleased mightily.

"The Two Orphans" at the Union Square Theatre, a piece which has been running a race with the "Shaughraun" in popularity, is an American rendering of an elaborate French *drame* of the old "boulevard" school. The original play ran all last winter in Paris, and fairly rejuvenated the rather defunct type to which it belonged. It is prodigiously clever, and we doubt whether for the time and the money one spends it would be possible to give one fuller measure, pressed down and running over, of surprises, sensations, and bewilderments. What is offered at the Union Square is the mere gaunt, angular skeleton of the original. The whole thing, both as to adaptation and rendering, is very brutally done. It hangs together as it can. There is no really delicate acting in the piece, with the exception, in a sense, of Miss Kate Claxton's representation of the blind maiden. She goes through the part with the pretty dismalness required, and with the enunciation of a young lady reciting a "piece" at a boarding-school. But "The Two Orphans" is worth seeing simply for the sake of sitting in one's place and feeling the quality of a couple of good old-fashioned *coups de théâtre* as your French playwright who really knows his business manages them. The first is when one of the Orphans, hearing in her garret the voice of the other, who is wandering in the street, sightless and helpless, and singing a song addressed, through the mercy of chance, to her sister's ear, and being about to fly to her rescue, is arrested on her threshold by a *lettre de cachet*. The other is the cry of that sadly unwholesome cripple, Pierre (badly played, we should say, if the part were not in its nature an impossible one), when, after being trampled upon through the whole play, he turns upon his hulking, blackguard brother: "As you say yourself, we come of a race that kills!" These are very telling strokes, but if you wait for them at the Union Square you pay for them well. You are kept in patience, it is true, by some very pretty scenery.

The Fifth Avenue Theatre, we believe, makes a specialty of "American comedy," eschews for the time at least Parisian orphans and heroic bog-trotters, and gives us our fellow-citizens in their habits as they live. Some one ought to be held morally accountable for such an unqualifiable mess of vulgarity as "Women of the Day." It is a pity to talk about this thing, even explicitly to pass it by; but we believe it is one of a series, and under these circumstances one strikes out instinctively in self-defence. It was ghastly, monstrous, a positive nightmare. It ran for several weeks, and one wonders whether the public was an active or a merely passive accomplice. Did it like it, or did it simply endure it? The public at large is very ignorant and very good-natured, and anything is possible.

One is bound to regret, in the presence of such a phenomenon as "Women of the Day," that the wholesome old fashion of hissing has in the English theatre fallen into disuse. It was of course liable to abuse; but what is one to say, on the other hand, of the spectator's patience? It would seem at least that, short of the privilege of absolute hissing (which ceases to be brutal only when it is directed at the play, and not at the performers), the disappointed, the deceived spectator ought to hold in his hand some instrument of respectful but uncompromising disapproval. We made this reflection as we watched the celebrated Mrs. Rousby, who has been interpreting historic blank-verse for a month at the Lyceum. It is hard to speak rigidly of so handsome a woman, but Mrs. Rousby's histrionic powers are about equivalent to those of some pretty trained animal—a pet lamb, say, or a white rabbit, or a snowy-breasted dove. Her acting is absolutely flat and weak—uninspired, untrained, unfinished. It was singular to see so extremely pretty a person take so little the critical chill off the atmosphere. Mrs. Rousby is distinctly incompetent. She has been followed at the same theatre by another English artist, a real artist this time—Mr. Toole. Mr. Toole has solved the problem of making low comedy charming. It must be admitted that in one of his parts—the "Artful Dodger"—the lowness is more apparent than the charm.

A more important dramatic enterprise than any we have mentioned has been the revival at Booth's Theatre, as a great spectacle, of "Henry V." We can spare but a word to it. The play could be presented only as a kind of animated panorama, for it offers but the slenderest opportunities for acting. These all fall to the lot of Mr. George Rignold, a young English actor, who, as the victor of Agincourt, has made a very charming impression. He plays the part in the most natural fashion, looks it and wears it to perfection, and declaims its swelling harangues with admirable vigor and taste. He is worth looking at and listening to. The scenic splendors of the play have received many compliments, though, as such things go, they seem to us to have a number of weak spots. But even if they had fewer, they would still, to our sense, be founded on a fallacy. Illusion, as such an enterprise proposes to produce it, is absolutely beyond the compass of the stage. The compromise with verisimilitude is not materially slighter than in the simple days before "revivals" had come into fashion. To assent to this you have only to look at the grotesqueness of the hobby-horses on the field of Agincourt and at the uncovered rear of King Harry's troops, when they have occasion to retire under range of your opera-glass. We approve by all means of scenic splendors, but we would draw the line at invading armies. Mr. Rignold, as we say, however, really produces a very grateful illusion.


JUST PUBLISHED.

*Lectures on the Early History of Institutions.*

By SIR HENRY SUMNER MAINE,

Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence in the University of Oxford

8vo, cloth, $3.

*Ancient Law.*

Its Connection with the Early History of Society, and its Relation to Modern Ideas. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. New edition. 8vo, cloth, uniform with the above. $3.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS:

*AFRICA:*

The History of Explorations and Adventures, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

*MISTRESS JUDITH.*

A Cambridgeshire story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler. With an Illustration. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

*FAR FROM THE MADDING* Crowd. By Thomas Hardy. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*A WINTER IN RUSSIA.* By Theophile Gautier. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*THREE ESSAYS ON RELIGION.* By John Stuart Mill. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*"THE READER" on several new and remarkable Text-Books, and the announcements of Messrs. Macmillan & Co. for this week, are on page* 180.

NOW READY.

FOR FEBRUARY.

*The Portfolio:*

An Artistic Periodical. Edited by Philip Gilbert Hamerton, author of 'Etchings and Etchers,' 'The Unknown River,' 'The Painter's Camp,' etc.

Contents: National Gallery. XIV. Tommaso Guidi, called Masaccio. Portrait of a Youth. By R. N. Wornum.—French Artists of the Present Day. II. Pierre Billet. By René Menard.—The Winter Art Season. By J. J. W. Comyns Carr.—Greek Coins. By H. Virtue Tebbs.—Technical Notes.—Illustrations.—Portrait of a Youth. By Masaccio. Etched by Flamery.—Wood-Gatherers. Facsimile Engraving.—Greek Coins. Autotype.

Terms: $12 per annum. Single numbers, $1 each.

Published and for sale by

J. W. BOUTON,

706 Broadway.

*ROBERT CLARKE & CO.*

Have Just Published:

*Generalship;*

*Or, How I Managed My Husband.*

A Humorous Scotch Story.

1 vol. 16mo, cloth, price $1.

Sent by mail, prepaid, on receipt of the price.

"It is, without exception, one of the most humorous books which have fallen into our hands for years."

"More instructive than all lectures to women on the marital relation."

"The charm of the narrative is in its sweet humor, and the glimpses it gives of domestic life among the middle and poorer classes of Scotland. The simplicity of manner, the shrewdness of observation, the graphic description, the real humor and melting pathos, which alternate like bright sunlight and deep shadows over a Scotch landscape, make this really fascinating book a delight from beginning to end."

LATELY PUBLISHED.

*QUICK'S ESSAYS ON EDUCATIONAL REFORMERS.*

1 vol. 12mo, cloth, $2.

*GENERAL HAZEN'S 'OUR BARREN LANDS.'*

8vo pamphlet, 50 cents.

*LEGAL CLASSICS.*

1. MONTESQUIEU'S SPIRIT OF LAW. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, $6.
2. ST. GERMAIN'S DOCTOR AND STUDENT. 1 vol. 8vo, cloth, $3.
3. FORTESCUE'S DE LAUDIBUS LEGIUM ANgliæ. 1 vol. 8vo, cloth, $3.

ROBERT CLARKE & Co., PUBLISHERS, CINCINNATI.

# MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO.'S PAGE.

## *The Reader.*

MICHELET'S 'SUMMARY OF HISTORY,' IN ENGLISH.—'THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK' FOR 1875.—THE LIFE OF BISHOP PATTESON.

It is hard to say by which of his many works posterity will most clearly remember the late M. Jules Michelet; but every consideration points to his 'Outlines of Modern History to the French Revolution,' as one of his best-conceived efforts, and perhaps the most faultless and most serviceable of them all. In this summary the poet-philosopher of 'The Sea,' 'The Mountain,' and 'The Bird,' has been compelled by the exigencies of the task to chasten his style, and to restrain the exuberance of fancy which, while delicate and graceful in the extreme, is to foreign ears a little beside the question. His condensed History, being written for the young, and as a manual of instruction, is not extended by one superfluous word; it escapes entirely the tendency to ornament, which may be called M. Michelet's besetting virtue. With the clearest method, and with that concentrated view of history as a philosophic argument which M. Michelet learned from his favorite predecessor, the Neapolitan Vico, his narrative compactly flows, setting events in their clearest mutual relation, and making the whole development of Europe a tableau which may be compassed by one sustained effort of the memory. Yet while the author thus turns the reversed lorgnette on the course of civilization, he contrives to introduce those graces of style, those apposite reflections, and even those proverbial, ringing phrases of famous people, which are history's lessons; in this he uses a liberty which is the peculiar skill of the French; for it is the gift of his nation to condense most logically, and yet to avoid dryness most successfully—to know where to concentrate and where to dwell. These felicities of style, belonging to a gifted people and a gifted individual, are particularly the endowment of Michelet's Historical Summary, making it in many respects a better manual for English instruction than works prepared in English. A version has been carefully made by an experienced translator, Mrs. M. C. M. Simpson, and continued with considerable skill to the present period.

'The Statesman's Year-Book,' for 1875, just issued by Macmillan & Co., is a welcome addition to an invaluable series. While every Power in Europe, like a warrior looking to the buckles of his harness, is engaged in military revision, a book which is an impartial authority on the numerical force of the armies and navies of the globe is a useful friend to all who watch the current of events. 'The Year-Book' also tells the civil strength and commercial importance of every nation, and adds many of those facts about the governing families of the world which make the 'Almanach Botta' so dear to court gossipers. The Number for 1875 is prepared by the old editor, who has so distinguished himself previously for knowledge and impartiality, Mr. Frederick Martin; and the work, in the twelfth year of its existence, is still more complete, omniscient and useful than before. The lists of authorities given, both official and non-official, form a bibliography of the greatest convenience and interest.

'The Story of a Fellow-Soldier,' a memorial of one of the most heroic lives of the century, by Frances Awdry, is so beautiful in its subject and so simply told as to be irresistible. It is adapted for a young audience, but mature readers would have cause of just complaint if they were excluded. The subject is the Rev. John Coleridge Patteson, son of the eminent Judge Sir John Patteson, and Christian apostle and missionary Bishop in the South Seas. This gentleman added a genius for labor and organization peculiarly English to the fervor and purity of the primitive Oriental propagators of Christianity. He passed from island to island of the Melanesian group, often lifting up his hand between warring tribes, intent only on adding souls to his treasury of spiritual jewels, and gradually controlling the respect of all. His comprehension of the rude, primitive natures among which he worked was an instinct, improved by experience until at last he seems to have been accepted as arbitrator and friend among the most savage tribes. The story of his career recounts many adventures as strange as the wildest of St. Paul's. Whether he bears his charmed life into the haunts of the rude turtle-hunters, or climbs the palms to the human nest-habitations, ninety feet high, of Ysabel Island, or sets up schools among the islanders from Pitcairn, or adopts a child of the cannibal glutton Bula, chief of Nengone; wherever he goes he penetrates like civilization and goodness in person. At length, as such a life should, the existence of Bishop Patteson ends in the beauty of martyrdom. After Christianizing many natives, introducing monogamy, and making a prosperous school out of the ship in which he cruised, he was killed by the savages of Napaku, in 1870, in retaliation for five murders committed by white sailors. Such a history makes us proud of our Anglo-Saxon race, and confident of the future of Christianity.


### HISTORICAL WORKS.

*A SUMMARY OF MODERN HISTORY.* Translated from the French of M. Michelet, and continued to the present time, by M. C. M. Simpson, translator of 'Memoir and Remains of De Tocqueville,' etc. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 75.

*L. VON RANKE'S HISTORY OF* England, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated from the German. 6 vols. 8vo, $24.

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.* By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. With Chronological and Genealogical Tables and Colored Maps. Cr. 8vo, $2.

"To say that Mr. Green's book is better than those which have preceded it would be to convey a very inadequate impression of its merits. It stands alone as the one general history of the country for the sake of which all others, if young and old are wise, will be speedily and surely set aside."—*Mr. S. R. Gardiner in the Academy.*

"Mr. Green's book seems to me not only the best English history of its size and plan, but really the most satisfactory of all histories of England we have, giving the most complete and vivid account of the growth of the English nation, and the development of its literature and character, as well of its political institutions."—*James Bryce, D.C.L., Regius Professor of Civil Law at Oxford.*

*THE CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY* of England, in its Origin and Development. By William Stubbs, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford. Vol. I. Crown 8vo, pp. 638, $4 50.

"Professor Stubbs has long been known to be one of the highest living authorities on English history, and his book will not disappoint the high expectations of his friends. Many of its merits are patent on its face. It is filled with a mass of information rarely to be found in the pages of any English writer. The learning which is manifest in every line is not the erudition of a pedant, but the well-digested information of a man who has devoted the whole powers of his mind to a great subject worthy of study, and attempts to communicate within a moderate space some portion of the facts with which his memory is stored."—*The Nation, March 4.*

*SELECT CHARTERS AND OTHER* Historical Documents, Illustrative of the Constitutional History of the English Nation from the Earliest Times to the Reign of Edward I. Edited by W. Stubbs, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*THE HISTORY OF THE NORMAN* Conquest of England, its Causes and Results. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., Hon. D.C.L., LL.D., etc., late Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. American edition, revised by the Author, with all the Maps and Plans of Battles. Vols. I. to IV. 8vo, cloth, $16.

"A history in which vast and varied learning is combined with indomitable patience, scrupulous accuracy, great literary skill, a fine historical style, and a fire of eloquent enthusiasm, which abundantly justify our estimate of the first volume, that it is by far the greatest history of our day."—*British Quarterly Review.*

*THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH* Constitution, from the Earliest Times. By E. A. Freeman, M.A., etc. Second edition. Crown 8vo, $2.

*OLD ENGLISH HISTORY.* By E. A. Freeman. With five Colored Maps. Extra fcap. 8vo, half bound, $1 75.

"One of the most admirable books—it is not excessive flattery to say altogether *the* best book—of its kind in the language; and if any other language can boast its equal, its existence has not yet been properly made known."—*North American Review.*

*CAMEOS FROM ENGLISH HISTORY.* By Charlotte M. Yonge, author of the 'Heir of Redclyffe.' Two Series. Extra fcap. 8vo, each $1 75.

*THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.* By James Bryce, D.C.L., Regius Professor of Civil Law at Oxford. New edition, with Supplementary Chapter on the 'New German Empire.' Crown 8vo, $3.

*SCANDINAVIAN HISTORY.* By E. C. Otté. With Maps. Globe 8vo, cloth, $2 50.

*EUROPEAN HISTORY,* narrated in a Series of Historical Selections from the best authorities. Edited and arranged by E. M. Sewell and C. M. Yonge, author of the 'Heir of Redclyffe.' Two vols. crown 8vo, each $1 75.

*A HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN* Church. Middle Age. From Gregory the Great to the Excommunication of Luther. By the Ven. Archdeacon Hardwick. M.A. Third edition. Edited by Prof. W. Stubbs, M.A. Crown 8vo, $3.

*A HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN* Church during the Reformation. By the Ven. Archdeacon Hardwick. Third edition. Revised by Prof. Stubbs. Crown 8vo, $3.

*HISTORY OF FRANCE DOWN TO* the year 1453. By G. W. Kitchin, M.A. With Maps. Crown 8vo, $5.

*A PARALLEL HISTORY OF* France and England, consisting of Outlines and Dates. By C. M. Yonge, author of the 'Heir of Redclyffe. Oblong 4to, half bound, $1 25.

*HISTORY OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.* By E. A. Freeman, M.A., etc. Vol. I. General Introduction, History of the Greek Federations. 8vo, $6.

### NEW BOOKS.

*THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK* for 1875. (Twelfth Annual Publication.) A Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Hand-book for Politicians and Merchants. By Frederick Martin. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.* By the Rev. R. Morris, LL.D., President of the Philological Society, author of 'Historical Outlines of English Accidence.' 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper cover, 30 cents. (Being the first volume of a new series of history and Literature Primers. Edited by J. R. Green, M.A.)

*THE STORY OF A FELLOW-SOLDIER.* By Frances Awdry. Globe 8vo, cloth, elegant, $1 50.

*LIFE AND LETTERS OF BISHOP* Patteson. By C. M. Yonge, author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' Third and cheaper edition, with two portraits. Crown 8vo, 2 vols, $5.

*THE CHRISTIAN CALLING.* By the Rev. J. Llewelyn Davies, Rector of Christ's Church, St. Marylebone, London. Extra fcp. 8vo, $1 75.

*A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE* History of the Canon of the New Testament. By Brooke Foss Westcott, D.D., Regius Professor of Divinity, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Fourth edition, with a new preface. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*BRITISH WILD FLOWERS,* Considered in Relation to Insects. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. With numerous illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 50. [Nature Series.

"This title should not be allowed to convey the impression that the usefulness of the book is restricted to the limits of Great Britain. In one sense it is correct, for the author has taken his illustrations exclusively almost from British flowers; but the subject is one of world-wide interest, for it opens up an almost unlimited field for the investigation of the biologist and botanist everywhere, and nowhere more emphatically than in America."—*N. Y. Times.*

*THE THREE DEVILS*—Luther's, Milton's, Goethe's. With Other Essays. By David Masson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo, $4.

"This excellent and very welcome volume."—*Athenæum.*

*A RAMBLE ROUND THE WORLD.* By M. le Baron de Hübner. Translated by Lady Herbert. 12mo, cloth, extra, $2 50.

"One of the most interesting books of travel of the past year."—*Atlantic Monthly.*

*EGYPTIAN SEPULCHRES AND* Syrian Shrines. Including a visit to Palmyra. By Emily A. Beaufort (Viscountess Strangford), author of 'The Eastern Shores of the Adriatic.' Crown 8vo, $2 50.

### THE NEW NOVEL.

*THE HARBOUR BAR.* A Tale of Scottish Life. 12mo, paper, $1.

"The author has many of the qualifications of a novelist. A keen eye for the picturesque and a power of close observation are indicated in this very life-like picture of fisher-life on the northeast coast of Scotland."—*Athenæum.*

"Upon the working out of Elsie's character the author has expended the more labor, and with good results, too, for rarely in fiction is there to be met with a more perfectly finished picture of a true-hearted, unselfish woman. The description of the terrible catastrophe of the storm on the Harbour Bar is perfect in its graphic vigor and intensity."—*London Morning Post.*

*GOVINDA SAMANTA;* or, The History of a Bengal Raiyat. By the Rev. Lal Behari Day, Chensurah, Bengal. 12mo, paper, $1.

"The book presents a careful, minute, and well-drawn picture of Hindoo peasant life."—*London Daily News.*

"In one respect it is a striking and valuable work. It presents the best and truest picture we possess of the life of the poor agricultural laborer of Bengal. . . . Unique in its way, a simple narrative, wonderfully complete, and intensely realistic."—*Athenæum.*

*FOR THE KING'S DUES.* By Agnes Macdonnell, author of 'Martin's Vineyard,' 12mo, $1.

*** Macmillan & Co.'s Complete Classified Catalogue, by mail, for 6 cents.

MACMILLAN & CO., 21 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 18, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE election in New Hampshire was remarkable, not so much for the closeness of the vote, which has thrown the choice of a governor into the hands of the legislature, and thus given it to the Republicans, as for the size of the vote cast. It was one of the largest votes ever cast in the State. In the House, the Republicans have a majority of half-a-dozen, while the Senate is almost, if not quite, evenly divided, and the Council contains three Democrats and two Republicans. The votes for each of the candidates for governor exceed 39,000, and are within a hundred of each other. The Prohibition vote was only 800 this year, falling off largely from last year through defection to the Republican ranks.

There is continued improvement in business, the unfavorable weather being the only important drawback. There has been a buoyant market for breadstuffs and provisions, and the gratifying feature of the situation is that prices have advanced because of the export demand rather than on account of speculation. The rise in the price of wheat will bring to market a vast amount, it being estimated that in the four States of Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota, and Nebraska there is a stock of about 52,000,000 bushels. Corn and oats have both been high during the winter; the low price of wheat has kept it in the hands of the farmers; and the extent to which they have been able to get along without selling shows that as a class they are in easy circumstances. Trade with the Northwest ought to be good this spring, as well as safe, and the same is true in regard to other sections of the West. The receipts of cotton continue small, and thus far the crop has been a disappointment; but political troubles have more to do with the unsatisfactory condition of the Southern trade than has even the cotton crop. The outlook in regard to trade, taking the country together, is good, and the jobbers have done a better business during the past week than in any week this year. Credits are granted with caution, and collections are excellent. In Wall Street there has been a spirited speculation in shares and an advance in investments. The "gold clique" have made a demonstration against bank-reserves, and, by locking up gold, have forced up the rates to ½ to ⅝ of 1 per cent. for the use of gold a day. This so far unsettled the foreign exchanges as to lower rates for sterling bills to the point at which gold can be profitably imported from Europe.

Secretary Bristow surprised the Syndicate by including in his call for $30,000,000 five-twenties only $6,000,000 registered bonds, or all that remained uncalled of the issue of 1862. This call, which appeared on Thursday, was foreshadowed by semi-official notice on the preceding Monday, when it was given out, on the authority of the Syndicate bankers, and confirmed as late as Wednesday afternoon by Assistant-Secretary Conant, then in New York, that the call would be confined to registered bonds. It seems clear that such was Mr. Bristow's purpose, and that in it he was sustained by the President. The national banks, the largest holders of registered bonds, raised a great outcry at the proposed discrimination against their investments, and they were joined by other but less influential corporations. There is no reason to believe that Mr. Bristow was influenced by their clamor any more than he was by the pressure of the Syndicate bankers, who would, had none but registered bonds been called, have gained the advantage of a home market for a large amount of new fives, and have been benefited by the increased supply of gold in the market, of which it is understood they were "short." The real reason, and the one given, for the change was that Mr. Bristow doubted whether, under the law, he had the right to call bonds out of their numbered order, and, being extremely cautious, was not disposed, in so important a matter, to take any risk. It is known that it was intended to insert a clause in the Appropriation Bill which passed March 3, specially authorizing the Secretary to call *any* of the five-twenty bonds during the present fiscal year. Whether this clause was incorporated in the bill is not certainly known, nor, if it was, whether it was so expressed as to secure the purpose for which it was designed.

Mr. Caleb Cushing has succeeded in making a settlement of the *Virginius* difficulty very creditable to himself and to Mr. Fish as negotiators. It will be remembered that Attorney-General Williams got the country into a very remarkable position with regard to the vessel herself, by taking the ground that the gist of the outrage consisted in the insult offered to the American flag—there being really no American flag in the case at all, but a piece of bunting which might as well have been that of the United Netherlands or the Achaian League. The Government was compelled to withdraw from this position and formally abandon all claim to the salute which was to have been fired by Spain as a *solatium*, and we should have had to give up the vessel herself had she not fortunately gone to the bottom on her way from Cuba. This was probably the luckiest thing that could have happened, for it left, as the only thing unsettled, the real outrage, the massacre of the prisoners; and apparently the advice of the Attorney-General has not been asked on this head. Spain has now agreed to pay the United States $80,000 in coin in full satisfaction of this claim, the money to be distributed by the President among the families of the killed, or those otherwise interested, without our being obliged to give any account of the distribution to Spain. This differs from the English settlement, both in the amount to be paid—which in the English case was £500 for each white man and £300 for each colored man; in all, £7,700—and in the stipulation that no account shall be required.

Mr. Henry Wilson has written a letter on the Bounty Bill vetoed by the President, in which he says that all the estimates made by the enemies of the bill as to the amounts required under it have been erroneous. He says that it would not have required more than $10,000,000 or $12,000,000 during the first two years, nor more than $63,000,000 in all. Some of its friends estimated it at $29,000,000, the Second Auditor of the Treasury at $59,000,000, the Paymaster-General at $100,000,000, and we have seen another hostile calculation which put it as high as $387,000,000. Mr. Wilson says that he does not regret voting for the bill, but he does not give any reason why the public should regret its failure to pass. Among other reasons for advocating it, he mentions the fact that "the pay and bounty when promised [in the early part of the war] were at gold rates, when the currency was at par, and when paid was not worth more than fifty cents on the dollar"; and at the end of his letter he intimates that while he regards the bonded debt of the country as sacred, he cannot forget that "when the nation promised the soldier his bounty, currency was at par, but when it was paid it was worth less than sixty cents on the dollar; while bonds bought with this money are now worth more than their face value in coin." Nevertheless, until some agreement can be arrived at as to how much money is needed to make the bounties equal, and until it is proved that the $60,000,000 taken out of the Treasury under the law of 1866 has not equalized them, it seems hardly worth while to pass any new enactments.

There have been rumors during the week of Mr. Schenck's recall from London; and many people supposed that the 'Manual of Draw Poker' had probably done for him what his connection with

the Emma Mine had failed to do. But they have, within the last day or two, been boldly if not authoritatively contradicted. It may be said, judging from experience, that there is little or no chance of his retirement as long as he is the object of attack in the press, no matter of what offences he may be guilty. No scandal or misdemeanor, in fact, seems so formidable to the Administration as the appearance of yielding to "newspaper clamor." This was very fully demonstrated in Richardson's case, and he would probably have been retained to this day in any other office than the Treasury. But, we must say, we see nothing in the poker manual which will ruin a man who has served with impunity as director and trustee of the Emma Mine. We venture to assert that Mr. Schenck will not come home at present, and that there are members of the President's circle who would chuckle if they heard that our Minister in London had taught the British aristocracy to play poker and then "cleaned them out." We must not look in that quarter for great moral sensitiveness, or much patriotic pride on the moral side.

---

Mr. Christiancy has marked his entrance to the Senate by an able speech, which he read, on the ground that he had in his eighteen years on the bench in Michigan lost the habit of extemporaneous oratory. His subject was Pinchback and the Louisiana question, in which he touched the root of the difficulty admirably by saying the President was not bound to recognize a *de facto* government (Kellogg) which he had himself set up. This is the exact truth of the matter. Kellogg and his legislature were thrust into power by the United States troops, acting under the orders of the marshal, who did the canvassing himself. These facts, which occurred two years ago, have been conveniently overlooked by the Administration side in the late discussions, and a great deal of sympathy, which might have been turned to better account, has been expended on the President because he had Kellogg on his hands and the wicked Congress refused to take the responsibility of him. The fact is that Kellogg is the President's creature and that of the faithful Mr. Williams, and the complaints which have come from them both about having to "carry" Kellogg, as the slang phrase now runs, ought to be jocose in order not to be something more offensive. Mr. Christiancy's exposition was very distressing to Messrs. Boutwell and Logan, who both concluded that the rash man had gone over to the Democrats. Mr. Boutwell takes a very dark view indeed of the situation, and expects, it is said, another bloody war, as does his friend Butler. They, like many other statesmen, are probably asking themselves what will become of them if the country should settle down into peace and legality.

---

We hope that the "gag-law" may before long get before the Supreme Court, and that an authoritative announcement of the law of libel, as it affects newspaper correspondents, be given. The Buell case has been decided by Judge Treat, but the decision, as given in the newspapers, leaves the question still open. Buell was a Washington correspondent of the Detroit *Free Press*, and sent a despatch regarding Senator Chandler for which he was indicted by the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia Criminal Court, and he having, meantime, gone out of the District, the question arose whether he could, under the "gag-law," be brought back. Buell was arrested on a warrant issued by a United States Commissioner in St. Louis, and the case came before Judge Treat of the United States District Court. The Judge has apparently decided what has always been very clear—that the "gag-law" had no application to such cases; but the matter went off on a flaw in the indictment, which alleged that the libel was "composed" in the District of Columbia, and that it was "published" in Michigan. The place of publication, and not of composition, being the critical thing, the indictment was ruled defective. During the proceedings, however, it was intimated in court that the Attorney-General had devised a new way of getting hold of offending editors and correspondents by means of a "bench-warrant" issued by the Supreme Court of the United States; and that this instrument, which promises to be of as general usefulness as a "writ of assistance" promised to be in New York a few years ago, will hold the offender in spite of any writ of habeas corpus issued by an inferior court. This may seem too monstrous for belief; but after the arrest of the editor of the *Tribune* while subpœnaed before a committee of Congress as a witness, we do not know what to expect.

---

The proceedings of the "Honorable William S. King," member of Congress from Minnesota, to which we called attention some weeks ago, are still highly entertaining. He refused, our readers may remember, to appear before the Congressional Committee on the Pacific Mail enquiry, to tell what he had done with a large amount of alleged corruption-money which was traced to his possession. The Minnesota Legislature in vain besought him by resolution to turn up and save the "escutcheon of the State" from being stained. Far from complying, he took refuge on a stock-farm in Northern Canada, on the edge of the Arctic wilderness, carrying the escutcheon of the State with him, and was there "staining" it at his leisure, when he was, to his great surprise, discovered by the Sergeant-at-Arms, who served a summons on him, at which the Honorable William only laughed. As soon as Congress adjourned, however, he reappeared at Washington, where his first act was to demand from Mr. Jewell the dismissal of the postmaster at Minneapolis. This was, however, carrying his peculiar vein of impudence a little too far, and in spite of the abolition of civil-service reform, his request was refused. Now, there are two considerations of some moment suggested by Mr. King's career. One is, that here is a man who has been a good while in politics, widely known, and thoroughly appreciated, who held the office of postmaster to the House in the Forty-second Congress we believe, and has just been elected to the Forty-fourth Congress, and who, when accused on strong evidence of complicity in gross corruption and malversation of funds, absconds, and is amused by the call of his constituents that he should appear, and in fact displays just as much contempt for public opinion and for the law as any thief who is now hiding from the police in this city. The other is, that, although this man's words and manners are undoubtedly those of a large and growing school of politicians, there are a great number of respectable people to be found who join with them in spreading the belief that it is the newspapers that make American public life look so dark, and that if it was not for the lies and vituperation of reporters, our public men would be held in greater respect. We are shocked by King's tricks, and startled when he demands his share of the "patronage" on his return from his concealment; but King is the product of a state of things which the press has not created, and, in our belief, has not half exposed.

---

We have at last an "American Cardinal" in the person of Archbishop McCloskey, who was raised to the dignity on Monday with Archbishop Manning and Archbishop Ledochowski, who has been having so much trouble with the German Government. But these three foreign appointments were all but counterbalanced by those of two Italian Monsignori—Giannelli and Bartolini; and there are to be five other Italian cardinals appointed, so that the Italian element will still continue to dominate in the Conclave. This was a necessity, perhaps, before the recent improvements in the means of communication; but it has now become an abuse of which foreign Catholics are growing more and more impatient. The most interesting feature in the matter for anybody outside the Catholic Church is that it creates the possibility of a participation of a representative of the United States in the next Papal election, at which so many new influences will come into play. One of the points on which public curiosity will be aroused will be the willingness or ability of France, Austria, and Spain to use their ancient right of "exclusion"—that is, of ruling out, each, one cardinal from the competition. The relations of all these powers to the Holy See have greatly changed since the accession of Pius IX., and it

may be that, in spite of Bismarck's instigation, they will attempt no interference.

---

The Wisconsin Legislature has modified the "Potter Law" so as to allow the railroads to earn a little more money, but has not changed the principle of the act. The Commissioners who have been investigating the railroad problem during the past year have recently made their report, which, though containing a great deal of statistical information of one kind and another, is so obviously the result of "cramming" that it can hardly be said to be an addition of any great importance to railroad literature. The Commissioners submit to the people of Wisconsin the following conclusions: That the only form of railway control likely to prove successful, "under present conditions," is "the legislative, supplemented by direct supervision" (by a commission); that this method requires, first, a determination of the cash value of all the roads; second, an annual determination of the earnings; third, a division of the roads into two classes, the first class embracing roads paying a "reasonable" compensation or valuation—second, all other roads; fourth, a maximum of rates, subject to legislative revision, for the first class; fifth, no restriction of rates for the second class, except in cases of unjust discriminations; sixth, prohibition of discrimination and extortion, cases to be tried by the commission; seventh, additional police regulations; eighth, power on the part of the commission to require repairs and improvements; ninth, publicity of rates; tenth, publicity of contracts; eleventh, uniform and full accounts; twelfth and thirteenth, efficient means for enforcement of the laws. With regard to the actual condition of the Wisconsin roads, the Commissioners find that there are only two companies which come near raising an adequate income on their cost; one of them, the iniquitous St. Paul Company, the Commissioners are inclined to think earns the enormous income of 7 per cent. on its Wisconsin lines, though its net earnings are 4.67 per cent. on the cost of the whole road, as reported by the Company, while its balance, after paying interest on its bonds, is 2.21 per cent.

---

The Grangers' year in Minnesota has given the Commissioners of that State food for deeper reflection than it has the Board in Wisconsin. They found that there were in Minnesota 1,900 miles of railroad, with a stock of $31,000,000, and a funded debt of $86,000,000 and a floating debt of $6,000,000. The stock and debt together amounted to the comfortable figure of $52,000 a mile, the working expenses were sixty-nine per cent., and the net earnings $1,894,800. Subtracting taxes, the net earnings amounted to $928 a mile, or less than two per cent. on the stock and bonds and less than three per cent. on the bonds alone. The roads paid, as interest on their debt, $1,969,331, or $245,171 more than the total net earnings, and only about one-third of the interest due was paid. The Commissioners had been directed by the legislature to determine "reasonable maximum rates," but in their report they say that they found great difficulty in doing so, "for the reason that the tariffs established by the companies themselves, except the River Division of the Milwaukee and St. Paul Company, have not produced revenues that were at all remunerative." Nevertheless, they went to work like men and made reductions which "reduced the receipts of the roads about $300,000," and indeed they think this is rather an underestimate. The Commissioners discovered in the course of their enquiries that the Granger panacea of fixing equal rates for equal distances, leaving out of view the important fact that the cost of transportation depends on many other things besides distance, is no panacea at all, but is in certain cases "unequal and objectionable." Reflecting on these singular facts, the people of Minnesota have come to the conclusion, that while the Commissioners as investigators and students have done the State great credit, they cannot be expected to do much in the way of lowering rates, and have very wisely destroyed the commission and left in office only one member of it, with advisory and investigatory powers only.

The text of the new French Constitution has come out by late mails, but does not differ in any important particular from the telegraphic summary. The composition of the Senate is as we have already given it, the Assembly electing seventy-five of the three hundred members for life; and they are all to serve without pay—an important provision, as it will prevent the Senate from becoming a kind of hospital for broken-down politicians. The President of the Republic is to be elected by a majority of both Senate and Assembly in joint convention, and he is to have the power of dissolving the Assembly, with the advice and consent of the Senate. He may propose a revision of the Constitution, as may either branch of the legislature, but no such revision is to be allowable until after the close of Marshal MacMahon's term of office. The President is to be impeachable for high treason, but for nothing else; he is eligible for any number of terms of seven years; and in case of his death his place is to be filled in the usual manner by a new election, the Council of Ministers exercising the executive powers in the interval. The seat of government is hereafter to be at Versailles and not Paris—a most desirable change, which, if made fifty years ago, might have modified for the better the course of French history. Of course, it cannot yet be said that France is really a republic, and the provisional régime at an end, for we have to see the Senate chosen, a new Assembly elected, and MacMahon's successor in his place, before it will be possible to speak confidently about the future. Two striking facts have been revealed by the debates. The first and most important is the growth of the Left in a political sense. They have, for the first time in French history, shown the wisdom which consists in taking what you can get when you cannot have what you want. The second is the anxiety of the Bonapartists to refer everything to universal suffrage, and the reluctance of the Republicans to meet them on this ground. The former are still very hopeful, and have been stimulated in audacity by the appearance of the Prince Imperial on the scene.

---

The rumors about Bismarck's approaching retirement from public life are as numerous as ever, but they have as yet received no confirmation. Besides his health, the only plausible reason for his resigning is the recent defeat of the Government in the Lower House, on a motion made by the well-known Professor Virchow, providing for the extension of the reform in county government made two years ago to the Rhine Provinces and that of Posen, which were then excepted from the operation of the law. The resolution was carried by a heavy majority, but as there is no "solidarity" in the Prussian Ministry, or, in other words, as the Cabinet does not stand or fall together as a corporation, there is no good German reason why Bismarck should be troubled by this, much less resign the Chancellorship. Posen was excepted for prudential reasons, being Polish, and the Rhine Provinces because they have had French administrative machinery ever since Napoleon's day. The reform in question is a process of consolidation, in the interest of simplification. The local administration has hitherto been divided between the president of the province, the president of the Bezirk or county, and the Landrath of the Kreis or conglomeration of parishes. The Kreis had an elective committee which aided and controlled the president of the county, but he is now made independent in most respects, and has complete control of the police, the elections, and the roads, but loses his supervision of the schools, which are to be specially provided for. The president of the province, on the other hand, who more distinctly represents the general government, is to be assisted by an elected committee, whom he is bound to consult in certain specified cases. The general tendency of all this legislation is to reserve the army and the higher offices of the state to the nobility, but to hand over the great bulk of the administrative work to unpaid officers taken from or chosen by the middle and lower class—a measure which not only diminishes expense, but gives the *bourgeoisie* the habits of political life, the want of which has been hitherto the great difficulty in the way of German political progress.

## THE POLITICAL PROSPECT.

IT has become tolerably plain within the last three months that, although the Republicans have done nothing to retrieve their position, the Democrats have done nothing to better theirs. The Force Bill, the Bounty Bill, the restoration in part of the franking privilege, and the child's play over the Tax Bill, satisfied most of those who voted against the party in power last fall that they had done right. On the other hand, the Democrats appear to have made no serious effort to follow up their success. Their selections of members of the House and of the Senate have generally been objectionable on some score. They have either been persons whose antecedents were odious, or whose opinions on the currency or some other leading topic of the day were likely to cause alarm or anxiety. The substitution of Cockrell for Schurz without the least hesitation, and indeed, one may say, without discussion, has been a fair sample in most ways of the use the party has made of its returning strength. But it is difficult to point to anything that has been done by it which is positively or outrageously bad. Indeed, its public utterances have, on the whole, been careful and reassuring. But the country is not satisfied with utterances or with the avoidance of outrageous acts. The character of the party is such that to regain people's confidence it must do more than keep out of scrapes. This is all that it has thus far attempted.

This failure of the Democrats to use their opportunities has prevented Republicans from suffering as much from their misconduct as they would otherwise have done, and they have even derived a certain amount of credit from their failure to carry out their desperate schemes. There are plenty of Republicans with whom the memories of the war are still so strong, that the defeat of the party in its attempt to suspend the habeas corpus in time of peace produces much the same effect on them as if it were the Democrats that had introduced this bill, and as if the Republicans had opposed it from the beginning. Their indulgence for the President, too, is so great that his announcement of his desire to overthrow the government of the State of Arkansas, in the interest of a ring of jobbers, is fully compensated for by his submission to the resolution of Congress forbidding his interference; and when he announces that he "recognizes" Governor Garland, they feel as grateful to him as if Garland held his place at his pleasure or needed this "recognition." In fact, there is no end to the odd and illogical condition of feeling which the great struggle has left behind it. One every now and then meets with even thoughtful and intelligent men, from whose minds the civil war has apparently blotted out all remembrance of the marvellousness of the combination of circumstances to which we owe the government under which we live, and who are as ready to change its structure as if one could any day go and order a new one at the watchmaker's. To make it what it is, and to create the habits and traditions which uphold it, has taken fully three hundred years, two great revolutions, and the untiring labor and patience and self-denial and forethought of ten generations of one of the foremost races of the world. The struggles which we in our own day see other countries going through, in their efforts to produce something even remotely resembling it, may serve to give us a slight, but only a slight, conception of its value—for that value is simply incalculable. And yet so deeply has the popular heart been stirred by the passions of the late conflict, that many of us are willing to excuse an attempt to overturn it—for we can hardly call the Force Bill anything else—as a mere police measure. To pay off the slaveholder and make the negro a little more comfortable, some of us are willing to tear down the very shelter which either we or they possess against the pelting of storms against which only a small portion of the human race has ever been able to make head.

This is a state of mind which the Democrats do not take sufficiently into account. They have never taken it into account, and, indeed, have shown in their political action so little ability to comprehend it ever since 1861, that one is almost driven to the conclusion that it is a difference of temperament, rather than of opinion, which separates them from the Republicans. The moment there is the slightest sign of relaxation in Republican fervor, they start up and behave as if the ideas, or illusions, if they prefer the word, on which the Republican party was based had lost all their force, or as if all its members were ready to acknowledge that the history of the last twenty years was a hideous mistake. In 1872, the symptoms of discontent which produced the Cincinnati Convention, which wise men in opposition would have turned to account, seemed to rob the leaders of the Opposition of even common-sense. So far from perceiving the gravity of the mistake made by the nomination of Greeley, and the extent of the disappointment produced by it, they went to work deliberately to adopt it, with numerous aggravations, and took great pains to show that they were, on the whole, more foolish than the "Liberals"—thus completely disgusting and driving off that large and growing body of thoughtful Republicans for whom four years of General Grant was enough, and who foresaw clearly, even then, the excesses of which that gentleman and his followers have been guilty, and who would now, with proper management, have been ready to co-operate with them. We do not mean to say that they have learnt nothing since then. On the contrary, we think they have learnt a great deal. Their language is vastly more moderate and their nominations have grown more respectable. Their leading men—Tilden, Bayard, Thurman, for instance—will certainly compare very well with anything the Republican party has to show; but they, nevertheless, do not seem yet sufficiently sensible of the difficulties they have to contend with, or, if they are sensible of them, their powers of contending are not equal to the occasion.

The general result of the events of the last three months may therefore, we think, be said to be that, though the Republicans have not made any additional losses, the Democrats have made no additional gains. The Republican rejoicings over the result in New Hampshire have been, not inaptly, compared by the *World* to the glee of a man who had just lost a large fortune over the finding of a cent; but, nevertheless, they are easily accounted for by the fact that the election shows that the follies of the majority in Congress during the past winter have not done as much damage as might have been expected. It has probably finally convinced most Republican politicians that a formal repudiation of the third-term scheme will hereafter be necessary in every canvass in order to escape defeat, to say nothing of winning a victory. This will in some degree simplify the Republican programme, but only in some degree; for there appears to be good reason for believing that the President approaches this matter from a totally different point from the rest of the world, and that the construction he puts on the New Hampshire election is, not that the disavowal of the third term saved the party from total defeat, but that it prevented a complete victory; and we believe there is nobody now whose opinion on such a point he rates higher than his own. This makes it extremely likely that the Republican Convention in 1876 will bear deeply the impress of his will. In other words, it will be composed largely of men ready either to renominate him, or nominate somebody whom he may designate for the succession, and relying a good deal more for success on the party machinery, including the civil service, than on public opinion. We have ourselves no doubt that the recent abolition of the civil-service rules is the first step in the canvass. These rules were instituted with a view to a renomination in 1872, and, in the then state of the public mind, this was a very shrewd and successful move, particularly as they were never allowed to interfere with the serious work of party management. If anybody complained of their violation in a particular place, he was told that they had not as yet been put in force at that point; or if he detected their violation at a point at which they had been unquestionably and publicly put in force. he was informed that the President was doing as well as he could; that nobody but himself knew the difficulties he had to contend with; that Rome was not built in a day; and that it was the duty of patriotic men to stand by him instead of grumbling. This particular line of operation having been now exhausted, the rules have been swept away altogether, pre-

paratory, as we believe, to an unflinching use of every department of the public service in the composition of the next nominating convention. There is, therefore, imminent danger that the nominee may be either General Grant himself, or somebody selected by him; and one would be as bad as the other.

Should either of these things happen, there will arise the danger that the Democrats, on their side, will be encouraged by it into the commission of a similar excess—that is, that they will presume sufficiently on Republican dissatisfaction to put up an inferior or obnoxious man, who would plunge the country once more into a struggle like that of 1872, over a "choice of evils," perhaps as demoralizing an experience as a political community can go through, because it kills, or chills, all hope or enthusiasm for positive advance or improvement, and disposes men to content themselves, as the part of wisdom, with anything which seems likely "to last their time." Already a good many Republicans whose hearts are really in reform are actually committing themselves to the Democrats, in anticipation of the control of the Republican machinery by the President; and, unless that functionary should greatly grow in grace between now and next year, the number of these faint-hearted is pretty sure to increase. There is only one way both of checking this and of warning both parties that their old tricks must not be repeated, and that is the preparation of some such expression of opinion on the part of the reform element in the Republican party as will force both conventions into giving us not a choice of evils, but a choice of goods—or, in other words, compel them to make good nominations. About their platforms nobody, after the experience of the last two years, cares anything. The Republican platform at Philadelphia has proved a shameless piece of imposture. The managers ought to understand that its repetition will be of no particular use to them, but about this the country is willing to let them take their own course. They may nominate on what platform they please. A chapter from Artemus Ward would do as well as anything they are likely to draw up. What honest men will insist on is that the candidate must be a man of high character—sufficiently high to be able to follow his own judgment—who understands civil government, has been bred in American political traditions and reverences them, and who is pure, and likely to remain pure, in money matters. We want an end to two things—corruption and lawlessness.

## A STUDY IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

THE difficulties which attend all efforts to secure good administration in New York are nowhere better seen than in the case of the Department of Charities and Corrections in this city. In most of the branches of the government, in the Courts, in the Public Works, in the Fire Department, the "machine" runs of itself, without any outside supervision, except, perhaps, at rare intervals. Now and then some gross abuse of justice, such as were rife during the Barnard-Cardozo régime, may arouse popular indignation, and produce a thoroughgoing reform; here and there an extreme case of reckless inhumanity, like that of the arrest of a poor paralytic, and his imprisonment on a false charge concocted by the officers of justice, ending in his death, may lead to an investigation, a newspaper exposure, and make people wonder for a day or two who it is that governs them, and whether they really have themselves anything to do with the matter. But, in most cases, this storm soon blows over and everything goes on as before; indeed, in most cases there is no storm at all. The Department of Charities and Corrections is, however, differently situated. This Department, which has under its charge the entire body of penal and reformatory institutions, work-houses, prisons, hospitals, and school-ships, belonging to the city, is subject in theory to constant and active supervision, so that more ought to be known about it than about any other part of the government.

The Department is managed by three Commissioners appointed by the Mayor, who have the general care of the victualling, lighting, cleaning, maintenance, and discipline of all the public institutions. They appoint all the inferior officers, all the wardens, physicians, and orderlies; they make contracts for and purchase all the food and clothing; they have in certain cases judicial authority. To secure efficient and responsible men for these positions, all sorts of checks and safeguards have been devised. The reformers who drew up the present charter of the city, wisely acting upon the presumption (which seems to have governed them throughout) that its officials must be considered dishonest in the absence of distinct proof that they are honest, have surrounded all their powers over contracts for supplies—the usual source of corruption—with formalities and safeguards so numerous and solemn as almost to give the ratification of a contract of this sort the solemnity of a religious rite. Some half-dozen different steps, each one formal but essential, are necessary to make binding the purchase of a few hundred pounds of beef, and these steps are directed, first, to making all purchases public, in open market, and, second, to securing for all contracts the express approval of the chief fiscal officer of the city. The late Commissioners, who were turned out of office the other day for permitting Tweed the use of his cottage-furniture, evaded these provisions, or rather violated them directly, because they maintained that the system was too complicated; that for contracts subject to such onerous restrictions the best class of merchants would not bid. Whether this was true or not, the new Commissioners, we understand, faithfully comply with the letter of the charter, though we have been told by one of them that this compliance is bad for the public interest. Whether bad or good, there can be no doubt that the most stringent checks have been thrown around their action to prevent dishonesty.

That Commissioners of Charities and Corrections, however, should be honest, though a *sine quâ non*, is not by any means the only important thing. The discipline and encouragement of penal and reformatory institutions, as well as hospitals, have been of late years systematically studied by philanthropists and physicians, so that we may almost say its theory has reached the rank of a progressive science. To instance merely one or two matters: the Irish prison-system, so-called, has revolutionized the principles of prison discipline by demonstrating the possibility of making penal institutions really reformatory; the researches prosecuted by means of criminal statistics have thrown a startling light upon the heritability of criminal tendencies; enquiries prosecuted into the subsequent lives of children who have been sent out into the world from public institutions have brought out in a very strong way the effect of these very reformatory institutions as nurseries of crime, while experiments in Germany have proved the possibility of doing away with them almost altogether. Researches into the principles of hospital construction have revealed radical errors in existing methods, and proved that many buildings which have been the boast and pride of this city for years are in reality hotbeds of disease, and should—if the health of the city is considered—be not improved, but removed as public nuisances. As a matter of fact, the public institutions of New York are by no means the best illustrations in the world of the application of the results of science to the cure of crime and disease; and for this reason the Commissioners need to be men who are not only thoroughly conversant with the existing knowledge on the subject, but have a good deal of reformatory zeal also.

The idea of a Commissioner of Charities in New York being a man who is thoroughly informed as to the duties of his office is so ludicrous that it is not worth while discussing it. He receives a salary not large enough to enable him to devote all his attention to them, and he is selected on account of his political affiliations. What politics means in this office we may see by reflecting that, during the incumbency of the Reform Commissioners appointed by Mayor Havemeyer, the question chiefly before the Board was not whether there might be improvements in hospital construction, not whether "institutionizing children" was a good system, but whether Tweed, a notorious malefactor on Blackwell's Island, should have a set of cottage furniture and a private library. This question was not a simple one; it was a matter of life and death to the Commissioners whether they decided it wrongly or rightly. They decided

it wrongly, and were turned out of office, and a new board installed in their stead.

As we said at the outset, this Board, which has in its charge the most sacred trust the city confides to any one, is in theory a public institution, and subject to the attentive supervision of a body known as the "State Board of Charities"; and of course publicity with regard to the doings of such a commission is as essential as honesty or intelligence. But, if any one desires to find out anything about its operations, its intentions, aims, methods of appointment, etc., we can assure him that he will find it extremely difficult. We have before us the last published report of this body that is known to exist. It appeared in 1870, and if any reports have been made since, we do not know where they are to be seen. Every year at about this time a good deal of information does get out and is discussed in the newspapers, but it comes from a voluntary association of humane people, known as the State Charities Aid Association, who examine from time to time into the condition of these institutions; but they have no authority over the employés; they cannot compel investigation into the behavior of officials; and, in short, they have no means at their disposal of effecting anything except by persuasion or by the force of public opinion. As an illustration of the difficulties with which they have to contend, we may cite an instance given in the last annual report of the local New York Visiting Committee. In the summer of 1873, Mr. William Rathbone of Liverpool, founder of the Liverpool training-school for nurses, offered to send to New York for one of the hospitals a superintendent and her assistant, with six trained nurses. The whole staff had been trained at Mr. Rathbone's expense, at a cost of a thousand dollars; and the importance of getting them here may be inferred from the simple fact that, till within a year or two, trained nurses have had no existence in the United States—the only kind procurable for public institutions being women "sent up" for debauchery or disorderly conduct. This local New York volunteer committee agreed to pay the passage of these nurses to this country if, on their arrival, the Commissioners would appoint them to one of the hospitals. One of the Commissioners was disposed to accept the proposal; the other two declined, on the ground that "it would not do to import foreigners to do our work."

But politics, meantime, goes bravely on. In the last five years there have been three, if not more, Boards of Commissioners. The last two were twice "investigated," and the whole Department has been so thoroughly and persistently reformed that at its head now we find Mr. Isaac H. Bailey, an ex-Custom-house politician, whose qualifications for the place may be guessed at. In August last the entire medical board of one of the principal hospitals was reorganized, and within the past week or two it has been reorganized back again. Every year, we believe, a report on the condition of the charitable institutions is read by this volunteer committee to the Commissioners, and listened to by them with great solemnity, but in complete silence, which is undoubtedly the best way of "meeting criticism." Such is the machine. And the reason why it is such is that the city charities, like other city institutions, are managed with the view of securing votes and rewarding "workers," and they cannot under the present system be used for anything else.

## A STUDY OF TOWN-MEETING LEGISLATION.

### THE BRIGHT SIDE.

A PROLONGED continuance of the present condition of our national politics can hardly be enthusiastically advocated by anybody. Indeed, a considerable amount of determined optimism is quite essential to all believers in "the great future of American democracy," and, even with this in store, a man should receive "some credit for being jolly" under present circumstances. One need not be of gloomy temperament to think it may become necessary to provide a Jeremiah to chant lamentations after the singing of the centennial hymn. Not only do the conflicting elements of some troublesome questions place their solution outside the limits of ordinary prophecy, but there are also many active political tendencies so thoroughly bad that it is only a perception of the probable growth of counteracting influences that can cause a looker-on to be hopeful of the result. Are we always to be astounded by giant schemes for "internal improvement," and, if so, are their accompaniments always to be like those of Pacific Mail, El Paso, and the Crédit Mobilier? Must we for ever hammer away on the tariff—welding, broadening, contracting? Will the currency problem ever be put on the right track, and kept there, not to be thrown off by an inflation-switch at the next Congressional crossing? Will Reconstruction end in anything reconstructed, or is it an everlasting process, in which nothing can ever "stay put"? There are perhaps a dozen different matters, the fruitless discussion of which occupies at least eight-tenths of the time of Congress, all of which matters many voters would like to have decided, if possible, in accordance with general principles—so thoroughly disposed of, in fact, that they would for ever cease to be political issues, and be heard of, if at all, only in the courts. Nevertheless, we do not believe the time has yet come for a correct solution of many of these disturbing problems of our politics. It is no disparagement of the average intelligence to say that the people of this country have not yet formed any definite opinion with regard to the proper settlement of many of these matters. It is quite probable that the majority of voters to-day do not believe it is possible, for instance, to dispose of the railroad question, or the tariff question, or the currency question, in the light of general principles, but believe that we must continue to do the best we can from year to year, each succeeding Congress correcting as much as possible the blunders of its predecessor. There are probably very few people who have any belief whatever in a science of legislation. But there are very many, and the number daily increases, who believe that study and reflection are of value as helps to something better than the haphazard legislation in which we have of late so much indulged. These last will agree with us that even a town-meeting may throw light on some questions of national interest. The town has been called the unit of our political system, and, if the whole exhibit the character of its parts, its political methods should be studied before those of the country at large. Besides, where the field is so small that all portions can be viewed at once, some relations may be understood which would escape notice altogether where the field is the nation.

Most New England towns still exhibit that same simplicity of organization with which all have become familiar in De Tocqueville's well-known description. The inhabitants are of the same descent, traditions, and religious feelings, are engaged in the same occupations, and their interests are almost absolutely identical. Naturally given to order, sobriety, and economy, they need only that which they already possess—a simple form of self-government. We are speaking now only of the agricultural towns, some of which are, in fact, so purely bucolic that under the name of farmer may be placed almost every man within their borders. We thought once that we had reached the limit of sameness when, in New Hampshire, we found a town all the men of which were farmers, with the exception of two—the regular Puritan minister, who also taught school, and a store-keeper, who was also postmaster; but the very next town had not even a minister, and the postmaster was also a farmer. The only political change in these towns for many years is that "the parish committee, who audit the expenses for public worship," no longer exist, each sect now paying its own expenses. At the annual meetings of these small and homogeneous communities, voters divide upon the choice of chairman or "moderator," the selectmen, the assessor, and other town officers, the representative to the State Legislature, and the amount of money to be paid for teaching and for road repairs. Once in a generation, perhaps, some great question—the building of a town-hall or the purchase of a new cemetery—may create unusual contention. It is hardly possible for these little and monotonous towns to furnish any hint whatever for the conduct of national affairs. If the whole nation had a similar homogeneous population, with the same circumscribed pursuits, with the same feelings, from those of religion to those which control the government of a poor-house, and with identical public aims—the preservation of order, the repair of roads, and provision for elementary education—we should need no theory of legislation. Conflicting interests are scarcely conceivable where all desire to procure essentially the same things, and are willing to vote the taxes necessary to procure them. It is only when we pass from these agricultural towns to other towns in which the character and interests of the people have become almost as heterogeneous as has the nation itself, that we feel any necessity for a system of legislation, or are tempted to wish for a definite science of government. In these latter towns, self-government passes with wonderful and almost imperceptible rapidity into something closely akin to despotism, and this transition furnishes a theme for useful reflection.

For the sake of unity and greater distinctness, we shall confine our description and illustrations to one large inland town of about ten thousand inhabitants. Here the farmer is slowly disappearing. Already manu-

facturer, mechanic, and merchant either outnumber him or obscure him by superior activity. Running streams have built cotton and paper mills, and these have brought in the Irishman and the French Canadian, so that the Calvinist walks to town-meeting with the Catholic, and both shake hands with the modern rationalist as they ask him how he intends to vote on the proposed town loan to the new railroad. Notwithstanding the different nationalities represented and the varieties of character to be found, the old New England element is yet largely predominant, and, for special reasons which need not be here given, the Puritan traditions are cherished with peculiar strength of feeling.

The annual meeting is held in a bare and uncomfortable hall, a facsimile of which is to be found in all New England towns. This one, however, is larger than the average, seating from seven hundred to a thousand persons, the number in attendance sometimes reaching this latter limit. A few of our readers may need to be reminded that these meetings are called by the selectmen, the trustees, or principal executive body of the town, who issue a "warrant," giving the time of meeting, and stating the various questions upon which the decision of voters will be required. Only subjects specified in this warrant can properly be brought before the meeting. All therefore are forewarned of the business to be introduced, and, the principal topics having been pretty well talked over in homes and stores, all come to the meeting with at least some preparation for voting understandingly.

The scene, to an observer, is thoroughly interesting. Here are perhaps eight hundred men, who give unflagging attention to all the proceedings. Every man present knows something of every question presented, and very few would shrink from giving expression to an opinion if needed. The town is wealthy, and the subjects discussed sometimes involve an outlay of hundreds of thousands of dollars. Under these circumstances, the character and tone of the discussions are most admirable, and the amount of business done, and well done, is really wonderful, compared with the experience of other legislative bodies. The speeches are straightforward, pointed, short, and are generally positive contributions to the debates. Very few speeches are made for show, and oratorical embellishments are seldom well received. Buncombe is a deadly sin. We were present once (the question referring to the election of a town surveyor, many wishing to return to a former system of district supervision) when a speaker began with, "It has been said, sir, that revolutions never go backward"; but in extenuation of this unusual declamation it should be explained that the speaker was a lawyer and an ex-member of Congress. Not only are the subjects of universal personal interest, and the speeches more liable, therefore, to be direct expressions of opinions, but the economical New Englander always wishes to finish town business in one day, if possible. He is willing to give this amount of time from his customary occupations, but more than this he begrudges; hence another reason for his impatience of all useless rhetoric. The attention given to all proceedings is almost church-like; there is no writing or wandering about the hall, and very little private conversation. In consequence of this attention, every slip which a speaker may make in statement of fact is taken advantage of immediately, and attempts to screen personal interest in any subject are exposed in a manner which to tender sensibilities must seem positively cruel. Notwithstanding the business-like tone of most of the proceedings, there is always a keen enjoyment of sharp replies and of those personal hits made so easy by the intimate acquaintanceship of long-time neighbors. There is little real humor, though always some, and the wit is severe rather than delicate. A man, for instance, begins a rambling, querulous talk about a certain road near his house which is not in good order. After waiting long enough to ascertain that this complaint is all he really has to say, he is interrupted by the question, "Why didn't you tell the surveyor and have the thing fixed, instead of waiting until town-meeting and coming here to complain?" The laugh which follows this question effectually ends his complaint. Again, the town-clock is out of order. For generations this clock has been in the steeple of the old town-church, the preacher of which has lately been suspected of heresy. Immediately a number of suggestions are offered, all of which connect the irregularities of the old clock with the supposed irregularities in the theology taught below. These hits are evidently intensely enjoyed, but to an outsider, it must be confessed, they are somewhat dreary. While the speaking, as at all large public meetings, is mostly done by a few, yet these few appear to be recognized as only convenient mouthpieces; for they are rigorously criticised, and are plied with questions from all parts of the hall. These questions are usually put in parliamentary form, and parliamentary rules are quite strictly adhered to throughout, the moderator being chosen generally with reference to his knowledge of them, and his ability to enforce them. National politics do not enter at all into the discussions, nor do they seem in any way to influence opinions upon town matters, and State politics are recognized only in the election of a representative to the Legislature. One of the most striking characteristics of these meetings is the unfailing good temper manifested by every one who takes part. In this respect we know of few other legislative bodies which can compare with them. We have been present when exciting subjects were debated, and when personal feeling ran very high indeed; but we have never seen a speaker give way to passion, or indulge in that vituperative blackguardism so common in other places. In view of the frequent occurrence of a "tumult" in the French Assembly, or a "row" in our own Congress, the genuine decorum of these townsmen is doubly admirable.

It is with regret (tempered, however, by some things to be explained hereafter) that we announce the approaching end of these long-continued meetings. The town, doubtless, will soon apply for a city charter, and the old hall will give place to a building befitting a more pretentious form of government. Already Mr. Patrick Maloney is getting ready to run for the common council, and the speculator is marking street lines and laying out lots. Whatever advantages may be gained by the change from town to city government, no old resident at least, and we think few others, will deny that the bright side of town-meeting is very bright indeed. A consideration of the dark side we shall reserve for another portion of our article.

## ENGLAND.—THE LESSON OF KENEALY.

LONDON, February 27.

IN thinking over the causes which have led to the eccentric election of Dr. Kenealy, I am reminded of the answer given by Jemmy Hirst, the Yorkshire oddity, to King George the Third, when the King asked him how he liked London. "I like it weel enow," he answered; "but I hadn't ony idea afore yesterday and to-day there were sae mony fools in it." The first impression you form as to the meaning of the transaction is that it is a piece of illimitable folly, or, if not folly, a kind of morbid ailment that has affected an extremity of the political body, and which had to run its course. But the more you dwell upon it, the less you like it, and the more serious both in its causes and its possible consequences does it seem. It shows, in the first place, that that strange aberration of intelligence which possessed a considerable section of the English nation for upwards of two years in the matter of Arthur Orton's identity has by no means passed away with the verdict of the jury and Orton's conviction as a felon, but, on the contrary, that it is more widely spread and more deeply rooted than any ordinary observer could have imagined. Not long ago I was at Portland, the great convict prison on the English Channel, and happened to say to some of the small shopkeepers there that they would probably have Arthur Orton shortly with them. They were furious at the suggestion, and insisted upon it that if there was any justice in the land, and if any one should be sent to their prison, it ought to be Lord Coleridge, the Lord Chief-Justice of England, his brother judges, and the counsel who prosecuted Orton. I could not reason them nor laugh them out of their conviction. I found a similar feeling among some of the shopkeepers at Southampton; and the other day, when Mr. Evelyn Ashley, the member for Poole, attempted to ridicule the election of Dr. Kenealy before a large audience at Ryde, in the Isle of Wight, they hooted him, and refused to listen to another word he said. But though aware that wild opinions of this kind were held in parts of England as to the innocence of Dr. Kenealy's client, I frankly admit that it did not occur to me that any constituency, either in England or Scotland, would have been so beside itself as to send such a representative to Parliament as Stoke-upon-Trent has selected. From "mad Tipperary" anything might have been anticipated in a moment of Irish elation. But it surpasses belief that a community of eighteen thousand electors, consisting of stolid English workingmen and petty tradesmen, soberly and seriously, and without any notion of practising a practical joke upon the legislature, should send such a man as Dr. Kenealy to represent their political opinions in the House of Commons. He has been returned without one question as to his political views. Not one of the electors—perhaps not even their chosen representative himself—knows to which party in the state he adheres. He has, through the *Englishman*, the organ which he edits, poured out torrents of vituperation and contempt impartially upon both sides of the House and upon the Speaker. He was not returned as a follower of Mr. Disraeli, nor as a follower of Lord Hartington. He takes his seat unpledged to any line of policy or conduct. He is the defender of an impudent impostor, and he has been returned to the great Commons House of England by six thousand electors, with the one object of getting a convicted felon released from prison. This sort of action on the part of a large constituency puts all old-fashioned notions and

stereotyped ideas upon party organization out of gear. If thousands of electors in one place allow their wayward fancies to run riot in this manner, all political calculations and combinations will come to naught. Whims and vagaries will govern elections, and notoriety and not worth will be the true gateway to success.

And now a word as to the more serious consequences which I think this election suggests. You may remember that in my letter of January 16, I hazarded an opinion which in effect came to this : that in some constituencies—I hope not in many—the proletariat is practically omnipotent, now that they have got a household franchise and vote by ballot. If any question should arise in which the working, wage-earning classes are taught by agitators or others that their interests are affected, the wage-paying and educated classes in the community will be elbowed out of the field. This time last year, immediately after the present Government came into office, they appointed a Royal Commission to enquire into and report upon the operation of certain statutes affecting the relations of the employers and the employed. They were called the Labor Laws Commission, and they consisted of Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn ; Lord Winmarleigh, who, as Mr. Wilson-Patten in the House of Commons, had long taken an active part in questions affecting the working classes ; Mr. Bouverie, a Privy Councillor and a most experienced legislator ; Mr. Russell-Gurney, whom you know well in America ; Mr. Justice Smith ; Mr. Roebuck ; Mr. Thomas Hughes, a typical workingman's friend ; Mr. Goldney, and Mr. Macdonald, one of the workingmen's representatives in the House of Commons. It was a strong Commission, and fairly representative, and the object of its appointment was an honest one—to enquire impartially into the alleged grievances of the working-classes under the Master and Servants Act, the Trades-Union Act, and the Conspiracy Act. The trades-unionists maintained that their grievances were so patent and clamorous that it was a farce to appoint any Commission, and they obstinately refused to recognize it or to give evidence before it. The report of the Commission has just been issued. It is an able document, drawn up with great care, and entering fully into all the questions which were before the Commissioners. It is said to have been written by the Lord Chief-Justice, but I cannot vouch for this, and it is signed by all the Commissioners except Mr. Macdonald, who, without professing to argue out any of the conclusions, blankly refuses his concurrence in any of the opinions expressed, and adheres to those of the trades-unionists. The report is dead against the unionists in almost every essential particular, and it carries conviction with it to all reasonable men. But it is as certain as any undetermined matter can be that it will not convince a single leader of the working-classes. They have their own view upon the questions, cut and dry, and no reasoning will shake it. Now, if the Government should attempt to legislate upon the lines of this report, the working-classes, led by their paid agitators, will oppose the measure with all the resources in their power. No candidate for any constituency where the workingmen are numerous will venture to agree with the reasonable conclusions of the commission, or the moderate proposals of the Government, founded on these conclusions. He must shut his ears to reason and to common sense, and pledge himself to the cut-and-dry views of the trades-unionists ; and so much sought after is a seat in the House of Commons that men of position and education will be found to do this. But if he haggles over any of the most extreme proposals, the constituency will pass him by, and select some wild man of the Kenealy type. And now, after this election at Stoke-upon-Trent, it is only too apparent that the proletariat can do what they like. They are omnipotent in not a few important constituencies, and that is a solemn fact which English politicians must make up their minds to accept. I do not say that it is necessarily a bad thing that the working-classes should have their views represented, however extreme or wrong-headed these views may seem to men who do not belong to these classes, like the Lord Chief-Justice of England and his eminent colleagues on the Commission. I merely say that the return of Dr. Kenealy by an enormous majority in a constituency where the working-classes number about seven-ninths of the whole constituency, shows what these classes can do when they are united.

As for Dr. Kenealy himself, he will, as Walpole said of Wilkes, do less harm in the House of Commons than anywhere else. The House has a rough-and-ready way of dealing with eccentricities. Every man who comes within the rigid criticism of that assembly soon finds his level. Every newcomer, it matters not what he is, is treated at first with courtesy and consideration. The House always listens with attention, and generally with good nature, to a maiden speech, and anything like diffidence or nervousness it treats with leniency and generous encouragement. But self-assertion or bumptiousness it cannot abide, and it is cruelly intolerant of bores and one-ideaed men. Dr. Kenealy will meet with studious consideration when he first essays to speak. But if he insists on parading the Orton grievance upon the attention of the House, his reception will be very different from that which awaited him at Stoke. The House has many effective ways of silencing a bore. An animated conversation carried on in every corner by the various members seated in their places soon deadens the voice of even the most animated speaker. A chorus of cries of "divide," "divide," "'vide," "'vide," proceeding from both sides at once whenever the speaker opens his mouth, embarrasses even the most hardened orator. But the most effectual way of bringing a one-ideaed man to his senses is the process of "counting out," and this is probably the course that will be followed with the chosen of Stoke. It is a rule of the House that forty members must be present. When an orator becomes troublesome, a stampede of members takes place from the House to the lobbies, or the smoking-rooms, or the library. Some one gets up from a back bench, and calls the Speaker's attention to the sparse attendance. The Speaker counts the House, finds there are not forty members present, orders the electric bells to be rung and the sand-glass to be turned. The stampeded members stand outside till the sand has run its two minutes' course, and the electric bells have rung out. The doors are closed, there are not forty members, and the House stands adjourned till the following day, when there is a new order of business, and the orator of the previous night has lost his chance, and may not get another till the following session. It is an effective way of silencing a bore.

# Correspondence.

## MORE LAMENTATIONS OVER SCHENCK.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : National anniversaries are of right of much greater importance to Americans abroad than to you at home, and whenever Washington's Birthday or Independence-Day came back, we used to have a habit of getting together in some manner, or, at least, of calling on our Minister or Consul to renew vicariously our nationality.

Your readers can therefore appreciate the importance, to Americans resident abroad, of a Minister. To you at home he is only an official myth —in three cases out of four a scrubby politician sent abroad to pay him for sacrificing his self-respect and honest patriotism to party exigencies ; and your strongest feeling, if you have one, on his going abroad, is, that he is out of the way of mischief ; but to us he is the impersonation of our country. Now and then, at wide intervals of space and time, he is a man like George P. Marsh or Charles F. Adams, who confirms us for the moment in our happy delusion that ours is a great, wise, and dignified Government ; but, in general, we are content if he is no worse than incapable. I have lived abroad under many régimes, and often had cause to blush for the official representative of my country, for drunkenness, meanness, profligacy, ignorance, incapacity, venality ; but until I lived under the protecting presence of General Schenck I have never had to deprecate, as an American, a connection with swindling. I don't know what my fellow-countrymen resident here, in general, think of the matter, as, since I have had to avoid his house, I rarely meet them ; but I hope you will accord me the privilege of expressing the feeling of those I do know, as well as of the Englishmen I know who really admire America. It is one of intense shame perpetually, quickened by every mention in the daily papers of his great achievement, as well as by every mention of his name, and heightened by indignation at the implied approbation of our Government of an offence against diplomatic decency and social dignity such as has never been known in our day in the capital of a great country. I doubt if there is another civilized government, the meanest under the sun, that would dare so to outrage the self-respect of its respectable citizens as to compel them, year after year, to endure the humiliation of seeing their representative protected by his official capacity from a criminal suit, and hearing the head of their Government commonly and plausibly accused of participating in the swindle—of hearing his country identified in its highest personalities with a mean and flagrant fraud. I wish every man who reads my letter would sit by himself and think long enough to realize that every honest American in England has perpetually under his eyes this national shame—that he runs the risk every time that he dines with a party of Englishmen of being made to blush by an allusion to the Emma Mine or General Schenck, and that he must blush in silence, for there is not one word that can be said in mitigation of the disgrace ; that whenever he takes up a morning paper he may see that some beggared victim of Grant

and Schenck has instituted a criminal action against the American Minister for complicity in a swindle which but for his name might never have been a swindle at all, and would certainly not have been a successful one; that he cannot go to his Minister's receptions with self-respect, or, if he went, meet there an Englishman who has any; that when Jim Fisk is quoted as a standard American, he dare not say that he was not.

That's the way we stand, and I wish that, since General Grant and his official advisers are lost to all sense of diplomatic propriety, every honest editor in the United States would hear our complaint, and repeat it till the whole country felt the shame.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

8 Altenburg Gardens, Clapham Common, London, Feb. 22.

## THE SECOND STAGE OF WISCONSIN RAILROAD LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having been at Madison during most of the time when legislation concerning railroads was progressing, I venture to send a slight contribution to its history as it appeared to an outsider.

Many business men, among them the railroad managers, have, in common with yourself, been trying to believe that the notorious piece of legislation known as the Potter Law was the result of an outburst of passion, manipulated with mischievous skill by ambitious politicians. With you, they hoped that by this winter, when tempers had a chance to cool, wisdom would return, better counsels would prevail, and the obnoxious features of the law be repealed. There were grounds for these hopes. So far as could be judged, there seemed to be a growing feeling that the law was unjust, or at the least too stringent in some of its provisions; and there was, on the part of its advocates, a most vociferous declaration that if such were the case it should certainly be changed, for no injustice to anybody was contemplated. The whole question, so far as action of our legislature was concerned, hinged upon this *if*, about which the companies and the Grangers differ so widely. As the Railroad Commissioners, though appointed by one party to the contest, constituted the only tribunal whose decision would be accepted, their conclusions were awaited with anxiety and interest. They were not soon forthcoming. The true cause was doubtless the one given by the Commissioners: that they were overworked, the job proving a bigger one than they expected; but the delay was made the occasion of many mysterious hints. Their report was finally submitted about the middle of February. It would perhaps be unfair to criticise a work prepared under such pressure, but it must be said that in this bulky volume of nearly 700 pages there is a good deal for which want of time is about the worst excuse, since it might so well have been omitted. As a specimen, in discussing the question of cheap transportation, how forcible and pertinent is the following: "Hence commerce is as old as civilization, and has of necessity been as unresting as the forces of nature; plying upon inland seas, along the ocean shores, and upon navigable rivers, *which, by a wise provision of nature, open highways into the interior of continents!*" For some unexplained reason, that other "wise provision of nature" by which navigable rivers are always conducted past large towns is not referred to. However, there is evidence of conscientious labor and of labor employed in the right spirit and in the right direction. With some superfluous verbiage, there is much that may be studied with advantage by men about to legislate on the railroad question. You will doubtless see and discuss the report. Its conclusions were that "the only form of railway control likely to prove successful under present conditions is the legislative, supplemented by direct supervision; the legislature laying down general rules of action, but leaving the application and enforcement of those rules to a commission."

There was some divergence of opinion among the Commissioners; but a bill, supposed to contain provisions in accordance with these conclusions, was eventually prepared and heartily urged by two of the number; the third, though not fully concurring, would not, it was understood, oppose it. This bill added to the functions and increased the powers of the Commissioners, and in some respects exceeded in stringency the present law; but, leaving passenger rates unchanged, it substituted a limitation of profits for an arbitrary tariff, leaving the companies control of their business below that point. The limit was "ten per cent. on the cash value of the road, as determined by the Commissioners, including taxes and licenses," meaning that, out of this nominal net-earning, taxes and licenses were to be paid, leaving the net really something over eight per cent. Although coming from constituents who were as a whole disposed to make concessions, the temper of the legislature was at this time unfriendly to the roads. Among other things, the prolonged senatorial contest had made a good deal of bad blood. It was charged, whether rightly or wrongly, that Senator Carpenter's defeat was due to railroad interference. That gentleman's speeches after he was beaten were calculated to confirm and strengthen this prejudice, being little else than tirades against capital. Railroad managers, convinced that it was hopeless to think of repealing the Potter Law, and that the utmost they need expect was to obtain some mitigation of its hardships, decided to ask two slight amendments to the Commissioners' bill, and advocate its passage. Their amendments were adopted in committee, but they might have spared themselves this trouble.

The bill came before the Assembly, and its framers were asked to explain its provisions. Commissioner Hoyt proceeded to do this in an able manner. He alluded to the difficulties under which they had labored as an excuse for the inconclusive nature of some of their work; he hinted at some of the defects of the Potter Law, and explained in what manner it was proposed to remedy them. He handled the subject somewhat gingerly, but on the whole well and with tact. Venturing in conclusion to make an appeal to the magnanimity of the people through their representatives, he went a step too far, and was brought to by being bluntly told that the Assembly was there to be informed as to the provisions of his bill, and not to be harangued. This snub, which was swallowed with as good grace as could have been expected, was but the beginning of a series which must have been unpalatable. The bill was warmly advocated by its friends; but without other discussion on the part of the Grangers than threadbare denunciations of monopolies and thinly-veiled insinuations concerning the Commissioners, it was ignominiously defeated in both houses. The agricultural legislators enjoy too keenly the exercise of unlimited power over one hundred millions of capital to consent to delegate it to a board of Commissioners, concerning whom their remarks were the reverse of complimentary. Those gentlemen had reached conclusions that were not acceptable to the power that created them, and so they were dropped, and in all the subsequent negotiations between the roads and the Grangers the Commissioners and their suggestions were ignored in the most contemptuous manner. There was now before both houses a bill known as the Quimby Amendment, purporting to perfect the Potter Law, which it did by giving it added stringency. The only thing left for the roads to do was to beg for such slight relief, by way of modification of this bill, as might be vouchsafed them. This they proceeded to do in the most deferential, not to say abject, manner. Conferring with a committee of five appointed, not by either house, but by the Grange organization, they were offered a concession amounting to about one per cent. on the freight traffic affected.

It may be as well to explain here in what manner that master of the subject of transportation—Senator Potter—arrived at the rates that appear in his law. There was a good deal of curiosity to know how they were obtained, which was gratified with reluctance on his part. It appears that he took the lowest published tariff, and deducted twenty-five per cent. all around. This scientific method was pursued throughout all the negotiations. Affecting vitally millions of capital, and indirectly the whole State, this question of rates and earnings has been treated in the same spirit in which they would squabble over a constable's fees. Not to dwell on these disagreeable details, an amendment was finally adopted which increased the old rates by a small fraction, and the friends of fair dealing, aided by those who were willing to throw a small sop to the roads, succeeded in carrying it. With this they must be content, and it is questionable whether the concession is worth the forfeiture of principle and self-respect which it cost to obtain it.

The leaders of the Granger element are shrewd and unscrupulous, the rank-and-file well drilled and submissive, and the temper of the whole organization narrow and vindictive. A sullen spirit of retaliation was manifested throughout which can only be likened to that which was shown years ago on the line of the Michigan Central, when for certain alleged grievances men justified themselves in placing obstructions on the track, killing and wounding scores of innocent people by way of revenging themselves upon the company. It was useless to attempt to show them that the oppression and the abuses of which they complained had been something overstated. Their own Commissioners, forced to this conclusion, and having the manhood to announce it, were snubbed and slandered. The companies laid before them a memorial, which discussed the whole question ably and fully, establishing by unanswerable statistics that Wisconsin roads had been built cheaper than most others, and that the rates prescribed by the Potter Law were far below those of the roads of any State in the Union or of any foreign country. The only reply of Mr. Potter and his congeners was that they did not believe it. When the gentlemen representing the unfortunate stockholders assured them that a persistence in these low rates meant absolute ruin to the companies, it was sneered at as pure mendacity; while others, less discreet, plainly said that they hoped that

it did mean ruin, for then, if sold in bankruptcy, the roads would pass into new hands at such reduced figures that they could be profitably operated at the low rates. It did not seem to occur to them that capitalists would be slow to buy in the roads at even $10,000 per mile, when there was every reason to fear that the action of the next legislature might result in selling them out at $5,000 or perhaps $1,000 per mile.

In view of the fact that the roads obtained a slight advance, there were those who hoped that a break was made in the ranks of the Grangers; but there were but slight grounds for such an opinion. There is good reason for believing that when the legislature met they expected to do more than they have done. The consciousness of power brought with it a determination to exercise it, and it is questionable whether the relief given was not granted in the same spirit that the cat gives the mouse a respite in order that the tormenting which is so interesting may last the longer. At any rate—to paraphrase slightly the language of the most blatant of their spokesmen—they have yet to learn that there is anything oppressive or unjust in the provisions of the Potter Law; anything dishonorable in exacting compulsory service upon their own terms; anything disgraceful in sneaking out of a solemn compact after the benefits have been received, if only it be done by a class instead of an individual. There was not, so far as my observation went, even among opponents to the bill, a single member who, when pleading for mercy or generosity to the roads, did not feel called upon to preface his remarks with the assurance that he regarded the *principles* of the Potter Law as just and right, and that no one would go further than he to uphold them, although he did think some of its provisions a little stringent.

The Commissioners stated not only in the Assembly but before the committees and privately, that their bill was by them intended as a step toward the inauguration of a system under which the earnings of all capital should be regulated by legislation. Several bills intended to control both corporate and private capital, and quite in consonance with the legislative spirit of the fifteenth century, were introduced and defeated, not in fair fight, but only by manœuvring tactics. The Grangers did not, of course, confine themselves to this class of legislation, but took concerted action on most important measures that came up. Daily secret meetings were held wherein plans of action were matured. It was even thought by many that they had certain cues or signals, by means of which the leaders gave their orders whenever unexpected contingencies or complications arose. With a good working majority so thoroughly disciplined, it will be readily imagined that they drew largely on all who had need of their support in aid of special measures, and such was the case. In short, judging from appearances, there seems almost to be warrant for the assertion that the Wisconsin Legislature of 1875 was a legislature run by a secret organization.

The situation is one which every citizen who is not intoxicated with the possession of power to which he is unused must regard with grave concern. The credit of our State, which was already crippled, has received another blow. With money cheap and plenty in commercial centres, our borrowing power is completely paralyzed. Under wise and temperate legislation, its recovery would be at the best but a slow process, and, judging from present indications, it is a long look ahead to the time when this course of treatment is likely to be entered upon.

F. R. L.

Eau Claire, Wisconsin, March 10, 1875.

---

[The above confirms all the comments and predictions we have ever offered on this subject, and we commend it to the attention of all investors at home and abroad. We assure them they cannot safely put money into *any* enterprise, private or corporate, in the State of Wisconsin, or lend it on any security accessible to legislation. The spirit at the bottom of the Granger legislation is, in fact, one of sheer and simple dishonesty.—Ed. Nation.]

# Notes.

J. B. FORD & CO. send us Vols. I. and II. of 'Knight's Mechanical Dictionary,' ending with *Pan*. We have more than once referred to the progress of this valuable publication, which is not only remarkably comprehensive, but as fresh as our author's long service in the Patent Office can make it. As every American is at some time in his life an inventor, a work like this ought to find a place beside his Webster or Worcester.——The American Public Health Association is not yet a household word, but that it is not a mere name is abundantly shown by the handsome volume of reports and papers presented at its meetings in 1873 (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 8vo, pp. 563). We cannot even enumerate here the topics discussed, mostly by first-rate authorities. Among the illustrated articles are General Walker's "Relations of Race and Nationality to Mortality in the United States"; the very curious "History and Course of the Epizootic" on this continent in 1872–73, by Dr. A. B. Judson; the same writer's "Report upon the Course of Cholera in the Mississippi Valley"; Dr. J. C. Peters's "Origin and Spread of Asiatic Cholera"; Dr. J. M. Toner's "Reports on Yellow Fever"; "Sanitary Climatology," by Lorin Blodgett; and Dr. Van der Poel's "Experience and Requirements of Quarantine."——The last illustrated paper in the foregoing work, "On the Sanitary Chemistry of Waters," with reference to the supply of cities, is by Dr. C. F. Chandler, and is accompanied by a map of the Croton water-shed. We are reminded by it of the second official report of Mr. Verplanck Colvin on his topographical survey of the Adirondack wilderness, which has just come to hand. To this region, in all probability, New York and many of the cities along the Hudson will eventually resort for an unfailing water-supply. Mr. Colvin's narrative is as readable as a magazine article, and is made intelligible by a great variety of engravings and maps.——Robert Clarke & Co.'s 'Catalogue of Books Relating to America' fills 130 well-printed pages, of which 22 are devoted to the sub-heading, "Rebellion and Slavery." An index greatly enhances its usefulness (Cincinnati).——The Harvard School of Geology, the analogue of the Anderson School at Penikese, is announced to open at Cumberland Gap, Tenn., on the 1st of July, under the direction of Professor N. S. Shaler. He will be assisted by his colleagues on the Geological Survey, and by members of the State Survey, of Kentucky, and probably also by Dr. Asa Gray, and Professors J. D. Whitney and Raphael Pumpelly, of Harvard. Teachers only (male, and not to exceed twenty-five in number) will be received in this camp. Applications should be addressed to F. W. Harris, Cambridge.——Macmillan & Co. have in press a work in two volumes, by Mr. A. R. Wallace, possessing a high degree of interest. It is on the 'Geographical Distribution of Animals.'——James Miller will reprint Miss Frances Power Cobbe's 'Hopes of the Human Race, Here and Hereafter.'——Scribner, Welford & Armstrong are reprinting, by special arrangement with the English publishers, translations of Paul Lacroix's 'XVIIIe Siècle' and Baron Davillier's 'L'Espagne,' with all the illustrations. Scribner, Armstrong & Co., by a similar arrangement, reprint Louis Rousselet's 'L'Inde des Rajahs.' They have just issued Leslie Stephen's 'Hours in a Library,' which we need not introduce again to our readers, and, from the stereotype plates, Craik's 'Compendious History of English Literature and of the English Language from the Norman Conquest,' in two volumes.——Benj. F. Burr, Ludlow, Mass., announces a volume relating to the history of that town and its centennial celebration last year.

—The *Portfolio* for March opens with a fine etching by Rajon from Giorgione's 'Knight in Armor' in the National Gallery. The series of photogravures from Greek coins is continued, giving some of those admirable Syracusan medals whose cutting is to numismatics what the art of Phidias is to sculpture. A rather flattering article on Bouguereau, by a fellow-countryman of the artist, is illustrated too in photogravure, the example being from one of the pseudo-classical figures of this too elegant painter. The editor, Mr. Hamerton, reviews some etchings, and the article on technical method describes the processes of Holman Hunt. The only symptom in the number that is not quite reassuring is the tendency to lessen the proportion of etchings and increase that of the clever photograph-prints, thus substituting "inspired chemistry" for "artistic inspiration." The American publisher is Mr. J. W. Bouton, No. 706 Broadway.

—Ninety-nine water-color sketches by Blake have been received by Mr. Bouton, and are for sale. Our libraries and art-museums should look to it that the series in its completeness be retained in some one of our appropriate institutions. These drawings are in various stages of finish, in different methods, on sheets of several hues. In each case the tint of the paper is cleverly used to save trouble in elaborating the effect. On a slight preliminary examination, we observe the originals of most of the illustrations to Swinburne's Essay, some of those of Blair's 'Grave,' and various motives copied by Mr. Gilchrist. The variation on Stonehenge, the corpse and bat-like figure, and several others employed by Mr. Swinburne, are recognizable, as well as the compositions he admires so much of couples rushing into embrace from the midst of flames or the hearts of flowers; the Leviathan; and the pair, resembling Adam and Eve, who are engaged in adoring a god apparently in a state of conflagration. The young man crouching for a flight as he surmounts the tomb (Blair's 'Grave') is seen in more than one study. We may casually speak, as instances of power or originality, of the group on a torn sheet, depicting Job and his

comforters; of a sort of female Prometheus stretched on a cloud, the vulture busy at her soft bosom; angels adoring the chalice, or else saying grace before celestial food; a seraph darting through clouds, holding a great pair of balances; the well-known inverted figure of a herculean spirit blowing a trumpet; and Leviathan, dominated by a woman, child and babe, who ride on its folds in triumph. The pictures in question are understood to be those from which the late Mr. Hotten prepared his fac-similes, and are released to sale, in all probability, on account of circumstances connected with his death.

—Part I. of the 'Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie' comes to us from F. W. Christern, the first instalment of a great work to embrace a hundred parts or twenty volumes, and to be completed in ten years. This is not an enterprise due, as might be supposed, to the new-born spirit of German unity, but one proposed as early as 1868 by Ranke and Döllinger, and unanimously adopted by the Historical Commission of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, under whose auspices the 'Biographie' at length appears. Its scope is confined to departed greatness, but not to German soil alone. All Germans, not among the living, who have been eminent in church and state, science and art, trade and manufactures, or in other ways, will be recorded here, whether they happen to have been born within the present German Empire, or in Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands (down to 1648), or the Baltic provinces of Russia. The issue before us extends from Aa to Ahlefeldt, and occupies 160 pp. A rough comparison of the biographies with those contained in the new Brockhaus indicates a proportion of three to two in favor of the 'Biographie,' which of course is able to treat of them more at length than would be possible for the former. What is most striking, however, is a comparison of the contributors engaged upon these two dictionaries. Those of the 'Biographie' number about 380, against about 120 in Brockhaus's employ, and it is hardly to be believed that only ten names occur on both lists, which fairly bristle with Prof., Dr., and Prof. Dr., together with high functionaries in the civil service, etc., etc. As this is actually the case, however, it is even safe to infer that a third enterprise of similar character and magnitude would find plenty of savants to recruit from besides the 500 just reckoned; and a more splendid tribute to the higher education of Germany could hardly be imagined. In the field of national biography the Germans have hitherto been behind their neighbors, both great and small, but this self-imposed task of seventeen years will have changed all that.

—An esteemed contributor sends us the following extracts, which he professes to have taken from the London *Academy* of February 29, 1875: "In his answer to the well-merited castigation which we recently administered to the transatlantic archæologists, Mr. Trumbull actually commits a pun implying the equivalence of *mālum* and *mālum*. When will American scholars learn to pay due regard to quantities? Are the members of the Oriental and Philological Societies really any better than the bank officer of whom we read in the same paper, who, his salary being only $5,000, out of heedlessness of quantity took $50,000?" We confess that we have not found these words in the *Academy*, in fact that no issue for the date specified has reached us; but we are obliged to add that the extract bears every internal evidence of being a genuine one; for it is quite in accordance with that paper's way of judging and commenting on all matters connected with the "Cardiff giant." Through the particular pair of eyes by which it has looked at this subject, the usually clear-sighted *Academy* has not seemed able to get sufficiently distinct and unprejudiced views to do justice either to things or to persons. It never fairly reported our original account of the discussion in the Oriental Society, nor let its readers see the aspect of the question as there presented; and it has spent its strength mainly in finding something to carp at in unessential attendant circumstances. We hold over here that the statue was years ago, and in the most public manner, declared and proved a forgery; that after making a fortune for its clever perpetrator, it has sunk into deserved neglect and contempt; that it never had any qualities to engage the credence of cautious scholars; and that American scholars have been and are agreed in condemning it. There is, to be sure, one man upon the opposite side; and his industrious distribution of his own communications in those learned and authoritative journals, the *Galaxy* and the New Haven *Palladium*, appears to have been the means of taking in certain too incautious and credulous foreign scholars. But to require that the question be reopened on his appeal and settled anew is equivalent to demanding that the Copernican theory be taken up again for serious discussion because some notoriety-seeking individual with a maggot in his head chooses to declare himself a Ptolemaist. There is no question that Professor Schlottmann and Dr. Hartogh, in dragging before the learned of Europe at this late day what we have truly called a "long since exploded humbug," have committed a grave oversight, for which they deserve to be sharply taken to task; and we have information that some of their colleagues heartily agree with us in this opinion.

—The death of Sir Arthur Helps will be widely regretted in this country, for his writings were of a sort to awaken a strong feeling of personal regard for their author. The quality of his thought, no less than of his style, was essentially that of a gentleman. No books exhibit more clearly than his the religion of the best modern society—the religion of self-respect, of personal refinement, of humanity, and the good breeding which puts all men at ease. His mind was not one of remarkable strength or remarkable subtlety, but his intellectual perceptions were delicate and well trained, and his sympathies, both moral and intellectual, were wide and keen. He was, altogether, a civilized, cultivated, social man of letters, and the topics that especially interested him were those which concern men in their social relations. His reputation as a thinker will rest mainly on his discussion of what are called social questions. On these topics his thought, if not always profound, was fresh and acute, the product of large experience, extended observation, and deliberate reflection. He had a firm faith that no great revolution is required to make the lives of men much more cheerful, much happier, than they now are; that what is required is attention to the means already at hand, and the application of remedies great part of which are in possession of every individual. He was no perverse optimist, but he had the conviction that the good in the world might be indefinitely increased by simple means, and his best writings are those in which he sets forth this faith, and illustrates and recommends it with the skill begotten of generous warmth of feeling. The keynote of the first of his books that became well known, his 'Friends in Council,' published almost thirty years ago, is struck again in the last of his writings, his book on 'Social Pressure,' which appears in this country simultaneously with the announcement of his death. The better organization of society, the improvement in the condition of the poor, the application of the standard of private morals to the conduct of public affairs—these are the matters to which, in various form, he returns again and again. His humane and liberal spirit pervades his books. Against slavery, war, neglect of the poor, cruelty to animals, and many another manifestation of human brutality, he directed his efforts with unrelaxing energy. But no bitter words ever fell from his pen. He recognized the virtue of self-possessed force, and he never wasted his strength in controversy or lost his temper in impatience with wrong-doers.

—His essays will be long remembered and more read than his other books. He had not an imagination of sufficient force to make him a poet, and his novels and tragedies are the performances of talent rather than the creations of genius. His style was the reflection of himself, always clear, always pleasant, and at its best rising to heights of vigorous animation and full-flowing ease of expression, which give him just claim to a place among the best modern masters of English prose. No books will hereafter afford to the student of the thoughts and sentiments of the best English society of the last thirty years a truer acquaintance with them than 'Friends in Council,' 'Companions of my Solitude,' and the other volumes of the series of essays and conversations of which they were the first. The delightful personal characteristics which his books in part reveal endeared Sir Arthur Helps to a wide circle of friends. Mr. Emerson, in his 'English Traits,' has recorded his visit with Carlyle to Mr. Helps, as he then was, at his home in Bishops Waltham. A few years later, an enterprise in which he engaged, with the hope of benefiting others as well as himself, resulted so ill as to involve the loss of his ample property and the giving up of his home. In 1859, he was appointed Clerk of the Privy Council, an office of responsibility and of labor. This office he retained till his death. In 1872, he was made Civil Knight Commander of the Bath, in recognition of his various services to literature and the state. Misfortune did not break or embitter him, but it saddened his later years. He still made the best of life; he remained one of the most agreeable of men in society; always kindly in judgment, always desirous to promote pleasantness, and possessed of such culture and such gifts as made him master in his favorite art—the art of living with others.

—Some few years ago the crime of garroting became so rife in England that the punishment of flogging was revived, and it has now been on trial for some years in that country. The Home Secretary has recently asked the judges of the Superior Courts to say whether in their opinion the revival of this obsolescent punishment has proved successful, and whether it ought to be extended to a class of cases which have of late years become almost as common as garroting formerly—those of aggravated assault. The opinion of the judges is almost unanimous that flogging has proved its value a

a punishment; that the fear of it has upon the minds of brutal malefactors a powerful deterrent effect which nothing else has; that garroting was actually brought to an end by it, and that the general sum of human happiness, at least in Great Britain, is sensibly increased by the occasional administration of a couple of dozen lashes "well laid on" the backs of a certain class of the community. From this argument, however, two or three of the judges dissent, maintaining that flogging is an objectionable punishment. That there should be a difference of opinion on the subject is not remarkable, but the arguments by which one of the minority, Mr. Justice Keating, supports his position are worth attention. This judge says, first, that he has himself never sentenced any one to be flogged under the provisions of the act as to garroters, a fact which would seem to deprive his opinion of the weight given by actual experiment to that of the others, but which he mentions as if he considered it in itself an argument against the punishment, and then says that flogging is unequal in its application—a number of lashes which would make one man faint being taken by another with comparative indifference; that it hardens the offenders; that it has no deterrent effect, because "nine-tenths of the crimes of violence committed throughout England originate in public-houses, and are committed under circumstances which exclude all reflection"; that men in the army and navy have been constantly flogged for repeating the same offences, and that he himself, having to follow at Leeds a flogging judge, found the number of cases had considerably increased. The peculiarity of these objections, as has been pointed out in England, is that, so far as they have any force, they apply to all punishment short of death. With regard to the increase of cases after the tour of the flogging-judge, we cannot tell whether the garroting did not become more lively because the garroters got wind of the approach of a non-flogging judge. With regard to all the other objections, they apply to locking a man up in a cell, to forcing him to work with other convicts in gangs, to depriving him of his liberty in any way, and indeed to any punishment short of hanging.

—We printed last week a notice of the first two volumes of 'Records of the Past, being English Translations of the Assyrian and Egyptian Monuments, published under the Sanction of the Society of Biblical Archæology.' The third volume of the series has just come to hand. It contains further translations of Assyrian texts, embracing some of the principal historical and other documents found in the cuneiform inscriptions. "The materials of this volume, like the preceding, have been prepared by different Assyriologists with great care, and those which have appeared elsewhere have been carefully revised and corrected or retranslated." The greater part of the volume is occupied with translations of inscriptions relating the deeds of kings—royal annals, in fact, which contain much that illustrates the social conditions, the arts, and the beliefs of the ancient people. The most curious of these inscriptions are two which relate to Esarhaddon, the son of Sennacherib, and one of the greatest of the kings of Assyria. The first, which is unfortunately imperfect, narrates his proceedings after hearing of the murder of his father—a deed recorded in the Second Book of Kings, xix. 37, and in Isaiah xxxvii. 38. It is an interesting illustration of the narrative in the Bible. The second contains, among other things, a detailed account of the building of the great palace of the king, and is a record of considerable importance for the information it affords concerning Assyrian art. Esarhaddon lived in the seventh century before Christ, and in reading this account of his palace and its splendors, deciphered from the inscription on a hexagonal prism of baked clay, which was found near Nineveh, one can hardly fail to be impressed with the contrast between the transitoriness of the stout and stately edifice, called from its splendor "The Palace which rivals the World," and the durability of the little, fragile hexagon of clay which tells us all we know of it. As Sir Thomas Browne says: "Time, which antiquates antiquities, and hath an art to make dust of all things, hath yet spared these minor monuments. To be unknown was the means of their continuation, and obscurity their protection." The volume contains also an Accadian Liturgy, and some very curious specimens of Assyrian sacred poetry, exorcisms, and charms. The well-deserved success of this series is, we are glad to learn, so great, that a second volume of translations from Egyptian texts and a third volume from Assyrian texts will appear next July. The exceedingly moderate price at which the volumes are sold brings them within the means of all but the starving scholar.

—Dr. John Muir, of Edinburgh, has printed for private circulation, as forerunner and sample of a larger work on which he is engaged, a little brochure of 'Religious and Moral Sentiments, freely translated from Indian Writers.' The translations are in verse, Dr. Muir having shown himself in various ways before a versifier of no mean power in Sanskrit as well as in English. In an appendix he gives his sources, with a literal version of each verse or passage, and with explanatory remarks. A preface discusses the general question of the relation of Indian ethics and their expression to Christian morality and doctrine; and in it the author shows his usual good judgment and sound appreciation of what we may call the principles of comparative religion by arguing against and rejecting the wild and foolish views put forth some years ago by Dr. Lorinser as to the derivation of passages in the Bhagavadgîtâ from Christian sources. It will be long, of course, before men will learn to distinguish accurately between derivations and independent parallel expressions of a common human sentiment; but, except where the cumulative evidence of borrowing is very plain, scepticism as to its existence is by far the safer side to take. We have, it may be added, in Böhtlingk's 'Indische Sprüche,' an immense collection of aphorisms in Sanskrit, on religious and moral as well as other subjects, each with a literal German version subjoined. With an index added (it is arranged alphabetically), it would be—indeed, it is already—a most valuable mine for all interested in such subjects to dig in. Didactic poets innumerable might draw their texts from it.

## SPANISH REFORMERS.*

THE history of the Reformation in Spain yet remains to be written. McCrie's 'Reformation in Spain,' De Castro's history of the Spanish Protestants, and the work now under consideration, are valuable contributions to the subject, but, from the very nature of things, incomplete or partial. Spanish books on all topics are scarce, and, as may be supposed, the Inquisition has done its best to destroy all those relating to the great religious movement of the sixteenth century. So effectually has this been done, and so loud are the Spaniards themselves in their boasts of freedom from heresies against the Romish Church, that many are ignorant of the fact that the Reformation awakened a powerful echo in Spain. The latest Spanish historian, Lafuente, himself a most zealous Catholic (vii. 36, 2d ed. 'Hist. de España'), in speaking of Charles the Fifth and his wish expressed at Yuste that every means should be employed to uproot the growing heresy, remarks:

"If the Emperor's life had been prolonged but a little while, the inquisitorial zeal which he displayed in his latter days would have been satisfied by seeing the Inquisition prosecute so many persons illustrious by their high offices, learning, or family, so many archbishops and bishops, abbots, priests, monks, nuns, marquises and great lords, magistrates, professors, high functionaries of the state, together with tradesmen, artisans, servants, and common people. He would have seen subjected to an inquisitorial process the Archbishops of Granada and Santiago, the Bishops of Lugo, Leon, and Almeria, and distinguished theologians who had shed renown on Spain and the Catholic Church in the Council of Trent. He would also have seen denounced and prosecuted on suspicion of Lutheranism the Primate of the Spanish Church, the Archbishop of Toledo, Bartolomé de Carranza, confessor of Philip II., who had consoled the dying moments of the Emperor at Yuste; and with him he would have seen prosecuted all the prelates and theologians who had approved his 'Comments on the Catechism of Christian Doctrine.'"

This extract from a Catholic writer will show, perhaps, how important the subject is, and how deserving the attention of students of the Reformation. As has been stated in the outset, the book before us is not a complete history of this period, nor does it aim to be. The circumstances under which it was written are somewhat peculiar and interesting. Benjamin Barron Wiffen was born, in 1794, of an English Quaker family. His elder brother was the J. H. Wiffen favorably known by his translations of Tasso and Garcilaso de la Vega. In 1839, Benjamin became acquainted with a Spanish gentleman, Luis de Usóz y Rio, who had become interested in a translation of Barclay's 'Apology,' and, knowing that J. H. Wiffen, the translator of Garcilaso, was a Quaker, resolved (should he go to London) to find him out, and learn more about the Society of Friends. When he came to London, he learned that J. H. Wiffen was dead. The surviving brother heard of the enquiries the Spanish gentleman had made, and called upon him. This chance acquaintance ripened into a lifelong friendship, and entirely changed the tenor of Wiffen's life. In 1839 he went to Spain with his friend G. W. Alexander, in order to promote the effectual abolition of the slave-trade and slavery. He made another visit on the same errand in 1843. His niece says in her memoir:

"On this visit he became still more intimate with his Spanish friends, and yet more deeply interested in all that related to Spain, her literature,

* 'Bibliotheca Wiffeniana. Spanish Reformers of Two Centuries from 1520. Their Lives and Writings, according to the late Benjamin B. Wiffen's Plan, and with the use of his Materials. Described by Edward Boehmer, D.D., Ph.D., Ordinary Professor of the Romance Languages in the University of Strassburg. First Volume. With B. B. Wiffen's narrative of the incidents attendant upon the republication of 'Reformistas Antiguos Españoles,' and with a Memoir of B. B. Wiffen by Isaline Wiffen.' Strassburg and London: Trübner. 1874.

and her martyrs for the truth. From this period his literary pursuits gradually assumed a definite form, and the discovery by him of the 'Alfabeto Christiano' of Juan de Valdés (which had been lost for the last three centuries), led to the restoration and reprinting of the various and unknown writings of that author, as well as of numerous other valuable religious works, which furnished a delightful and interesting study, and became for twenty-five years the absorbing interest of his life."

During this time Wiffen was indefatigable in the collection and copying of the works of the early Spanish reformers. This material he placed at the disposal of his friend Luis de Usóz y Rio, who employed it in the series entitled 'Reformistas Antiguos Españoles' (Madrid, 1847–1865, twenty volumes). He died soon after the last volume was published, and Wiffen did not long survive his friend, dying in 1867. It had been his hope for many years that Don Luis would compile a manual of the lives and works of the Spanish reformers from the time of Erasmus. This hope was blighted by Don Luis's death, and Wiffen was obliged to depend henceforth upon himself, he being then upwards of seventy years old. He was prevented by death from completing this work, but left considerable material for it Edward Boehmer, the well-known German scholar, was then requested to prepare for the press the bibliographical notes and memoirs left by Wiffen. This task has been executed in a masterly manner, and the work will be indispensable to those interested in the literature of the Reformation.

The first volume, the only one yet issued, contains a memoir of Wiffen by his niece, a narrative of the incidents attendant upon the republication of the 'Reformistas Antiguos Españoles,' the memoirs of Alfonso and Juan de Valdés, Franzisco and Jaime de Enzinas, Juan Diaz, and an admirable bibliography of their works. The memoirs of the early Spanish reformers are full of interest; as has been hinted at the beginning of this notice, we shall find among them names of those high in church and state. The first one mentioned by Wiffen, Alfonso Valdés, was an Imperial Secretary of State under Charles the Fifth, whom he accompanied on many of his journeys, and on one of them he became acquainted with Melanchthon and other reformers. Among his works is an interesting letter on the sack of Rome, written to vindicate the Emperor and to prove that terrible catastrophe to have been a retribution upon the sins of the Papal city. Alfonso died in 1532 of the plague at Vienna. His twin brother, Juan, had more leisure for his literary labors. He did not feel safe in Spain, and established himself permanently about 1533 at Naples, where he wrote his masterly 'Dialogue on the Language' (*i.e.*, the Spanish), a work of high authority. Among his pupils and friends was the beautiful Julia Gonzaga, for whom he wrote his 'Christian Alphabet,' and to whom he dedicated a translation of the Psalms, now unfortunately lost. He also dedicated to the same person commentaries on Romans and First Corinthians. The text he translated himself, and to him belongs the honor of being the first person to undertake a translation of the Bible from the original languages into Spanish. Valdés's most important work, however, is his celebrated 'Hundred and Ten Divine Considerations,' which work was translated by John T. Betts, Wiffen's intimate friend, and edited by the latter with an exhaustive life of the author (London: B. Quaritch. 1865.) Valdés died in 1541, enjoying to the last the friendship of the most distinguished Italian divines, who saw no fault in his life or writings.

The next mentioned reformer is Francesco de Enzinas (who changed his name after the prevailing fashion into the Greek form Dryander), the author of the first complete translation of the Bible, which he dedicated to Charles the Fifth. The Emperor's confessor threw difficulties in the way of its publication, and caused the translator's imprisonment. He escaped, however, was for a time a guest of Melanchthon, travelled much, and became professor of Greek at Cambridge. He did not remain there long, and died at Strassburg in 1552. His brother Jaime embraced the doctrines of Protestantism, and was burned at Rome in 1547.

The final memoir is that of Juan Diaz, chiefly known by his tragical death, which created an intense excitement all over Europe. He became a Protestant at the University of Paris, whither he had gone in 1539 to study theology, and afterwards settled in Switzerland. His elder brother Alfonso, employed in the court of the Rota at Rome, heard of his change of religious views, and immediately started for Ratisbon, accompanied by a man who had formerly been an executioner. The brothers met at Neuberg, and Alfonso used all his endeavors to persuade Juan to return to the Romish Church or to accompany him to Italy. Failing in his efforts, he departed and returned the next morning with his satellite, who, with an axe purchased for the purpose the day before, killed Juan Diaz as he was reading a letter from his unnatural brother. Alfonso was arrested at Innsbruck, but afterwards, on the Pope's demand, sent to Rome. It does not appear that he was ever punished; at all events, he was at liberty a few years afterwards and in Spain. It is some satisfaction to know that Alfonso's conscience was not so easy upon this matter as some others. He hanged himself at Trent in 1551.

We shall look with interest for the next instalment of this valuable work, which will doubtless throw more light upon the progress made by the reformed doctrines in Spain.

---

*Manual of Political Ethics*, designed chiefly for the use of Colleges and Students at Law. By Francis Lieber. Two volumes. Second edition, revised. Edited by Theodore D. Woolsey. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875.)—In taking up this new edition of Dr. Lieber's well-known work, we have only to repeat the expression of regret to which we gave utterance when noticing the 'Civil Liberty' last June—that the editor, Dr. Woolsey, should not have taken a broader view of his duties, and should not have made full and frequent additions to the notes. We say this as much in the interest of Dr. Lieber's memory as in that of the generation of students which is now using his books; for there is hardly a page of this one which would not bear copious illustration from the history of the thirty-seven years which have elapsed since the appearance of the first edition. There have not been many periods, if any, in modern history so fruitful in experience. We do not say so eventful, be it remarked, but so fruitful in experience. There may have been other periods in which more startling occurrences and more widely-felt changes have taken place, but there has been none of the same length in which the value of so many political theories has been put to the test, and in which so many opinions on important political problems have undergone revision in the light of actual facts. In going through Dr. Lieber's book, therefore, with recent history fresh in one's memory, one might, considering the number and variety of the topics he discusses, and the distinctness with which, in addressing young men, he is compelled to express himself, fairly expect to light upon a large number of disabled arguments and falsified anticipations. But nothing in the book is more remarkable than the way in which his positions have stood the test of subsequent experiment and elucidation. We have looked carefully for passages which the recent advances in historical criticism and sociological research, or the political experience of this country or of Western Europe, might have deprived of their value, and we confess we have not found one. This is as striking a proof as we could offer of the soundness of Dr. Lieber's ethical speculations, of the general accuracy and variety of his learning, and of the acuteness of his political sense. He was essentially a healthy-minded man. He stood squarely on his feet on the solid earth, and his book therefore wears as few books or none of the kind have ever done.

If, therefore, the editor had found time, or had deemed it a part of his duty, to apply the author's maxims and predictions to the events even of our own country during the last twenty years, he would not only have greatly increased the value of the book for political students, but have given additional lustre to Dr. Lieber's reputation. We trust some one may be found hereafter willing to undertake this task; whether anybody of equal competency will be found is more than doubtful. Of the value of just such an application of Dr. Lieber's lessons there can unhappily be little question. A generation has come on the stage since the outbreak of the Civil War which has lost its hold on many of the most valuable traditions of Anglo-Saxon politics, and which has learnt to set but little store on many of the ethical foundations which the men of an earlier time deemed essential to the national safety and welfare. Reading Dr. Lieber amid the discussions of our own day is like drinking at the old fountains from which those who conceived the great fabric of Anglo-Saxon liberty drew their inspiration.

The fault of this book, as of Dr. Lieber's other works, is discursiveness. His memory was very tenacious, his reading very wide, and his store of illustration very rich. The temptation, therefore, to ramble in the byways of a various learning he was very apt to find irresistible. That this has, however, ensured the attractiveness of his works for the class for which it was intended we have little doubt; that it has somewhat diminished their weight as scientific works is, in these days of rigid classification and precise definition, perhaps also true. But if Dr. Lieber had had more capacity for scientific arrangement he would probably have had less success as a preacher. A more taking guide through the tortuous paths of political casuistry no young man could have. He touches nothing without throwing a light on it drawn from many periods and many nations; and then his sympathy with all the nobler emotions of human history, and his hatred for everything which can darken or debase it, are so hearty and genuine, that in listening to him one almost wonders that goodness and purity have had so hard a battle to fight.

---

*Social Pressure.* By Sir Arthur Helps, K.C.B. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875.)—This volume from the pen of Sir Arthur Helps, the

news of whose death has just come to us, is a characteristic and agreeable last bequest of its author. It belongs to the somewhat voluminous series of 'Friends in Council,' of which the philosophy is not very deep, but, so far as it goes, very clear and very sound; the gayety, the humor, rather mild, but very constant, and in perfectly good taste. It is genial common-sense and intelligence, a trifle diluted, but not fatally so, applied to what we may call episodical questions—secondary questions, questions by no means trivial, but not of the first importance. The number and variety of the questions which Sir Arthur Helps touches upon are very great; he has remarkable fertility of suggestion and invention. We must repeat, too, what we had occasion to say above, in our general characterization of him and of his works, that, if his sense is of the more strictly common-sense category, his style is decidedly above the common.

"If you ever make use of our essays and lucubrations," says one of Sir Arthur Helps's interlocutors, "take this as your title to them: 'Social Pressure.' It is vague, sounds important, does not tell too much, and, at any rate, it keeps clear of politics. You need not say from where the pressure comes; each reader will suppose that it comes from himself." "I have often dared to think," says another, "what an advantage it would be to this country if Parliamentary discussions were put aside for two or three years, and the attention of the country were directed to administration. . . . Do you not agree with me that there is an enormous deal to be done in those branches of human effort which have nothing whatever to do with the redistribution of political power, with theological matters, or with any of those questions which are abundant in strife, and which produce very little improvement for the great masses of mankind?" The topics discussed by the "Friends" are for the most part chosen in accordance with this suggestion, although many of them are of a simply ethical sort. "That towns may be too large," on the one hand, and on the other hand that they may not (we ourselves, much as we like an immense city, incline, on the author's showing, to the former view); that it should not be an invariable fashion that offices of state be occupied by men who have been in Parliament; that England should by all means keep hold of her colonies; that the horror of "paternal government" may be overdone; that "never is paternal government so needful as when civilization is most advanced"—these are some of the subjects on which the intelligent little circle imagined by Sir Arthur Helps exchanges opinions, with a certain humorous, dramatic friction. It strikes out more sparks from these quasi-practical matters than when it falls to moralizing, to discussing "Ridicule," "Over-publicity," "Looking Back in Life." But, on the whole, it is very pleasant company, and most readers will regret that we are not to meet it again.

---

*Architecture for General Students.* By Caroline W. Horton. With descriptive illustrations. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1874. 16mo, pp. 287.)—This little volume is the work of a person of some reading and some intelligence, but with not enough of either for the difficult task she took upon herself. The book shows that its author has no real acquaintance with the subject with which she deals. It is full of confusion of ideas and of metaphors. Take for example the following sentence: "Then [*i.e.*, in the early part of the XVIIIth century] began the great fermentation which culminated in a general revolution in 1848, has produced the abolition of slavery in America, and is still going on, but we trust with such accumulation of force that it may be able to untie the remaining knots of social and political life rather than resort to Alexander's method of severing them" (p. 240). Facts often fare but little better than figures with the writer. On the same page—we need not go further for an illustration—it is said: "In 1752, James Stuart began to publish the result of his labors in 'Athenian Antiquities,' while in 1796 Winckelmann gave to the world his wonderful 'History of Art.'" But the real facts are that in 1752 Stuart was still at Athens, and the first volume of his book was not published till 1761. Winckelmann's 'History of Art' appeared in 1764. On the next page there are more mistakes. In fact, the book seems as untrustworthy as it is superficial. It is not worth while exhibiting its defects at length.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* | |
|---|---|---|
| Crawford (Rev. T. J.), Doctrine of Holy Scripture respecting the Atonement, 2d ed ... | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) | $4 50 |
| Capel (Mons.), Reply to Gladstone's Political Expostulation, swd... | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Disturnell (J.), U. S. Register; or, Blue Book for 1875 | (T. Ellwood Zell) | |
| Ellis (A. J.), Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin | (Macmillan & Co.) | |
| Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th ed., Vol. I., A-Ana | (Little, Brown & Co.) | |
| Fairfield (F. G.), Ten Years with Spiritual Mediums | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Forney (M. N.), Catechism of the Locomotive | (New York) | 2 50 |
| Fraser-Tytler (C. C.), Mistress Judith: a Tale | (Henry Holt & Co.) | 1 25 |
| Frey (Prof. H.), Histology and Histochemistry of Man | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Gannett (W. C.), Ezra Stiles Gannett, 1824-1871 | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Helps (Sir A.), Social Pressure | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Hotze (C. L.), First Lessons in Physiology | (Central Pub. Co.) | |
| Kiepert (H.), New Wall-map of Palestine, swd | (E. Steiger) | |
| Kinahan (G. H.), Valleys, and their Relation to Fissures, Fractures, and Faults, swd... | (John Wiley & Son) | |
| Ladd (Hill), The Madonna in Christian Art, swd | (New Haven) | |
| Prescott (W. H.), Robertson's Charles the Fifth, Vol. 3 | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Parkman (F.), Les Pionniers Français dans l'Amérique du Nord, swd. (F. W. Christern) | | |
| Robinson's Junior-class Arithmetic | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) | $0 80 |
| Reid (C.), Hearts and Hands, swd | (D. Appleton & Co.) | 0 50 |
| Russell (Lord John), Recollections and Suggestions, 1813-1873 | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Roy (G.), Generalship: How I Managed my Husband | (Robt. Clarke & Co.) | 1 00 |
| Riddle (A. G.), Alice Brand: a Tale | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Smith (Dr. E.), Health | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Schmidt (Prof. O.), Descent and Darwinism | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| The Rainbow Creed: a Tale | (W. F. Gill & Co.) | |
| Weeden (W. B.), The Morality of Prohibitory Liquor Laws | (Roberts Bros.) | |
| Walsingham (Charlotte), Annette: a Tale | (Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) | 1 75 |
| Wahl (O. W.), The Land of the Czar | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) | 5 25 |
| Westminster (Archbishop of), The Vatican Decrees and Civil Allegiance, swd | (Cath. Pub. Soc.) | 0 50 |

---

# Fine Arts.

## MADAME RISTORI.

WITH due recognition of the fact that Madame Ristori has entered into the final twilight, as we may call it, of her brilliant career, her appearance is yet incomparably the most important theatrical occurrence of the winter. Nothing that we can at present produce from our own resources is worthy of even a minute share of the consideration which people of taste feel prompted to offer this great foreign artist. One would rather this were not so; but so unfortunately it is. Madame Ristori's return to America is marked by circumstances not especially conciliatory. She is making, professionally, the circuit of the civilized world, and her *impedimenta*, of all kinds, have been selected with an eye to light weight. She reappears, too, after having bidden us farewell with some solemnity—an act in which there is always a certain awkwardness. But Madame Ristori, as an actress, is before all things stately, and her stateliness surmounts the disadvantage of a superlatively shabby *mise en scène*, a meagre company, and a somewhat surprised welcome. She apparently—probably very wisely—confines herself to a limited round of characters, and she offers us only one part in which she has not hitherto appeared. Fortunately, the parts left in her repertory are the strongest ones, and those which have done most to make her famous. She is indissolubly associated with the picturesque stage-figures of Medea and Mary Stuart, and though the strong coloring of these representations has suffered somewhat from the chill of years, they keep their place, in all essentials, among the most accomplished pieces of acting of our time. There are, indeed, things in each of them which it is safe to say the stage has never seen surpassed. Those who remember Madame Ristori twenty years ago may be conscious that here and there the execution drags a little; but young spectators should be assured that in witnessing the last act of "Mary Stuart," or certain of the great points in "Medea," they are looking at a supreme exhibition of the grand style of acting. No one whom we have seen, or are likely to see in this country, can interpret tragedy in the superbly large way of Madame Ristori—can distribute effects into such powerful masses. The abundance of her natural gifts makes the usual clever actress seem a wofully slender personage, and the extreme refinement of her art renders our most knowing devices, of native growth, unspeakably crude and puerile. Madame Ristori has the fortune to come of the great artistic race—the race in whom the feeling of the picturesque is a common instinct, and the gift of personal expression so ample that, even when quite uncultivated, it begins where our laborious attempts in the same line terminate. Coming thus of a pre-eminently expressive and demonstrative race, and watched by a peculiarly undemonstrative and impressive public—a public among whom gesture, inflection of voice, and play of feature are comparatively unknown—it is natural that Madame Ristori should seem very often to exaggerate, to grimace, to tear a passion to tatters. It is very possible, too, that playing so much in foreign countries, to audiences ignorant of her language—audiences for whom the meaning is to be driven home *vi et armis*—has had the effect of imparting to the whole method of the actress a coarseness against which the constant presence of a really critical public would have been a protest. Unfortunately, the most artistic race in the world is not able to pay largely for its pleasure, and Italian actors and singers are almost of necessity wanderers and exiles. This fact, if one reflects upon it, gives a rather melancholy background to one's admiration at the Lyceum just now. Of course, Madame Ristori, making the "farewell tour of the world," acquires fame on an immense scale and, on a somewhat commensurate scale, it is to be hoped, that grosser profit for which it smooths the way. But surely, looking at the thing the least bit from the ideal point of view, there is an essential dreariness in this great artist's expending her powers so exclusively upon populations for whom half of them are of necessity wasted. Between herself and her audience there is a gulf—a gulf which she certainly bravely does her

best to overleap, and which is kept open by no ill-will on the spectators' part, but by the inexorable difference of race, of language, of national temperament. She is judged altogether from the outside—from a distance; and as she sweeps to and fro through all the variations of her art, she seems hardly more than a sort of magnificent curiosity. The "nature" that she represents is not the nature of the house.

But Madame Ristori's great merit—a merit that abundantly covers her defects, such as they are—is one that is perhaps especially appreciable here. She has *style*. The quality is so rare upon the English-speaking stage—especially, it is painful to observe, among the actresses—that one should make the most of any suggestion of it. It is the result in Madame Ristori of a combination of fine elements—her admirable stage presence, her incomparable language, and the peculiarly *masterly* way—the firmness, the certainty, the assurance—with which she deals with her part. Her Mary Stuart is full of style; the whole manner in which the part is "composed" to the eye is one of the great things of the stage. The intellectual conception, we think, is not particularly elevated; it is the natural woman simply—the woman of temper, the woman who talks loud, who struggles, hates, revenges, who is quite untouched by what Matthew Arnold calls "sweet reasonableness." But the part is superbly worn, and the last act is rendered as no one but Madame Ristori could render it. The expression of dignity here reaches a great height. No one but Madame Ristori could manage the farewell to her weeping servants, could gather the group about her, and handle it, as one may say, with that picturesque majesty. It is realism, especially in the closing moments, of a downright pattern; but it is realism harmonized by a great artistic instinct. Madame Ristori's "Elizabeth" is, in a manner, her *cheval de bataille*, but we have never liked the part. There are wonderfully skilful things in it, and it is an extraordinary piece of elaboration; but it is a thing made, as we say, for uncritical publics, painted with a big brush to be seen at a distance. It is better liked, probably, in New York than in Paris; it will be better liked in San Francisco than in New York, and it will make a *furor* in Australia. The objections to Madame Ristori's "Medea" are obvious; the lady is too much of a termagant—no wonder poor Jason would not go back to her. But the part is a dense tissue of superb action, and there are strokes in it—of tone, of attitude, of gesture, of facial play—any single one of which would make the fortune of a slighter artist. In "Lucrezia Borgia," which Madame Ristori plays now for the first time in America, she has not found, to our sense, a very happy opportunity. The part is a hideous one, and it has the drawback that its climax, in its pursuit of the terrible, very distinctly grazes the ludicrous. We have heard it said that the way she plays it is a proof of enfeebled vigor. It seems to us, on the contrary, that she renders it with an energy quite adequate to its demands for vehemence, but that her acting is rather wanting in *finesse*. In the long scene with the Duke, in which there is a fine chance in the way of high comedy, she has some masterly touches, but the whole thing strikes us as too high pitched, and, here and there, as rather roughly executed. We should say, too, that the last words of the play, when Lucretia has been stabbed by her son—"Gennaro, I am thy mother!"—would, as constituting its tragic consummation, be much more effective if delivered standing—discharged at him with passionate reproach. But these are details. In a general way one goes to see Madame Ristori with a serene certainty of observing a dramatic temperament of unsurpassable power, seconded by a language which gives to speech a lovely dignity, independent of its meaning.


JUST PUBLISHED.

*Lectures on the Early History of Institutions.*

By SIR HENRY SUMNER MAINE,

Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence in the University of Oxford

8vo, cloth, $3.

*Ancient Law.*

Its Connection with the Early History of Society, and its Relation to Modern Ideas. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. New edition. 8vo, cloth, uniform with the above. $3.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS:

*AFRICA:*

The History of Explorations and Adventures, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

*MISTRESS JUDITH.*

A Cambridgeshire story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler. With an Illustration. Second edition now ready. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

*FAR FROM THE MADDING* Crowd. By Thomas Hardy. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*A WINTER IN RUSSIA.* By Theophile Gautier. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*THREE ESSAYS ON RELIGION.* By John Stuart Mill. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Complete in Five Parts.

*Smith's Historical Atlas.*

An Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical. Compiled under the superintendence of Dr. William Smith and Mr. George Grove.

This magnificent and valuable work is now completed in Five Parts. It contains forty-two large and beautiful Maps and complete Indexes.

"The whole work is a splendid specimen of what can be achieved by learned labor and technical skill."—*London Athenæum.*

Price $7 per Part.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., PUBLISHERS,

BOSTON.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

*MACMILLAN'S "READER"* (*Page 196*) *touches upon 'Christ and Other Masters,' by Archdeacon Hardwick; 'New Testament Canon,' by Dr. Westcott; Davies's 'Christian Calling'; and the first volume of a new Translation of the Gospels by McClellan.*

WIDDLETON'S "BOOKS FOR THE LIBRARY."

*Hallam.*—A handsome edition of his complete works, revised and corrected, in ten volumes (crown 8vo), as follows: 'The Middle Ages,' three volumes ($5 25); 'The Introduction to the Literature of Europe,' four volumes ($7); and 'The Constitutional History of England,' three volumes ($5 25). Bound in cloth, the price of the complete set is $17 50; in half-calf, $30. Uniform with it is May's 'Constitutional History of England' (a continuation of Hallam), of which there are two volumes ($3 50).

*Disraeli.*—The elder Disraeli's works, in this edition, make up nine volumes: 'The Curiosities of Literature,' four volumes ($7), 'The Amenities' and 'The Calamities of Authors,' each two volumes ($3 50), and 'The Literary Character,' one volume ($2 25). Any work may be obtained separately; the price for the entire set is $15 (cloth) and $30 (half-calf). The books are of toned paper, printed with large type.

*Lamb.*—A choice edition of Charles Lamb's works, edited by Talford, in five volumes crown 8vo, price $9, and half-calf, $15. In this edition is the Memoir and a steel portrait of Lamb.

*The Noctes Ambrosianæ.* A handsome Library edition in six volumes 8vo ($10 50 and $20), giving portraits of Prof. Wilson, Lockhart, Hogg, and Dr. Maginn, and containing the life of Wilson by his daughter.

*Milman.*—This is an octavo edition in fourteen volumes ($24 50 and $49), large type and toned paper: Three volumes ($5 25) each of 'The History of the Jews' and 'The History of Christianity,' and eight volumes ($14) of 'The History of Latin Christianity.'

Our catalogue, giving particulars of these editions and of other choice works, will be sent free on application; or the books themselves will be sent by mail or express on receipt of price.

W. J. WIDDLETON, Publisher,

27 Howard Street, New York City.

*R. WORTHINGTON & CO.,*

750 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Just Received:

*PROFESSOR PROCTOR'S ACCOUNT OF THE TRANSIT OF VENUS.*

Numerous Illustrations. Crown 8vo, cloth, $3.

*GREVILLE MEMOIRS.*

Best Edition. 3 vols. 8vo, cloth, $12.

*CHAMBERS'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA.*

New (English) Edition. Maps and Plates. 10 vols. royal 8vo, cloth, $30.

THE

*Children's Picture-Roll*

is a publication on the Silent Comforter plan, namely, a roll of

THIRTY-ONE LARGE PICTURES,

with accompanying stories in large type, to be hung up in the Nursery or family-room. We mean it when we say that every house with one child or more in it should have such a roll. It has an inexhaustible charm for young eyes.—*Congregationalist.*

Sent post-paid on receipt of $1 50.

A large variety of

CHILDREN'S MAGAZINES,

all profusely illustrated. Specimens of ten sent post-paid for 50 cents; also, specimens of seven magazines and instruction-books forthe use of Sunday-school Teachers and Bible-class Students sent post-paid on receipt of 50 cents.

CHARLES F. ROPER,
Publisher and Importer,
52 Fourth Avenue, New York.

*THE GLOBE DICTIONARY OF* the English Language is wanted on every desk and in all libraries, because it is printed from large, new type; has over five hundred wood engravings; words and phrases from the Greek, Latin, and Modern Foreign Languages. Alphabetically arranged, and French phrases spelt phonetically. A concise account of the chief deities, heroes, etc., in the Greek and Roman mythology. An alphabetical list of the proper names in the Old and New Testaments, with the meaning of the words in the original languages. Prefixes and affixes. Abbreviations used in writing and printing. Also arbitrary signs used in writing and printing.

1 vol. 12mo, cloth, gilt, $1 75.

Sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, by

ESTES & LAURIAT,

Boston, Mass.

# The Reader.

THEOLOGICAL TREATISES.—'CHRIST AND OTHER MASTERS,' BY ARCHDEACON HARDWICK.—'HISTORY OF THE CANON OF THE NEW TESTAMENT,' BY DR. WESTCOTT.—'THE CHRISTIAN CALLING,' BY DAVIES.—THE GOSPELS NEWLY TRANSLATED BY MCCLELLAN.

The Ven. Archdeacon Hardwick, in his work on 'Christ and Other Masters,' has made a careful examination of the religions of Egypt, Medo-Persia, India, and China, and even of America and Oceanica, with a special reference to Christianity, and to the question whether the Jewish and Christian faith is original or derivative. A more elevated and generous estimate of the old heathen priestcrafts has seldom been made, while the triumphant superiority of Christianity emerges with new clearness from the temperate comparison The time has gone by when it is necessary, for the vindication of Christian faith, to treat with scorn the efforts of those who founded the primitive and uninspired religions, to cast opprobrium on their expressive myths, and call by the incorrect name of "stone gods" the symbolic images which were rather the literature and demonstration of their creeds. The grandeur of idea underlying the religions of India and Egypt could hardly be better expressed by Indian or Egyptian priests in person than it is by the author, yet their waning importance when brought up to Christianity for contrast is shown in clearest terms. The Ven. Archdeacon begins with a lucid exposition of the unity of our race, and a review of modern religious tendencies, introducing logically the grand historical tableau of moral development which forms the body of the work. Only a bold scholar would undertake so vast a study of comparative ethics; only a skilled reasoner and a practical Biblist could gather this study in his hand and hold it forth as a testimony to the incomparable superiority of Christian teaching.

The 'History of the New Testament Canon' is examined by Dr. Brooke Foss Westcott, and seems to be exhaustive, as far as so vexed a subject can be exhaustively presented. The sifting of the mass of gospels and epistles, which claimed equal rank in the early centuries of our era, has been a work on which the greatest minds of the church have anxiously labored. The books now collected in our Testaments as Canonical are the result of all this labor, and in most cases their claim is clear, as against those which have been rejected as apocryphal. But our present age of fierce critical activity has sifted the whole matter over and over again with incredible acumen, and the labors, not only of sceptical but of orthodox philosophers, have given fresh interest to a general review of this work of selection. Every manuscript, every copy, every interpolation and mistranslation is now the matter of a new theory of Christianity on the part of some German student or native schismatic; the learned patience with which so many knotty points are examined is a great credit to Dr. Westcott, and the book he has written is a real aid to the theologian who is obliged to combat in the sceptical warfare of the time. The author's fourth edition gives him opportunity to discuss the animadversions of his critics in a new and interesting Preface.

'The Christian Calling' is the collective title given to some recent sermons delivered at Scarborough and other places by Rev. J. Llewellyn Davies, author of a number of theological books which have excited the attention of Christian readers. Ten of the sermons included in this course form a continuous series on the twofold aspect of the distinctive Christian virtues, towards God and towards mankind. The other dis courses are more practical, while hardly less theoretical, and deal in a fresh and helpful way with the daily besetting difficulties of this modern life of ours. Sometimes, as in discussing the question whether certain Pharisaic types of the nineteenth century congregation would not do better to stay away from church, and whether the wealth, energy, and inventive activity of the age are not irreconcilable with the Galilean spirit, the writer shows wonderful boldness and originality; but it is an admitted fact that we like best the sermons which give the greatest shock to our complacency.

A labor of vast difficulty and industry, a new translation of the Testament, has been undertaken by Mr. John Brown McClellan, M.A., and the first volume, ending with the Gospel of St. John, is published by Macmillan & Co. The author of this version discusses, in abundant notes and appendices, the grave difficulties of his task, and the matters considered in his remarks are such as to arouse again in the liveliest manner the many vexed questions about New Testament meanings and discrepancies. Sometimes the translator finds it impossible to satisfy himself, as when he renders the celebrated and unique word ἐπιούσιον by "needful"—"needful bread"—while confessing that he has not been able to find a full equivalent. Mr. McClellan gives proof of learning and diligence, and his translation, kept as close as possible to the King James version, will interest the general reader, while the discussions in his notes will attract the Biblical scholar.


# MACMILLAN & Co.'s PUBLICATIONS.

**Books for Clergymen, Theological Students, and other Readers of Religious Literature.**

*THE NEW TESTAMENT OF OUR* Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. A new translation on the basis of the Authorized Version, from a critically-revised Greek Text, newly arranged in paragraphs, with analyses, copious references, and illustrations from original authorities; new chronological and analytical harmony of the Four Gospels; notes and dissertations. A contribution to Christian Evidence. By John Brown McClellan, M.A., Vicar of Bottisham, Rural Dean of North Camps, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. In two volumes. Vol. I. The Four Gospels, with the Chronological and Analytical Harmony. 8vo, pp. xcii., 763, price $12.

*A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE* History of the Canon of the New Testament. By Brooke Foss Westcott, D.D., Regius Professor of Divinity, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, Canon of Peterborough. Fourth edition (1875), with a new Preface on 'Supernatural Religion.' Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*A GENERAL VIEW OF THE HIS-* tory of the English Bible. By B. F. Westcott, D.D., etc. Second edition. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*AN INTRODUCTION TO THE* Study of the Gospels. By B. F. Westcott, D.D., etc. Fourth edition. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

*THE BIBLE IN THE CHURCH.* A Popular Account of the Collection and Reception of the Holy Scriptures in the Christian Churches. New edition. 18mo, $1 25.

*CHRIST AND OTHER MASTERS.* An Historical Inquiry into some of the chief differences, parallelisms, and contrasts between Christianity and the Religious Systems of the Ancient World. By the Venerable Archdeacon Hardwick. Third Edition. Edited, with Memoir, by the Rev. F. Proctor, M.A. Crown 8vo, $3.

*THE APOSTOLIC FATHERS:* A Critical Account of their Genuine Writings and of their Doctrines. By James Donaldson, LL.D. Crown 8vo, $3.

*THE CHRISTIAN CALLING.* By the Rev. J. Llewellyn Davies, M.A., Rector of Christ Church, of Marylebone. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 75.

*BOY-LIFE:* Its Trial, Its Strength, Its Fulness. Sundays at Wellington College, 1859–1873. By G W. Benson, Master. Crown 8vo, $2 50.

*THE WITNESS OF HISTORY TO* Christ. Being the Hulsean Lectures for 1870. By the Rev. F. W. Farrar, Head Master of Marlborough College, and Hon. Chaplain to the Queen. Crown 8vo, $1 50.

*THE FALL OF MAN,* and other Sermons. By the Rev. F. W. Farrar, M.A. Second edition. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 50.

*CATHOLIC REFORM* By Father Hyacinthe. Letters, Fragments, Discourses. Translated by Madame Hyacinthe-Loyson. With a Preface by Dean Stanley. Crown 8vo, $2.

*WESTMINSTER SERMONS.* By the Rev. Charles Kingsley, M.A., late Rector of Eversley, and Canon of Westminster. Popular edition. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 50.

"The prominent characteristics of these sermons are, freshness of thought, boldness of expression, a clear and sometimes powerful presentation of the living truth, a desire to establish a connection between the Gospel and the world's present needs, and to make men see that God as a real personal being now governs and works in his universe."—*The Churchman.*

*SERMONS PREACHED AT MAN-* chester. By Alexander Maclaren. 3 vols. fcap. 8vo, each $1 50.

"Vigorous in style, full of thought, rich in illustration, and in an unusual degree interesting."—*Spectator* (*London*).

*BIBLE TEACHINGS IN NATURE.* By the Rev. Hugh Macmillan. Eighth edition. Extra fcap. 8vo, $2.

*PROPHETS AND KINGS OF THE* Old Testament. By the Rev. F. D. Maurice, late Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Cambridge. Crown 8vo, $3 50

*SERMONS PREACHED IN COUN-* try Churches. By the Rev. F. D. Maurice, M.A., etc. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

"Earnest, practical, and extremely simple."—*Literary Churchman* (*London*).

*A Full List of the Works of the late Professor Maurice may be had on application.*

*SERMONS PREACHED FOR THE* most part in Ireland. By R. Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin. 8vo, $3 50.

*THE CHURCH OF THE FIRST* Days. By the Rev. C. J. Vaughan, D.D., Master of the Temple. First Series, 'The Church of Jerusalem,' fcp. 8vo, $1 25. Second Series. 'The Church of the Gentiles' (new edition, 1875), fcp. 8vo, $1 25. Third Series, 'The Church of the World,' fcp. 8vo, $1 25.

"These sermons are worthy of all praise as models of pulpit teaching."—*British Quarterly Review.*

*SERMONS PREACHED IN THE* Chapel of Rugby School. By F. Temple, D.D., Bishop of Exeter, late Head-master of Rugby. 3 vols., extra fcp. 8vo, each $1 50.

**New Books on Various Subjects.**

*THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF BI-* shop Patteson. By C. M. Yonge, author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' Third and cheaper edition, with two portraits. 2 vols., crown 8vo, $5.

*THE STORY OF A FELLOW-SOL-* dier. An Account of the Life and Missionary Labors of the Rt. Rev. John Coleridge Patteson, D.D., Bishop of the Melanesian Islands. By Frances Awdry. With six Illustrations. Globe 8vo, $1 50.

*THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK* for 1875. A Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Hand-book for Politicians and Merchants. By Frederick Martin. (Twelfth Annual Publication.) Revised after Official Returns. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

"The 'Year-book' has become one of the institutions of the country. We find no fault in it this year."—*Athenæum, Feb.* 27, 1875.

*L. VON RANKE'S HISTORY OF* England, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated from the German. 6 vols. 8vo, $24.

"This work of a veteran historian, whose fame is European, is worthy of his reputation."—*Athenæum.*

*A SUMMARY OF MODERN HIS-* tory. Translated from the French of M. Michelet, and continued to the present time, by M. C. M. Simpson. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 75.

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENG-* lish People. By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. With Chronological and Genealogical Tables and Colored Maps. Cr. 8vo, $2.

"We know of no record of the whole drama of English history to be compared with it. We know none that is so distinctly a work of genius. . . . Mr. Green's volume is a really wonderful production. There is a freshness and originality breathing from one end to the other, a charm of style, and a power, both narrative and descriptive, which lifts it altogether out of the class of books to which at first sight it might seem to belong."—*Pall Mall Gazette* (*London*).

*PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAM-* mar. By the Rev. R. Morris, M.A., LL.D., President of the Philological Society, author of 'Historical Outlines of English Accidence.' 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper cover, 30 cents. (Forming the first volume of a new series of history and Literature Primers. Edited by J. R. Green, M.A.)

*BRITISH WILD FLOWERS,* Considered in Relation to Insects. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. With numerous illustrations. Crown 8vo, $1 50. [Nature Series.

*SCANDINAVIAN HISTORY.* By E. C. Otté. With Maps. Globe 8vo, $2 50.

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo, $4.

"This excellent and very welcome volume."—*Athenæum.*

*THE THREE DEVILS*—Luther's, Milton's, Goethe's. With Other Essays. By David Masson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $1 75.

**THE LATEST NOVELS.**

*THE HARBOUR BAR.* A Tale of Scottish Life. 12mo, paper, $1.

"Bright, picturesque, and true to life. . . . The story is readable and pleasant from first to last, growing in interest as it proceeds, and everywhere showing that the author is really at home in all the vivid scenes which she describes."—*The Standard* (*London*).

"The writer knows the Scotch people, and in handling the characters which belong to the little fishing village, the events are made so consonant with the proper elimination of the story that the scenes become deeply interesting without any apparent attempt at dramatic effect."—*Sunday Times.*

"Upon the working out of Elsie's character, the author has expended the more labor, and with good results, too; for rarely in fiction is there to be met with a more perfectly finished picture of a true-hearted, unselfish woman. . . . The description of the terrible catastrophe of the storm on the Harbour Bar is perfect in its graphic vigor and intensity."—*Morning Post* (*London*).

*GOVINDA SAMANTA;* or, The History of a Bengal Raiyat. By the Rev. Lal Behari Day. 12mo, paper, $1.

"The work before us is not only excellently conceived and well-written, but it deals with topics which, if familiar to Indian administrators, are to the English reader as novel as the incidents in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'"—*Saturday Review* (*London*).

"Unique in its way, a simple narrative, wonderfully complete, and intensely realistic."—*Athenæum.*

*FOR THE KING'S DUES.* By Agnes Macdonnell. 12mo, paper, $1.

"A book with simple scenes, unvarying in interest to the close."—*N. Y. World.*

*** Macmillan & Co.'s Complete Classified Catalogue, by mail, for 6 cents.

MACMILLAN & CO., 21 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 25, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE Senate has ratified the Hawaiian treaty, with some slight modifications, by a vote of 51 to 12 (thus practically establishing free-trade between the Islands and the United States), and postponed the Pinchback case till December, by a vote of 33 to 30. This last was a surprise to the public, and it is said also to some of the senators who voted for it. The Republican chieftains, who had forced the matter upon the Senate's attention in an unnecessary way, at an extraordinary session, convened for other purposes, taking the ground that unless Pinchback was recognized rapine and carnage would desolate the South, were very much startled when Senator West sprang a resolution for postponement upon them, and they were constrained to vote for it as a party measure. It is said by the *Tribune* correspondent that the object of the move was to put the Pinchback case off till after the operations of the "New York Legislature" (*i.e.*, the Louisiana Legislature as rearranged upon the compromise adopted by the Wheeler Committee, which has been sitting in New York) have been brought to an end, it being expected that the remodelled Louisiana Legislature will elect a Conservative senator, and that the Senate will then have to decide between Pinchback and an out-and-out bandit—a prospect which is supposed to create a very troubled future for such Republican senators as are trying to see their way clear to supporting Grant and the Wheeler compromise and the party, and at the same time giving their own behavior the appearance of consistency. It is one of the remarkable features of the Louisiana case, we may observe, how much of its government is carried on "in foreign parts." The returns of the election of 1872 have been ever since, we believe, in Kentucky; the headquarters of the civil government have been generally in the saddle or at Washington; and for the last week or two the legislative returns have been undergoing examination in a private office in New York. We should not be at all surprised at hearing of some branch of it as having turned up in London or Vienna. The Wheeler compromise, it is understood, is now complete, and it practically places the State exactly where it was in November, with Kellogg Governor, a Democratic House, and a Republican Senate. The House Committee, by the way, on the expenditures of the Department of Justice, has reported that the officials of the department in various parts of the South have got up many frivolous cases, "no doubt to make business for the purpose of getting fees"—a practice which accounts, of course, for many of the "outrages" and much subsequent perjury.

Andrew Johnson has, as was foretold, made his speech in the Senate on the Louisiana question, and it is the kind of speech that might have been expected. He is one of the class of orators who are excited by the sound of their own voice, and who, therefore, when they once begin talking, do not know what they will say before they have done. He was very violent throughout, very extravagant in some places. He objected, and justly, to the resolution pending in the Senate, as *ultra vires*, and cited the Jackson precedent in support of his position, and the Tennessee case against the President's use of the military in Louisiana, and went fairly wild over the third term. "The empire," he says, "is ahead," and the government of the country is now what he calls a "stratocracy." He quoted Cato somewhat effectively, and, after much rambling and many outbursts of patriotic devotion, sat down, but not without having revealed a knowledge of the principles of constitutional government which it were to be wished his successor possessed. The speech showed clearly, however, that Mr. Johnson is never more to be an influence in national affairs, and he will probably "swing round the circle" as long as he has health.

The Senate debate on the Louisiana case has come to an end in the adoption, by a vote of 33 to 23, of a resolution introduced by Senator Anthony in the following terms: "*Resolved*, That the action of the President in protecting the government in Louisiana, of which William P. Kellogg is executive, and the people of that State, against domestic violence, and enforcing the laws of the United States, is approved." This resolution, as the Cincinnati *Commercial* points out, is merely declaratory as to the fact that Kellogg is Governor, and laudatory only so far as the President's acts in the past are concerned. What the friends of the President wanted to have passed was the Frelinghuysen resolution, approving the President's past course, and declaring the opinion of the Senate to be that he "should continue to recognize" the "existing government," though for how long a time was not mentioned. It was found, however, that the Republican Senators could not be brought up to this point. The resolution is, as Senator Thurman says, very "thin gruel," and the reason why the Republicans have taken so much pains to pass it, is no doubt that they hope to be able to use the minority vote as a renewed proof that the Democrats are in favor of "domestic violence" and opposed to "the enforcement of the laws." One of the curiosities of the final vote was the behavior of Senator Christiancy of Michigan. In the first place, he explained that he was going to vote for the resolution; but he did not regard it as an endorsement of Kellogg or of "the means by which he succeeded to power." On a proviso, however, introduced by Senator Thurman, that Kellogg should not be recognized as Governor *de jure*, he declined to vote. On the whole, the honors of parliamentary strategy in the matter are pretty evenly divided.

Notwithstanding the recurrence of winter weather, general trade continues to improve, and the feeling among merchants is that the spring business will be satisfactory, even if not so large as before the panic. There is no doubt that what remains unsold of the crops of 1874 will bring higher prices than have yet obtained. Within the last day or two there has been a halt in the upward movement of breadstuffs and provisions. Cotton continues strong, with the receipts at the ports small. There are few who now estimate that the crop will come up to 3,750,000 bales, even among those who last autumn and in the early winter were positive that it would exceed 4,000,000 bales. There have been two mercantile suspensions of importance, one in the tea and coffee trade and the other in the sugar trade; the latter proved but temporary. Both these branches of trade have been injured by the fast-and-loose action of Congress in regard to taxing these articles. In London, two concerns involved in the affairs of J. C. Im Thurn & Co. have suspended, but, as was the case with Im Thurn & Co., their failure seems to have been expected. Certainly, the Bank of England took no notice of them, and money in London is easier than a week ago. In Wall Street the gold clique have been content with such profits as could be made in turns within 115⅝ and 116¾, and have mercifully refrained from distressing borrowers of gold. They still, however menace the gold and exchange markets and foreign trade interests. At the Stock Exchange choice investments, like Government and the selected railroad bonds, have advanced. Stocks have also advanced under the lead of Union Pacific, which is up above fifty. It is well understood that the speculation in this stock is conducted by Jay Gould, and yet he has a following, both in and out of Wall Street, which is surprisingly large. The money market continues very easy for demand loans and discounts; the banks added $2,250,000 to their surplus reserve last week. Railroad earnings, except those of the trunk-lines engaged in war, are increasing, which is a good sign for general business.

Mr. Tilden's message on the canals shows that the income from tolls for five years from October 1, 1869, to September 30, 1874, was $15,000,000; that the ordinary expenses were more than $9,000,000; and the apparent surplus therefore between $5,000,000 and $6,000,000. The "extraordinary" repairs, as they are called, amounted however to nearly $11,000,000, making the actual deficiency $5,000,000. Besides, we must add to this other payments enumerated

by the Governor, for interest and other expenses, and the actual deficiency, exclusive of the reduction of debt, is brought up to the sum of $8,769,757 62. If we extend the enquiry so as to embrace the payment of the debt, the figures become still larger, and the sum-total of taxes levied during the five years is found to be $14,789,848 25, all of which has been directly or indirectly for the benefit of the canals. The Governor then proceeds to analyze the causes which have led to these vast expenditures, and finds that they have come from the contracts made by the State for the maintenance and repair of the canals. The constitution of the State provides that all contracts for work or material on any canal shall be made with the lowest bidder who gives adequate security. This requirement was intended of course as a protection to the State, but, "by artful bids, and in some cases by fraudulent combinations, it is made an instrument to defeat the very end had in view by its authors." Mr. Tilden says that he has himself examined more than a hundred contracts (and there is no one who is more expert in examinations of this kind), and finds that most of them are so contrived that they do not go to the lowest bidder, and that the State pays from two to four times the amount of the contract.

The *modus operandi* is as follows: When a contract is to be let, the engineer makes for the State an estimate of the quantity and kinds of work to be done. The bids are then put in, and as they generally amount to little more than one-half the engineer's estimates, it looks as if the State had made an advantageous contract. But on examination there turns out to be this peculiarity in the bids—the prices for the several items bear no relation whatever to their supposed value; one contractor offering, for instance, to excavate earth at eighty-five cents a yard, and another at one cent a yard; bids for "slope wall" being put in, in some cases, at twenty cents, and in others at two dollars. In some cases a contractor puts in proposals on the same day for different jobs, in which the prices for the same kind of work or materials vary several hundred per cent. These bids, which are on their face fraudulent, and are known as "unbalanced bids," have always, till recently, been accepted. The explanation of them is that the contractor finds out, by collusion, what work and material will actually be needed, and what will not. For the latter he bids at ridiculously low rates, and for the former at extravagantly high ones. Besides this, he gets the contract changed by "influence," so as to let him spend as much as he wants to. As a specimen of this sort of work, the Governor gives a contract, which the contractor undertook at $2,000, and which cost the sum of $28,000. A quantity of these contracts have been published in the *Tribune*. Indeed, since the appearance of Mr. Tilden's message, the press has become more licentious and unbridled than ever, and during the past week has been engaged in blackening the character of "Jarv." Lord, Willard Johnson, and some others of the most prominent and influential of our public men.

There is one branch of the operations of the Canal Ring which Mr. Tilden leaves unexplained—that is, how the contractors arrange among themselves to whom the contracts shall be awarded. Obviously this must be done, for one man can make an "unbalanced bid" as well as another. The way it is done, however, is very simple. To obtain a contract, it is not only necessary that your bid shall be low, but that it shall comply with certain regulations as to interlineations, erasures, the security given, etc. If, therefore, any contractor can get hold of all the bids for a certain piece of work, and then deface all but his own, so as to make them illegal, it is obvious that when the bids are opened his will be the lowest legal bid, no matter what the others are. Now, this was actually done in the case of a number of contracts let in 1866 (the ring in 1866 was composed of the same men as now). The contractors met at Albany, hired a room, and, having found out beforehand what work would really probably be required, sold the various contracts at auction, the highest bidder having the exclusive right to the possession of all the bids, so that he might mutilate and deface those in competition with his own, and then hand them in to the contracting board in this condition, the money obtained from the auction being divided among the contractors. The reader unaccustomed to fraud will perhaps enquire, how did they get the bids into their possession at all? Simply by going in a body to the office of the contracting board, in whose hands they were, and asking that the bids might be withdrawn and put in later, as more time was needed for *competition*. This auction took place in Albany at Stanwix Hall, and a very full account of it, and a good many more astounding matters connected with canal management, may be found in a report of a Senate committee, which as long ago as 1868 declared the system to be reeking with corruption. The evidence taken at that time constitutes one of the worst exposures we have ever had the pleasure of reading, and would be worth republication by some public-spirited and licentious newspaper now. Mr. Tilden, among other recommendations, advises the immediate abandonment of the lateral canals by the State, as provided for by the recent constitutional amendments.

In the matter of weather, it is unsafe to say that anything is unprecedented, but the memory is certainly taxed to recall any winter season in which the ice-production, owing to prolonged rather than to extraordinarily severe cold, has been so prodigious and so formidable. The spring break-up began in the Delaware Valley, above Port Jervis, to which public attention was specially directed on account of the importance of that place to the Erie Railroad; and for the first time, we think, an attempt was made scientifically to blow up the dams and gorges which annually obstruct many of the great northern rivers and their tributaries. Thanks to these precautions, the actual losses in the Delaware Valley have thus far been less than was apprehended, though another freshet is inevitable. In the Wyoming Valley, on the north branch of the Susquehanna, and along that river from Columbia to Port Deposit, Maryland, great damage has already been inflicted by ice and water, and yet the worst is evidently to come, at least for the coal region about Wilkesbarre, where the river even threatens to change its course permanently. The phenomena we are now witnessing are, in fact, truly glacial in kind and in extent. Of scientific observers of them we do not hear, but curiosity leads troops of sightseers to the scene. The losses occasioned, or certain to take place, by the destruction of bridges, houses, railroad tracks and equipage, canals, lumber, farms, etc., etc., will, without exaggeration, be reckoned by millions. Great fears are entertained for the safety of the towns, particularly Williamsport, on the west branch of the Susquehanna.

The Tilton-Beecher trial apparently grows in interest, though we doubt much whether the better portion of the public cares now so much for the issue before the jury as for the light which the evidence throws on the morals and manners of a certain class of our fellow-citizens. What may be called the nastiness of the case has been increased greatly by the fact that the nature of the defence, which consists in a countercharge as well as a denial, necessitates the infliction on us of two dirty stories instead of one, which was all we at first looked for. The theory of the defence is that Tilton invented the accusation against Mr. Beecher, and that he conspired with others to use it as a means of forcing Mr. Beecher to help him out of difficulties into which he was plunged by his own misconduct. The evidence of the defence thus far has been directed almost exclusively to showing that Tilton was in difficulties, that his life was immoral, and that he did try to use certain charges against Mr. Beecher as a means of retrieving his fortunes; the question whether these charges are true has, however, hardly been touched upon, and will not be in all probability until Mr. Beecher himself takes the stand, and, owing to their nature, he will have to fight them almost alone. Supposing all the testimony which has thus far been produced against Tilton to be true, the main question still remains untouched, because the hypothesis that Tilton is mean or lewd or brutal or extorted money, even if maintained, does not exclude the hypothesis that his

wife had been led astray, though it does doubtless tell in mitigation of damages, by showing that he lost nothing by what he in the Brooklyn dialect calls "the invasion of his home." It does, too, contribute in some degree to the support of the theory of conspiracy. The evidence has been all along remarkable as a picture of social and religious life, and its interest has been heightened by the practice of the plaintiff's counsel in making the witnesses give autobiographical sketches in cross-examination.

The odd contrasts of chromo-civilized life have been brought out very strikingly, for instance, in Bowen's position. He has evidently been mixed up in the scandal for years, and, it would appear by the "Tripartite Agreement," did circulate dirty stories about Mr. Beecher, and he has been solemnly accused in open court, by Beecher's counsel, as a party to a most horrible conspiracy against his own pastor. Nevertheless, *pendente lite*, he still retains one of the most conspicuous pews in Plymouth Church, where he sits on Sundays, with upturned, docile countenance, listening to the pastor aforesaid, whom he has lately hinted in a published card that he (Bowen) would ruin by his evidence if called upon.

Governor Chamberlain of South Carolina has been discovering that he is far in advance of the Legislature on the subject of reform. The State has a "floating debt" of considerable amount, contracted under the Moses régime, and made up of all sorts of fraudulent claims, but especially of claims for "legislative expenses," for nobody charges so much for "legislating" as carpet-baggers and their confederates. One could make up a legislature composed of the principal jurists of the civilized world, and pay them the most extravagant salaries on the monarchical scale, and yet have the laws made cheaper, by far, than Louisiana or South Carolina or Arkansas can get them made by a parcel of ignorant white adventurers, aided by a few colored barbers, porters, and caterers. Since the session of 1870–1, South Carolina has paid, on account of "legislative expenses," the enormous sum of $1,661,000, and there are still claims outstanding, under the same head, of $500,000 out of a total floating debt of $883,000. Although the honest and valid debt of the State has not yet been settled on any permanent and satisfactory basis, the attention of the present Legislature has been mainly concentrated on the floating debt; and lately, under much pressure, Governor Chamberlain consented to a plan, in accordance with which three Commissioners were to be appointed by the Governor to audit all these claims, and all those which they passed were to be reduced one-third in amount. This was the most that the State could, he thought, agree to do, considering its present financial condition and the character of these liabilities. The Legislature thereupon embodied this plan in a bill, which was passed by the House, but the Senate, being more knowing, inserted the names of the Commissioners, and to this amendment the House promptly agreed. The Commissioners thus chosen, we need hardly say, are not persons of whom the Governor can approve—so he has vetoed the bill; but the legislators pretend that he kept it so long in his hands that it has become a law without his signature. We shall only add that the taxes for the present year bid fair to be enormous. We do not know how Governor Chamberlain's contest with these people will end, but we can assure him of the sympathy of honest people all over the Union, as one who is really defending civilization itself against barbarism in its worst form. That he is, however, guilty of "intimidation" we do not deny.

Dr. Kenealy has made his début in the House of Commons, and not without tact and the success which comes of tact. He called another member to account for assailing him in an electioneering speech, held his own against the objections to his bringing the matter before the House with good temper and moderation, raised only one great laugh by declaring that he would shake off a certain slur "as the lion shakes the dewdrops from his mane," and sat down with a declaration, which called forth an approving cheer, that he would show before many months had elapsed that he did not deserve the existing prejudice against him, and "he trusted he would never do anything which should make a single member of the House of Commons ashamed of his presence." His companion in Parliamentary opprobrium, John Mitchel, has, in the meantime, relieved the House of Commons of a discussion of considerable difficulty by dying after a second election for Tipperary. The Irish societies in this country as well as at home have been honoring his memory by magniloquent recognition of his "services" to their national cause, though what the services were it would be hard to say; the discredit he brought on the Irish name is, unhappily, patent enough. His career furnishes a striking illustration of the dangers of rhetoric uncontrolled by good sense, a good conscience, and sound mental training. He discovered his powers in that direction when first beginning, with fair prospects, the practice of an honorable and useful calling, which he thereupon abandoned and became a writer for the press; and he was really a master in the art of expression, and might, if he had had the qualities above-named, have rendered great service to various good causes as a journalist. But his eloquence speedily made him drunk, then mad, and he became a raging blatherskite, who spouted all over the world, without convincing anybody or appeasing anybody, or throwing any light on any of the problems by which human society is vexed. It is a most melancholy story, which we commend to the attention of our correspondent "R." and to that of all young men who are studying elocution. In fact, we think if a good rabid temperance tract were taken, the word "rhetoric" might not inappropriately be substituted in it for "alcohol."

Nothing very new has occurred in France since the formation of the Ministry, and all speculation as to its policy seems to support the theory that it will occupy itself between now and the dissolution of the Assembly with establishing, as far as it lies in its power, the new régime on a firm basis. The establishment of the Republic has been formally acknowledged in the *Journal Officiel*, which now always speaks of Marshal MacMahon as the "Président de la République"; but the event has produced none of the old enthusiasm out of doors, which is an excellent sign, as it shows that the French public at last begins to see the real gravity of great political changes, and to feel the necessity for something besides cheers and processions and trees of liberty to make them successful. Moreover, it is reported that the workingmen do not quite believe in the existence of the Republic as yet, and there is more or less suspense among all classes pending the election of a new Assembly, in which the Radicals expect to have things entirely their own way. The Left in the Assembly are, therefore, very anxious to bring about the dissolution as soon as possible, and call for it now in six months, but the probabilities seem to be that it will not take place until about this time next year. Whenever it does take place, it will, thanks to Marshal MacMahon, be attended with no disturbance, and the new election will, for the same reason, be peaceable and orderly. The Radicals, who are the only persons likely to make trouble, are bound to peace by the now well-recognized fact that all disorder helps the Bonapartists.

A ministerial crisis which has lasted for some weeks in Hungary, has come to an end by the formation of a new one by a combination of Conservatives and Liberals—the Conservatives having, by a curious combination of circumstances, been led to surrender to the Opposition and admit them into their ranks. The new Cabinet is headed by Baron Wenkheim, a moderate man not lately in office, though in charge of the Department of the Interior some years ago, which Tisza, who has long been the leader of the Opposition, now takes. M. Szell takes the Finance Ministry, though the only difference between him and the late incumbent, M. Ghyczy, in the debates which led to the crisis, was that he was opposed to an income-tax of four per cent., though not to the total amount of direct taxation which the Ministry proposed to raise for the present year—$65,000,000 in all. In the new combination, some kind of compromise on this point is to be tried. The new finance minister is the friend and pupil of Deák.

## RESPONSIBILITY IN HIGH PLACES.

WE share very fully in the satisfaction which the news of Judge Christiancy's succession to Mr. Zachariah Chandler's place in the Senate has given to the lovers of good government all over the country, and this satisfaction was greatly increased, we believe, by the report of his first speech. It was not long, and it was very temperate. It went to the heart of the matter. He pointed out, what cannot be denied, that the Kellogg legislature, from which Pinchback claims his title, was "a pretended legislature," not a legislature of the government of the State of Louisiana, but "a body set up, installed, and kept in power, and imposed upon the State by the Executive Department of the Federal Government." He went on to say that if what occurred in Louisiana when this legislature was set up was justifiable there, it would be justifiable in any other State, and he then added:

"This might occur in any State, as well at the North as in the South. Suppose it had occurred, as it might, in Michigan, at the last election, and, owing to the heated passions of the partisans on either side, and the frauds committed at the election or in canvassing the votes, a similar difficulty existed in determining which candidate was elected; and, while the dispute was still open, and neither candidate for governor had obtained possession of the office, a district court of the United States had assumed jurisdiction of the question in the same or any other way, and to decide who was elected, and undertaken to decide upon the election of members of the legislature, and the President had sent the military to enforce this decision of the Federal court, and to place in power and sustain the candidate in whose favor the court had decided. While the people of Michigan might not object to the action of the military in preserving the lives of citizens against insurrection and violence, would they be likely to recognize the validity of the government thus imposed upon them? Would they be likely quietly to submit to it? The people of Michigan are a law-abiding people, but I know them well enough to venture the assertion that it would take several regiments of soldiers to keep them quiet under a government thus imposed, and more than all the armies of the United States to make them love or respect it."

In other words, he declares that a monstrous violation both of the Constitution and of sound political principles was committed in Louisiana, which, if committed in his own State, would have driven it into armed resistance. One might naturally expect that this bold description of the facts would have led to a severe condemnation of the author of these proceedings, viz., the President. But it did not. On the contrary, it was prefatory not only to an absolution of the President, but to a eulogy on him. Judge Christiancy says that "he is as sure as he can be of anything which does not admit of mathematical demonstration, that the President had no wish or intention to usurp power that did not belong to him," but that, being called upon to "suppress apprehended violence and insurrection," and not having all the evidence before him, and "not having the best legal advice," he "did not see the true principle involved," and therefore erred, but erred innocently; and the proof of this the Judge finds, as others have found it, in the fact that he repeatedly called on Congress to make proper provision for the case, and thus take it off his hands.

Now, there are, as it seems to us, several very serious objections to this mode of dealing with the question. No more important duty devolves upon those who concern themselves with the government of a free state than that of fixing the responsibility of abuses on the right persons. Indeed, the duty of exposing abuses, important as it is, is by no means so important as the duty of saying who is to blame for them. Nay, we might go further, and say that the first without the last has no practical value at all, for however much we may be impressed with the sight of iniquity, unless we know who did it, or get some adequate notion of the motive which prompted it, we cannot take proper measures to prevent its repetition. It might almost be said that all political criticism in the United States, at this juncture, which does not concern itself with offenders just as much as with offences, is likely to prove futile, for two reasons: one is, that there is a strong tendency in politics to make a distinction between conduct and persons, just as there is in theology a strong tendency to make a distinction between sin and sinners; and thus, while visiting a man's acts with abhorrence, to treat the man himself with indulgence and even respect. But this mode of assailing evil is, we need hardly say, in practice utterly valueless. To say that there has been usurpation in Louisiana is a barren truth until you have pointed out the usurper. Then, but not until then, your exposure becomes useful. No reform would ever have been brought about in this world, if the plan of preaching against evil as an entity for which no person should be held accountable had been pursued. Going to jail for non-payment of ship-money did not secure the triumph of the principle that taxes must be voted by the taxpayers. It was secured by declaring boldly that the person who levied taxes without the consent of Parliament would be knocked on the head if necessary, and that the king was that person.

The second reason is, that in a democracy like ours all talking or writing about politics is and ought to be considered an educational process; and this view of it needs to be all the more closely kept in mind just now, owing to the fact that we have a large body of voters among us at present either very ignorant of or very unfamiliar with American political traditions, and whom it is hopeless to try to reach through dry statements of general principles. They have to be trained and enlightened, if at all, through criticism of prominent men and pending measures, because it is only for topics of this sort that their attention can be secured. Sound doctrine on all the leading questions of the time has to be brought home to them by the discussion of proposed legislation. True standards of capacity and fitness in public men have to be held up by the criticism of public men now on the stage; that is, not by essays on statesmanship, but by plain talk about Grant and Wilson and Blaine and Dawes. Now, this function of criticism is of course liable to abuse. We have of late heard a great deal about its abuse, though most of what we hear is an old story, which men in high places have been repeating ever since the invention of printing. The critics very often do not give good men their due, and very often paint the devil blacker than he really is; but we nevertheless maintain that even the criticism of the press, wild or malicious or corrupt though much of it may be, on the whole and in the long run either does substantial justice or fails to hinder it. But what it accomplishes openly and palpably in specific instances is only a small part of what it accomplishes, and by far the least valuable part. Out of the Babel of "charges," and counter-charges, and insinuations, and slanders, and vindications amid which every political campaign, and indeed every session of Congress, is carried on, one great lesson is brought home to the popular mind with a force in no other way attainable, and that is—that whether A be corrupt or not, corruption is dangerous and detestable; whether B lied or not, a liar is not fit for high public office; whether C be an embezzler or not, honesty is a necessity of good government; and what with accusations and denials, vituperation and retorts, an ideal public man is kept before us whom it may seem difficult to embody, but whom, nevertheless, it is well to have in our mind's eye.

Now, there is nothing in General Grant's character or career to exempt him from the ordinary conditions of official life in a free state. What was given him when he was elected President was not exemption from criticism, but the high honor of facing it in a conspicuous civil, as he had already faced it in a conspicuous military, station. He was made, in short, the greatest thing in the world, a responsible magistrate. In this position he was entitled, during the earlier years of his official life, to all manner of favorable presumptions. He had a fair claim to have his mistakes overlooked for a while, and have people's judgments on isolated acts, even when they were of doubtful complexion, suspended. But he was not entitled, and could never become entitled, to the presumption that he was not bound to learn by experience, and that even a long course of conduct furnished no materials for a judgment on his character. Nevertheless, this is what his friends have been claiming for him with extraordinary persistency ever since 1870. His appointments in the civil service, and his relations with members of Congress, proved in the ordinary way that his talk about civil-service reform was not the expression of real intention, because a

man's acts always explain his language—were it otherwise, human society could not hold together. Nevertheless, Mr. Curtis, and others of his supporters, persevered for two years in asking us to accept his private conversations and written messages as better indications than his conduct of what he was really aiming at, and he enjoyed similar good fortune in other things which space will not permit us to enumerate.

In this Louisiana matter we find ourselves face to face with a similar anomaly. Those who have supported the Presidential interference in that State, on the ground that the whites were ferocious and not to be trusted, were, we believe, mistaken; but we think their argument was a perfectly comprehensible one. They said they judged these men by experience of their past conduct. They refused to accept their vows and pretensions *now* as conclusive, but looked over the history of the last ten years, and finding, or pretending to find, in it a great deal of slaughter and outrage, declared that the perpetrators ought not to be relieved from restraint. Turning to the President, however, they applied a totally different rule. If we take the history of Federal interference in the State since 1869, we find no warrant whatever for Mr. Christiancy's confidence in the President. From the appointment of his brother-in-law Casey to the collectorship of the port, and Casey's use of the revenue-cutter to participate in the quarrel between two factions of Republicans without rebuke from Washington, down to the last interference with the organization of the legislature, the President's acts and omissions would, taken together, be set down in the case of any other man as positive proof of bad designs. Take, to begin with, his want of "good legal advice." Who is responsible for that? Who appointed and who retains Williams? Is the President ignorant of Williams's standing in the legal profession? When Casey used the revenue-cutter to prevent the legislature's forming a quorum, it would have been proof, in any other case, that Casey ought to be removed, and that he and Packard had become chiefs of a faction. Later, when the Attorney-General telegraphed, on the 3d of December, 1872, his order to the troops to aid the marshal to execute United States writs, would it not in any other case have been taken as proof of guilty preparation for and connivance at the granting of the unlawful order by Judge Durell, on the night of December 5, directing the marshal to seize the State-house, which was done on the same night, and at the monstrous packing of the legislature on the 9th following by Packard with a military force? Does Judge Christiancy really mean to tell us that General Grant did not know what was going on, and did not know that it was wrong, and really believed that this was a proper mode of "suppressing apprehended violence and insurrection"? Does he mean to tell us that the President of the United States can commit, through pure mistake, acts which, according to Judge Christiancy himself, would justify, and in Michigan at least would produce, insurrection? Does he mean to tell us, too, that when, after all that had occurred, General Emory repeatedly telegraphed for instructions, in view of "apprehended violence" on the meeting of the legislature in January last, and those instructions were carefully withheld, the reticence of the President and Mr. Williams was a simple error of judgment? If not, what construction would he put on it if the Louisiana case came before him in court?

It ought to be observed, in reference to the defence on which the President's friends have relied a good deal—that he has repeatedly desired Congress to relieve him of the responsibility which he had rashly assumed in Louisiana, and had promised implicit compliance with its directions—that its value is dependent on the extent to which Congress is free from Executive influence or control. If, in other words, the President has scrupulously abstained from influencing its decisions in Southern matters, he may fairly throw on it the responsibility of his errors of judgment, but if not, not. Now, that he does seek to influence Congressional decisions, both by personal lobbying and by the use of his patronage, is one of the notorious facts of the day. He exerted himself strongly to get both the Force Bill passed and the Arkansas resolutions defeated, and he is now using the civil service to reward those who voted under his instructions. We must not, therefore, be asked to judge him as if the legislature were a body completely independent of him, and as if he had nothing to do with its acts or omissions. Nor must we be called upon to admire the submissiveness with which he bows to its decisions, because this is tantamount to asking us to applaud him for not committing impeachable offences, and it suggests the monstrous doctrine, of which unscrupulous men in the Presidential chair might make terrible use, that any excesses or usurpation perpetrated by the Executive during the recess, could be atoned for by remitting the matter to the decision of Congress when it met. In short, General Grant's conduct, like that of other men, must, in the interests of public morality and public safety, be judged by the ordinary tests used in the transaction of public and private affairs, and not by the fantastic fictions borrowed from monarchical jurisprudence.

## THE SORROWS OF CAPITALISTS.

IT is calculated that there are $500,000,000 of railroad bonds in this country which have ceased temporarily or permanently to pay their interest. Sir Henry James, in a curious statement made to the English House of Commons the other day, declared that the amount due by bankrupt governments reached the enormous total of $1,200,000,000, so that it may be said that the railroads and governments of the civilized world together owe to private persons at least $2,000,000,000, or a sum equal to our national debt, of which they pay neither principal nor interest; and the bulk of this, as might be expected, is due in England and Holland, but more particularly in England. In order to be able to make some organized effort for their own protection, these unfortunates formed a regular corporation, called the "Corporation of Foreign Bondholders," in London in 1873, managed by a council, and subdivided into committees charged with the pursuit of different classes of defaulters. The second report of the Council now lies before us, and it is amusing yet melancholy reading, for they have had to deal with every kind of fraud and default, from the impudence of barefaced knavery down to the inability of honesty poverty. Of Spain, we are glad to say, they give a good account. We have told in these columns the story of the trick by which Señor Camacho, the Republican Minister of Finance, evaded the arrangements with the state creditors entered into by his predecessor, Señor Echegaray. There are few worse incidents in the history of public finance, for he coolly walked off with certain mining and other securities which had been deposited as collateral for the bondholders, and then called upon the owners of the then unpaid coupons to bid against each other at a kind of Dutch auction for the lowest sum at which they would be willing to participate in the distribution of a portion of the money due. Since then, however, the bondholders have concluded a very favorable contract with the Government, and the first decree signed by the new king, Alfonso, was one providing for its execution.

Portugal they report as behaving well to its creditors, but Italy causes them "constant solicitude," owing to its having taxed the foreign holders of its rentes—a proceeding of which, with all their efforts, they have only obtained a "temporary modification." About Greece their tone is one of the deepest despondency, and they plainly intimate their belief that the financiers of that country are unmitigated knaves. Of Turkey they speak hopefully, but without enthusiasm. From Tunis they have got a mortgage of the customs duties, which provides for the interest and creates a sinking fund. Liberia has followed the example of some of the larger states by defaulting on its coupons, but the President says that when the legislature meets the Republic will resume payment, which suggests the reflection that it would have been well to save the public credit by calling an extra session. Their report about San Domingo is positively sad, for it appears that the President of the Republic made over to the Samana Bay Company a portion of the rights he had already pledged to the bondholders, and the Council had accordingly to notify the Company that no financial operation on its behalf would be

permitted on the European markets until it relinquished these rights. An agreement was subsequently entered into for the purpose, which, however, the Company failed to fulfil, owing to its ruin at the hands of General Gonzales; and an application to President Grant for redress proved fruitless, as our old friend, Tom Murphy, knows to his cost. Gonzales, too, has openly signified that he does not care a straw about the bondholders or their debt.

Mexico was cheating actively when she received notice that no more loans of hers would be admitted to the European markets until she settled in some way with her creditors. "The effect of this intimation," says the report, "became immediately apparent," and negotiations are now going on, but very slowly, owing to the fact that "the people regard their creditors with contumely," and the statesmen are all the time hoping that something will turn up which will save them the necessity of coming to terms. Guatemala is honest, and pays her way. Honduras is in so wretched a condition that her creditors are hopeless. Nicaragua has offered a compromise, but it is spoken of so disparagingly that we presume it is the equivalent of twenty-five cents on the dollar or thereabouts. Costa Rica gains time by every possible device, and "tries to propitiate the bondholders by courteous treatment of their agents"; but this has gone far enough, and a public indignation meeting is about to be called upon to take up her case. The United States of Colombia are behaving well, but Venezuela has proved impudent as well as dishonest, for her congress had refused to settle with her creditors unless they advanced more money to make a railroad—a proposal which was "indignantly rejected." Ecuador is in deep disgrace, and there is no present sign of her getting out of it. About Peru the Council feels hopeful. Bolivia is under a heavy cloud; and though the material condition of Paraguay seems to be improving, the state of her morals may be inferred from the fact that "lands and buildings hypothecated to the bondholders are being extensively sold at very low prices by the Government." Uruguay, on the other hand, nobly fulfils all her engagements under the most adverse circumstances.

A large portion of the report is, as might be expected, devoted to the State and railroad obligations of this country. After speaking in the highest terms of the credit of the United States, it discusses that of the Southern States, which are the only ones, excepting Minnesota (which has repudiated some railroad aid bonds), about whose conduct there is any question. Of these States generally it says that the legislatures have manifested but little disposition to settle with their public creditors, and do little beyond appointing commissioners to negotiate, apparently with the view to indefinite postponement, and at the same time "much disappointment is expressed because the aggrieved creditors refuse to co-operate in schemes for selling lands, opening mines and smelting works, and forming railroads"; but the Council says that their experience in the cases of Mexico and Venezuela has shown that "the extension of public works does not produce any corresponding desire to discharge the public debt."

The amount of these unpaid government obligations has now become so large that an attempt has been made in the interest of the holders to obtain from the English Government some kind of interference on their behalf, by a motion in the House of Commons for the appointment of a Committee of Investigation, accompanied by a suggestion on the part of the mover, Sir Henry James, that there ought to be some remedy when loans, as was now not unfrequently the case, were obtained by fraud, or their payment or the payment of the interest fraudulently evaded; but of what the remedy should be he confessed he had not the slightest idea, nor did he see what beyond "exposure" was to be gained by the investigation.

The Council of the bondholders does not indulge in the hope of relief at any time through government interference, but avows frankly its reliance on the moral influence of entreaty, remonstrance, and denunciation, though it thinks some good might be done by the establishment of an international tribunal before which exposures could be made. It is, however, plain enough, that there are only two things on which, in the present or any probable state of the world, the creditors of states can place reliance: one is the moral character of the people to which the money is lent, or (failing this) the possibility of shutting out defaulting governments from the exchanges of the world, and thus preventing their raising subsequent loans. This last remedy has now been very thoroughly organized in Europe. The exchanges of all the great money centres make common cause, and a defaulter in one is remorselessly excluded on demand from the others; and with the present eagerness for loans for purposes of "public improvement," there are few states which cannot be, sooner or later, brought to terms by this remedy.

There can be no question, however, that the moral sense of political communities is in a low state with regard to pecuniary obligation, and needs considerable cultivation in that direction before it will supply entirely satisfactory security, and it is likely to become worse rather than better as affairs pass more and more into the control of the class which lives by weekly wages, and has not been bred in the notions of commercial honor prevalent in the class which carries on its business by credit and associates default with ruin. When we consider the weight and complexity of the influences which society has to bring to bear in order to make individuals pay their debts, we can better understand the proneness to bankruptcy of large communities composed, in the main, of people who find the greatest difficulty in making ends meet in their private affairs. Each citizen finds his share of the responsibility for national obligations so small that it hardly troubles him, and the shame of failure, which is so powerful an agent in repressing dishonesty in private life, does not reach him at all, as all his friends and neighbors are in the same boat with him, and the indignant creditor or scornful observer is three thousand miles away. In fact, the work of political education during the next fifty or one hundred years will largely consist in the diversion of a portion of the patriotic pride, which is now employed almost exclusively in stimulating military ardor, to the work of quickening the sense of commercial honor. To adapt patriotism to the conditions of modern life, it is desirable that failure to pay national debts should be as much dreaded as inability to resist a national insult. The existence in a political community of large numbers of persons whose blood boils if they hear of an outrage on the flag, but only grin when they hear that the creditors of the state want their coupons paid or object to having their debts "scaled," is a survival, and a very unfortunate one, from barbarous ages.

But we ought to say to the London bondholders that no great improvement in the pecuniary morals of small or poor states can be looked for, so long as lenders in the great money markets are as credulous and as eager for high rates of interest as some of the loans contracted every year in London show Englishmen to be. A very large number certainly of the loans raised there by Americans could not be raised in this country, were capital never so plentiful, and some of the accompanying inducements offered are such as to suggest, one would think, to every rational man, that if the undertaking were sound it would never have been allowed to leave New York or Boston. If the stories of the projectors were trustworthy and the fortunes they offered were reasonably certain, people here would sell everything else in order to supply them with funds. A great deal of our private morality in business is maintained by the difficulty of getting money. If the banks were to lend lavishly to all comers, the result, as long as the funds lasted, would be demoralizing to the last degree; and as long as governments can get money in London and Amsterdam for the asking, so long will bondholders have to fill the earth with their annual wail. The political character of a community, on which its credit has to rest, must, in these democratic times, be looked for in the ability of the government to maintain order, in the recognition in legislation of the value of commercial honor, and, though last, not least, in the disposition of the masses to commit the administration of their affairs to leading men. Any lender who accepts, in lieu of the display of these things through a series of years, the promises or gasconade of smart agents sent out to negotiate loans, ought not to ask anybody's sympathy when he finds himself cheated.

## A STUDY OF TOWN-MEETING LEGISLATION.

### THE DARK SIDE.

IF in one corner of an agricultural town there should spring up a large and thriving factory, owing perhaps to the development of a previously unused water-power, there is no reason apparent why the owners and employés of the factory should not attend town-meeting, and harmoniously discuss and vote upon the same questions which concern the rest of the community. After a time, as the factory business increases, and the machinery is run by night as well as by day, the buildings and passages between them would need to be lighted with gas. At this juncture, suppose that the owners at the annual meeting should request the town to vote an appropriation to pay for this gas-light, and, by calling in all their hands, should actually contrive to pass such a vote, could there be more than one opinion with reference to the justice of their action? They would be robbing the farmer of his money as truly as though the same amount were taken from his pockets by highwaymen on the road.

We have no doubt of the unanimity of the verdict which would doubtless be pronounced upon this supposed transaction, even by those who are practically in the habit of voting with the factory owners in favor of having their gas-bills paid by other people. For our supposed case is not only a perfect illustration, but is in fact almost a precise statement of what is taking place to-day in many towns throughout New England. The legal form of the injury may generally disguise the fact of the robbery; but the extortion is none the less real, and none the less is the farmer's tax forcibly increased without his consent. Take, for instance, the case of the town spoken of in the former portion of this article. Originally agricultural, there has grown up in one corner a very large and flourishing village, the inhabitants of which now outnumber the rest of the town. Several small manufacturing villages are in different parts of the town, and farms fill up the remaining territory. The large village, or "centre" as it is usually called, has gradually developed a craving for "internal improvements." It wanted macadamized streets, and the whole town was requested and obliged to pay for them; it desired paved sidewalks, and the town in a similar manner consented to provide them; lights were required for the streets, and the farmer seven miles away helped pay for pipes and gas, though for himself he carried only a lantern with kerosene oil, and paid for both from his own pocket; water was wanted, that the "centre" houses might be built with "modern improvements," and the farmer, who drives his stock a quarter of a mile to a spring, had an addition to his taxes that the dweller at the "centre" might have the privilege of drawing water from a faucet in his private chamber; a "memorial" hall was projected, to ornament the "centre," and satisfy local pride, and the man who does not see it more than once a year was forced to pay for the costly and useless elephant; a new railroad was demanded to connect the "centre" with other towns, and although the several smaller villages happen to have all the railroad facilities they desire, nevertheless they were forced to acquiesce in that addition to the taxes which comes from lending the credit of the town, to the amount of several hundred thousands of dollars, to the proposed road—a road, by the way, which has not been built, while the town, obliged to pay useless interest on its own bonds, is groaning beneath the burden so foolishly assumed. Similar facts might be detailed until a lengthy catalogue had been written out; but enough have been given to show that the most shameless extortion is practised by the inhabitants of one portion of the town upon those living in another portion. We admit, of course, that some of these measures may have been of universal benefit; but, after all necessary allowances have been made, there will remain more than enough to justify the statement that fifty per cent. has been permanently added to the taxation of a large portion of the inhabitants of the town, who not only did not desire the appropriations to be made, but who have not been, and can never be, directly or indirectly benefited by the money spent. These have been compelled to pay for the pleasures of other people.

The privilege of voting, it is evident, gives very little defence against this manifest injustice; and even free discussion, on the benefits of which we are wont to pride ourselves, seems to do almost nothing toward checking these proceedings. It is very seldom, in fact, that, at the annual meetings, any protest whatever is made against this method of pickpocket legislation. There will be objections in abundance against any single measure necessitating an increase of taxation; special acts, like those mentioned above, will be resisted on all possible grounds save the one ground of the absolute injustice of all such legislation. Even the defrauded ones seem to have no adequate conception of the wrong done them. They have become so accustomed to it that they submit as though these things were necessary portions of the burdens of a sinful world. Talk to a grumbling farmer of the causes of the increase of his taxes, and, rightly enough, he will point to these measures which added so many per cent., and to those measures which added so many per cent. more, and all, he will add, of no use whatever to him. But in the very next breath he will tell over a long list of things which should be done for him and his neighbors in the town—things as useless to the "centre" as are to him those against which he has been grumbling. And the "centre" has learned to take advantage of this obtuseness, and, by shrewdly promising some slight favor to the farmers or to the small villages, actually manages frequently to secure their votes in favor of its more expensive schemes. The town, for instance, will vote to put a clock into the tower of a new church in one of the small villages (although every man carries a watch, and all the factories have bells and whistles), and, tickled with satisfaction at getting the toy for nothing apparently, not a man in that village will vote against some tenfold more expensive toy which the "centre" requests for its own especial gratification. Anything seems to be finally accepted as right if only a majority of the votes can be obtained for it after an open discussion at town-meeting. There is a singular and blind acquiescence in the will of a majority; this cannot be disputed, but indicates divine right as truly as in former times did the will of the king.

So long as the towns remained small and homogeneous, this injustice was not possible. No measure could be passed, whether good or bad, which did not affect all equally. Even the old ecclesiastical laws, which would now be exceedingly tyrannical, were not so at the time they were passed, for they were based upon that which all alike professed, and were required for the good of the whole, not for the benefit of a part only. When the Quakers and Baptists were finally allowed to remain in Massachusetts, for example, the religious homogeneity of that State was for ever at an end, and, gradually, everything connected with religious belief has been excluded from the province of legislation. Nothing of this once close connection now remains, with the exception of a few more or less atrophied strands, which are slowly snapping in obedience to the logic which first began their severance. While special ecclesiastical regulations are thus entirely abandoned, there still remain in force many general laws in which Baptist, Quaker, Puritan, and infidel are alike interested—laws of restraint, of protection, of the maintenance of justice. In short, as religious variations were introduced, it became necessary to take religion out of the field of legislation, or, in other words, to make ecclesiastical laws as general as those which apply to all associations for special purposes. And this seems to indicate a simple principle of legislation, namely, as population becomes more varied, legislation must become more general, affecting equally the whole, and not any one portion of the people. More and more, therefore, will it become necessary to remove from legislation many things once admissible, until at last, as interests become more conflicting and population more heterogeneous, legislation will more and more tend to confine itself to the task of perfecting the laws of equity. Only when this principle is generally recognized will legislation, in town-meeting or anywhere else, be restricted to the limits within which it rightly belongs.

Not only is this principle as yet very far from popular recognition, but the traditions and education of a large part of the American people are in direct opposition to it. De Tocqueville says that "town-meetings are to liberty what primary schools are to science: they bring it within the people's reach; they teach men how to use and how to enjoy it." Our conviction of the truth of this sentence was perfect, until observation had taught us that it can be accepted only with some serious modifications. Town-meetings may teach how to use and how to enjoy liberty where it already exists, but they do not necessarily bring liberty, nor do they ensure its preservation. The education of the town-meeting has been thoroughly bad in some respects. Its training has taught men to direct attention to special cases instead of general principles. In a town-meeting, no subject is too great or too small for discussion and decision by majority vote. From a railroad loan, burdening the town with debt for a generation, and virtually mortgaging every farm and building within its territory, to the appropriation of five cents a head to carry a dozen children to school, all comes legitimately within the scope of town-meeting discussion, and nothing is ever settled for more than a year at a time. School appropriations and constable's fees, laborers' wages and the choice of hog-reeves, all must be annually debated and determined anew. The representative elected from such a meeting to the State legislature naturally carries with him the ideas and methods of legislation begotten of his early surroundings, and the legitimate result is seen in the patchwork and makeshift character of much of our State and national legislation. The amount of special and interfering legislation in Massachusetts alone last year was truly enormous. From the management

of the Hoosac Tunnel and the sale of lagerbeer to the length of mature lobsters and the proper size of milkmen's cans, all subjects were debated and voted upon almost precisely as though the members of the Legislature were still in their familiar town-halls; and the belief was apparently universal that no subject could be exempted from special legislation. When we remember what is done in towns, we need not wonder at what is done in State and nation, nor marvel at the spectacle of legislatures and houses of Congress converted into big and degenerated town-meetings.

While these ideas of special and universal legislation prevail, it is safe to predict that we shall never get far away from our present grave difficulties. We have been trying to carry into general government, and endeavoring to make suitable for a large and exceedingly heterogeneous nation, methods of legislation originally adapted only to small and perfectly homogeneous communities; and so long as we persist in this course, so long will our difficulties wax greater and corruption find a broader field for work. We are aware, of course, that many politicians will object to what we have said as tending to confine legislation to a channel altogether too narrow to permit the full exercise of the legislator's talents. It may even be argued, also, that although there may be much injustice done by the petty legislation of town-meetings, yet if we object to the appropriation of public money for the purchase of church-clocks and private gas-lights, the same logic may lead at last to the stoppage of subsidies to steamships, of grants to railroads, and even of protection to native industry. We have not space to consider these objections at present, but shall be satisfied for the time being if no one pushes us to any application not contained in the accepted precept—"Let him that dances pay the fiddler, and not step on his neighbor's toes."

## RESTIF DE LA BRETONNE.

PARIS, February 26.

I WAS much surprised when I received last year a catalogue of books, in which I found a long article by M. Paul Lacroix (known under the name of "bibliophile Jacob") on the works of Restif de la Bretonne; even more surprised when I saw the high price which was asked for the works of this writer, whom I had been accustomed to regard as beneath notice. These high prices, to be sure, were chiefly to be attributed to the curious and sometimes beautiful illustrations of the works of Restif, and to their extreme rarity; but still, I could not but wonder that M. Paul Lacroix took so much notice of a writer whose name was once only pronounced with contempt. "Restif's books," wrote he, "are now very rare; they will become more so, as they are now sought after by the great amateurs of bibliographic curiosities. These books contain the most interesting documents for the history of the manners of the time. The peasants, the workingmen, the men of the people, never had a more faithful or more sympathetic painter than Restif de la Bretonne. His works, in which, as in a mirror, the various aspects of French society from 1760 to 1805 are reflected, will be monuments of the manners and morals of that period, as the works of Petronius and Apuleius are of the Roman antiquity." M. Lacroix has now published a magnificent volume, edited with much care, under the title of 'Bibliography and Iconography of all the Works of Restif de la Bretonne, containing a description of all the original editions, and of all the engravings in detail; with many historical, critical, and literary notes." M. Lacroix has become bolder, and he does not now hesitate to write that the 'Malédiction Fraternelle' is as good a novel as the 'Nouvelle Héloïse' of Rousseau; that 'Monsieur Nicolas' is *perhaps* superior to the famous 'Confessions.' "Perhaps" is prudent, and M. Lacroix may perhaps suppress it in another edition.

Let us make allowance for the enthusiasm of all discoverers, and let us look a little closer at this extraordinary man. This is how he describes himself in 'Monsieur Nicolas': "I am a great fabulist, who, instead of taking animals as interlocutors, chooses himself. I am a complex animal, sometimes sly as a fox; sometimes heavy, slow, and stupid as an ass; sometimes proud and courageous as a lion; sometimes cowardly and gluttonous as a wolf, eagle, and vulture, or simply partridge or lark."

Restif was the son of a peasant of Burgundy. He came to Paris as a printer, and began at once to write novels. The first appeared in 1762, and appeared without his name. In this book, as in those following it, he always took his facts and characters from real life. He had been either an actor or a spectator of all that he relates. He was already married in 1762, and the father of four children. He was evidently a very vain person, as he abandoned from the day of his marriage the habit of wearing a wig, which was then universal; and, being too poor to be noticed for his fine dress, he affected to be very *négligé* and even dirty. We find him writing novel after novel, full of what was then called *sensibility*, for a few years before he rose to notice; fighting with the censorship, as his books were thought too free in some parts. Their extraordinary titles are sufficiently instructive—'Lucile; or, The Progress of Virtue,' by a Mousquetaire; 'The Girl Kept (*entretenue*) and Virtuous; or, The Progress of Virtue'; 'The Girl Ravished, Kept, Prostitute, and Virtuous; or, The Progress of Virtue.' He sticks his 'Progress of Virtue' to the most extraordinary anecdotes.

His first successful work was the 'Fool of Fanchette,' in 1769. He had therefore toiled in vain for seven years, obliged to work in the printing-office when he did not write. The intrigue of this story is very common, but the pretty, small foot of the young *marchande* of the St. Denis, in its pretty pink shoe, is an agreeable object, and there are original remarks here and there. This maniac—for I really believe Restif was nothing else—professed all his lifetime a sort of devotion to small feet. A whole volume might be extracted from his voluminous writings on this single subject. When he employed the clever Binet to draw the engravings of his books, he constantly tormented him about the size of the heroine's feet; and really, the ladies of Binet's collection, so much sought after now, seem to be walking on stilts.

The book which really made Restif's reputation is the 'Perverted Peasant,' which he printed himself, like most of his works. While he wrote a number of novels with an extraordinary rapidity, he worked for several years at his 'Peasant.' He brought himself on the scene under the name of Edmond, and introduced many personages whom he had known in Burgundy. When the book appeared he was in the depths of misery. He was so poor that he was obliged to borrow a little money from a printer, and he could not have finished his work if his brother had not helped him. His wife made him very unhappy; and it cannot be wondered at that she did not like him, if the anecdotes Restif tells about himself are true. Restif began the 'Peasant' after reading Richardson's 'Pamela.' The principal heroes of the work are his own sister, who, after the saddest adventures, finally married a hackney-coachman; a friend of his, inspector of the state forest, who dishonored himself, and could only leave his house at night. "You may imagine how I must have been affected as I wrote this history, founded chiefly on my own experience and the fate of my sister."

This book had several editions. It shocked many, and was admired by some. Crébillon the Younger and Mercier expressed to the author their admiration. The general public only read it because there were many licentious passages and scenes taken from places which no writer had yet dared to describe. Everybody read it. The French capital had never been described with such minute details; so much corruption and crime had never been heaped in so small a compass. I have tried several times to go through the 'Perverted Peasant.' I confess that there is in it a certain energy, a bold delineation of passions and characters; but, on the whole, the book is nauseous. It makes upon the nerves the same effect as a dissecting-room or the Morgue. The pretended morality of Restif is repulsive; he shows the deplorable effects of vice, but he scrutinizes vice with a morbid curiosity. It always seemed to me a counterpart of Rousseau's 'Emile.' The great philosopher of Geneva tried to reconcile an overcivilized community with nature; Restif shows the true Emile, the ignorant man of the country arriving at the capital, and destroyed by its corruption.

Grimod de la Reynière introduced Restif to the literary circles of the capital. He was soon considered as an insufferable original, full of vanity. Grimod gave him the money which paid for the illustrations of Binet, worthy of such a work, as they are full of license as well as of talent. Restif, elated by his success, composed a novel which he called 'The Perverted Country-Girl.' He was beginning to give himself out as a social reformer; wrote the 'School of Fathers,' the 'New Emile; or, Practical Education,' the 'Gynograph; or, Thoughts of Two Honest Women on a Project for Placing Women in all Europe in their Right Place, and Making the Happiness of Both Sexes,' the 'New Abélard.' His fecundity is almost alarming. He had a very curious way of composing some books. He seems to have been haunted during all his lifetime with the mania of love-making. He went every day before a milliner's shop in the Rue de Grenelle, and slipped love-letters into the hands of the young *grisettes* as they came out. He always kept a copy of them, and he introduced these letters in his novels. His deities were always of the lowest order—sometimes a florist, sometimes a vender of sausages. He was eminently a man of the people—a lover of street-scenery, like Paul de Kock. As often happens with such characters, his love of vulgarity was only perverted pride. In his 'Life of My Own Father' he makes for himself a genealogy. He discovered with many efforts that he was descended from the Emperor Pertinax. (Restif, in French, means 'tenacious'—'pertinax' in Latin.) He probably laughed himself, at first, at this discovery; but, by degrees, it

seems that his mind became quite accustomed to the reality of this genealogy.

The 'Contemporaines; or, Women of Our Time' forms an interminable series of forty-two volumes. They have fallen chiefly into the hands of milliners, not only in France, but in other countries, as the curious drawings of Binet form the best journal of fashion of the end of the eighteenth century. Restif himself superintended the work of the artist.

In the 'Découverte Australe,' we see in Restif, who was a very ignorant man, a predecessor of Darwin; he attempts to show that there was at first on the globe but one species of animals and one species of vegetables, and he had great difficulties with the royal censor on account of a chapter on monkeys considered as the ancestors of men. He returns constantly to his socialistic plans, and publishes the 'Andrograph; or, Ideas of an Honest Man on some Laws, presented to all the Nations of Europe, for a General Reform of Society and the Happiness of Mankind.' In this work he adopts communistic ideas, and Restif has sometimes been represented by the Phalansterians as one of their early apostles. His 'Last Adventures of a Man of Quality of Forty-Five Years' is, in M. Paul Lacroix's opinion, a *chef d'œuvre*, superior to 'Manon Lescaut.' "I composed this book," writes Restif himself, "as fast as the events happened. This has given to it the form of a journal. I was profoundly affected while I wrote it, and look upon it as the completion of my existence." I cannot share the enthusiasm of M. Lacroix; there is in this work some force, some truth, but sickly sentimentality mixed with sensuous ardor do not form a sufficient corrective for coarseness and vulgarity. The style of 'Manon Lescaut' is admirable in comparison with the odd, fatiguing, restless, incorrect style of Restif.

The work which he himself preferred to all his numerous productions was his 'Perverted Country-Girl.' The author, he himself wrote, has *thought* this book more than any other. He assures us that he composed it with tears in his eyes most of the time. "Woe," he exclaims in the fashion of Jean Jacques Rousseau, "to those whom these letters would not move, trouble, and tear; he would have no human soul, he would be a brute .... a brute or a purist." He often speaks of what he calls the purists: "The purists are the born enemies of all good."

When the revolution broke out, Restif remained, like Pierre de l'Estoile during the League, at home; still he gives us his impressions in the 'Paris Nights,' and in the fifteenth volume of 'Monsieur Nicolas' his indirect autobiography. He became, of course, a revolutionist. "French nation," he writes, "feed no more lions, or leopards, or unicorns; they are useless; feed the sheep, the horses, the donkeys, the pigs." He is not only a partisan of the revolution, he is a Parisian Communist. "Let us exalt our capital, let her be the centre of all." He has some feeling of pity, however, for Louis XVI.; he becomes by degrees an enemy of the new men in power; in 1793 he has ceased to be Republican or Jacobin, he is merely a Communist, a Socialist. He admires Marat, but calls Charlotte Corday an "interesting young person." He becomes frightened, and writes the most cowardly praises of the Mountain. The trial of Marie Antoinette moves him, but only as a romantic incident. The 'Paris Nights' ends with this dreadful incident. Restif dares not go on; he runs no more through the streets in the night; he trembles for himself. At the 9th Thermidor he begins to breathe again.

I must leave Restif here, but not without mentioning the splendid work called 'The Monument of Costume, Physical and Moral,' which owes its fame to the magnificent illustrations of Moreau, junior. It is a folio work with twenty-six engravings, which are all real works of art, and which fetch now almost fabulous prices when they are in good condition. I have omitted I don't know how many works; no man ever spent so much ink and paper; he wrote a novel a month, and all that will remain of him, after all, will be the mere titles of a few books—a dubious reputation. His name will never be pronounced without giving the sensation of something unclean; his soul was in reality that of a villain.

# Correspondence.

## MR. JOY AND THE BOSTON RAILROAD SCANDAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your article about the "Boston Railroad Scandal," and think it justifies me in asking you to read the enclosed communication.

I have never sought to avoid in any way before the world any share in any responsibility of any transaction in which I have been engaged, and at this late day I shall not in this. It has been a necessity of mine, having charge of railway interests in the West, to be compelled to report to the Board in Boston, for its consideration and action, the progress of railway construction in the West which might affect the interests which were under their and my charge. They could get the information in no other way. As I have said, this is a necessity under which any Western manager of a road whose Board and stockholders live East, must act. It is an ungrateful necessity, because, whatever the Board may do upon the fullest information, should there be an unfortunate result, the Western manager can easily be designated as "the prime mover and concocter of the scheme," and all the blame of results thrown upon him. You will notice, by reading the enclosed letter, more fully what this transaction was and the objects which were to be accomplished. They could not fail to have been fully discussed in the Board, and were so from time to time. The circular issued to the stockholders of the C., B. & Q. Company itself states enough to show that they were so discussed. It was my business and my duty to place the case before the Board, which I did fully, and was present at some of the discussions. Yet at the meeting when *final* action upon the matter by the C., B. & Q. Board was had, *I was not present*. This meeting was held June 5, 1871. I did recommend the traffic contract, which had been agreed to at a prior meeting, I think. I was not the originator or "concocter" of the plan of offering these bonds to the stockholders. That had been frequently done before, and, all things considered, was deemed by the Board expedient and a good thing to do in this case, as it had been in the former ones. I know they could easily have been sold outside at that time, and there was no necessity of offering them to stockholders. It was believed to be another good thing for them, like the many they had had before.

I have not the slightest disposition, however, to avoid responsibility on this account. Had I been present, I should have voted with the Board, approving and authorizing the circular; though, by the light of present experience, a portion of the plan to have been carried out has failed.

It is easy to blame when the result has been unfortunate, and very many will then seek to visit the censure upon others than themselves. But with the consciousness that our motives were the welfare of the C., B. & Q. and its stockholders, I am no more disposed to avoid my share of the responsibility than I am to give the whole credit to others in the numerous similar cases where, under similar circulars, bonds have been frequently offered to such holders, by the taking of which they have made large profits. In the thirteenth or fourteenth case, as it *now seems*, a mistake has been made. In all the prior ones, stockholders have been largely benefited. That they have not profited in this is matter of profound regret, and my judgment with regard to it may be gathered from the enclosed letter to Mr. Bartlett.—

Yours truly, J. F. Joy.

Detroit, March 16, 1875.

---

[We have examined with care the defence of his conduct to which the above communication from Mr. Joy refers. It is in the form of a published letter addressed to Mr. Sidney Bartlett of Boston, who, with some of his co-directors, came out with a card on the subject in one of the Boston papers. Mr. Joy complains that this card did not take "the firm and manly tone" which it should have taken, and also objects to the blame being thrown on him for what, as he maintains, all did together. He then proceeds to show, by a review of the circumstances (which he discusses in great detail), that it was for the interest of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Road, either for the purpose of preventing competition or of creating business, to obtain control of the Chicago, Clinton and Dubuque, and the Chicago, Dubuque and Minnesota, and that the directors of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy all agreed upon this policy as a sound one; that in pursuance of this plan the directors took stock in the construction companies, and the road itself guaranteed the bonds and sold them to its stockholders. As to the construction contract, he says that construction companies do "not in any degree vary or change the liability enacted by the law, and all, therefore, which Mr. Forbes said about the form of the contract has no meaning in it." By those who have followed the matter, it will be seen that Mr. Joy makes here substantially the same defence he did at the beginning, and that this defence in no way meets the charges against him. These charges were, first, that he, being director of one road, took a secret interest in the contract for building branch lines, the nature of this contract being to put in his and his partners' hands all the securities of the branches, without any

obligation being imposed on them to complete their work, and that he then, concealing the facts, sold the securities to his own stockholders; that is to say, he was to receive his share of the securities, and he was to induce people to whom he stood in the relation of trustee to buy them, the nature of contracts materially affecting their value not being revealed. It is the case of a trustee making contracts with himself at the expense of his *cestui que trust*. If the acquisition of these branch roads was really necessary to the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy might have undertaken to build them, dividing the benefits or losses among the stockholders; but that would have been a different thing from Mr. Joy with his friends undertaking secretly the work of building them, dividing all losses among the stockholders of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, and all benefits among themselves. The contracts with the construction companies are contracts, as Mr. Forbes very well put it, *not* to build the road. To say that because a construction company is approved by law, therefore any contract with any construction company is proper, shows a singular confusion of ideas. That this is actually the state of Mr. Joy's mind we may infer from the fact that he winds up his letter with a sort of defence of Crédit Mobilier, without which "institution," as he calls it, the Union Pacific could not, in his opinion, have been built.—Ed. Nation.]

## "RHETORICAL TRAINING."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest the articles which have appeared in the last two or three numbers of the *Nation* on the expediency of teaching schoolboys the art of declamation. I do not write for publication, but simply to give you the result of my experience as an instructor of boys. Several years ago I became convinced that it was worse than folly to teach a boy to declaim before you had taught him to think; that the polish which the elocutionist could give him was useless without the well-ordered brain to back it up. And I also found that to attempt to teach him to declaim in public and to learn to think — both at the same time — was impossible. To learn the latter process is dry and uninteresting compared with the former. To declaim well in public is to be followed by more or less flattery, and soon the boy comes to believe that there is nothing in the world quite so essential to make one a great man as to be able to spout well. I am now surprised to know how exactly I had arrived at the very conclusions that you have given us in the *Nation*. So of late years I have given up the practice of having boys declaim publicly. In its place, I practise them somewhat as follows:

On Saturday morning the boys are all assembled in a proper place, when several of them, who have been designated the week before, stand up and expound in turn some subject upon which they have thought and studied. They are required to make the argument or explanation logically, to express themselves clearly and in good language, and are never allowed to talk on any subject beyond their comprehension. It is all done in a conversational way, soberly and carefully. For instance, to-day their subjects are the difference between the polar and equatorial diameters of the earth, the construction and use of the thermometer, the construction and use of the barometer and how it differs from the thermometer; and some of the more advanced boys talk on more speculative subjects. This teaches boys to think and speak on their legs, without offering any inducement to use high-flown expressions or windy rhetoric. It teaches boys to investigate and learn the cause of things, and, what is of most importance, never to attempt to talk to others on a subject they do not understand. I find that boys subjected to this discipline soon acquire an unmistakable contempt for "spread-eagle" orators in politics, religion, or science.

One thing is certain, that rhetoric, as taught in American schools and colleges, has not produced a class of *thinking* men. We have hosts of men of superior oratorical powers, and who can describe to you with great accuracy all the figures and constructions found in rhetoric. But we have few men, even in our legislative bodies, who can express themselves clearly and with force, and who do not lug into every discourse they make some glittering generality or windy passage having no connection with their subject. I beg pardon for referring to my own work in this matter. I have a hearty contempt for the effusions of the average American statesman; and now that you have taken the subject up, I trust you will say something further on this matter of educating boys.—Very respectfully,

M. A. K

Oakfield, N. Y., March 20, 1875.

# Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will shortly publish a volume of selections from the correspondence of the late Mrs. Henry M. Field, entitled 'Home Sketches in France,' which will be looked for with interest by those who have known the writer's unusual gifts and opportunities for observation in her native country.——Mr. J. Disturnell proposes to publish by subscription a Centennial guide to this metropolis, 'New York as It Was and as It Is' (1776–1876).——Mr. Geo. F. Hoar makes a strong appeal in the Boston *Advertiser* for Massachusetts aid in rebuilding the College of William and Mary, Virginia, which was needlessly, not to say wantonly, destroyed in 1862 by Federal troops. The college has had illustrious graduates—Jefferson, Monroe, Marshall, Peyton, and Edmund Randolph, among others—and gave a surveyor's diploma to Washington. The XLIId Congress just failed of making an appropriation for it, to which there could have been no moral objection. In the meantime, private legislation has fallen into deserved disrepute, and the college apparently abandons all expectation of Congressional assistance. We shall be glad if Mr. Hoar's appeal is responded to; and yet if we were Virginians, we should perhaps favor merging William and Mary with some stronger college in the State, which has too many colleges for its means and population.——The chief feature of the *Geographical Magazine* for March is an account of Lieut. Cameron's voyage round Lake Tanganyika, which resulted in his finding the outlet overlooked by Livingstone—an omission which probably cost the latter his life. A sketch survey of the lake by Cameron is superimposed on one by Livingstone, and shows important differences. In Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for January 30 there is an admirable map of Chili in two parts, derived from the national survey, in which this country has taken the lead of all the other South American States. No such precision in delineating the Andes has heretofore been attained.——A work whose importance must ensure its eventually being translated into English is Dr. Neumayer's 'Anleitung zu wissenschaftlichen Beobachtungen auf Reisen,' or instructions for the making of scientific observations by travellers. The editor has had the assistance, in separate chapters, of authorities like Koner, Kiepert, Virchow, von Richthofen, Bastian, Schweinfurth, von Martens, etc. For the subject-matter of the book, one may consult the last issue of *Nature* (Jan. 25).——Mr. F. Leypoldt makes the gratifying announcement in his *Publishers' Weekly* that he is going to begin the compilation of his American Finding List at once, and hopes to complete the first volume in time for the Centennial. Once published, it will be supplemented by an annual catalogue on the same plan, "so that the American bookseller will have a Finding List always up to date."

—We are authorized to state that a number of sets of the photographic copies of Mantegna's "Triumph of Julius Cæsar" are now ready for delivery, and that American subscribers can procure them by sending two guineas to the treasurer of the Mantegna Society, Mr. Joseph Dickson, 5 Brick Court, Temple, London, E.C., together with the address of their London agent. This mode of delivery is preferred, but the photographs will be forwarded, if necessary, through the ordinary agencies at the subscriber's expense. "Considering the artistic importance of these works," writes Mr. Wallis, "I may suggest they would be most valuable to art societies, literary institutes, and educational establishments generally."

—Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-book' for 1875 (New York: Macmillan & Co.) bears the marks of conscientious revision since its last issue, and, with its chronicle of events, its comparative tables (considerably renewed), and its political and statistical account of the civilized states of the world, continues to be a most useful manual for study and reference. The *Année Scientifique* and *Année Géographique* are to be supplemented hereafter by a third serial, the *Année Politique* of M. André Daniel (New York: F. W. Christern). The first volume reviews the politics of the year 1874, but, for completeness' sake, also briefly summarizes for France the incidents leading up to the change of Executive on May 24, 1873, and those which succeeded to the end of that year. M. Daniel we judge to be a moderate Republican, and one of the adherents of M. Thiers while that chief remained in power. His review is naturally fullest in regard to French affairs; indeed, it professes to embrace those of foreign nations only so far as they have attracted attention in France or have had some relation to that country. This seems to us the weak point in the editing. The reported capture of Nana Sahib finds admission where no reference is made to the Tichborne case, though the latter caused much the more lasting sensation the world over, and is now proved to have had an important political significance. The United States enters upon the scene

but once—by reason of the November elections; and doubtless if no other event were to be mentioned, this outweighed all others in our political history last year. Nevertheless, a sufficient resemblance to French methods of controlling elections might have been detected in Grant's dealings with Louisiana to warrant an allusion to Kellogg and De Trobriand. M. Daniel's plan of treating each month separately has its advantages, but we hardly think it as favorable to obtaining a clear and connected idea of history as the treatment by country. If we were forced to choose, for instance, we might prefer the chapter on France in Macmillan's 'Annual Register' to the broken-up *Année Politique*. M. Daniel gives in his appendix a number of documents and *pièces justificatives*, viz., the text of the German ecclesiastical legislation of 1873; M. Teutsch's extravagant remarks in the Reichstag in February, 1874; part of Count Arnim's letter to Döllinger (April 21, 1874); the various papers involved in the Arnim trial relating to the condition of factions in France; the new French imposts (March 21, 1874); the Russian programme at the International Congress at Brussels; Carlist chieftains' orders; Señor Vega de Armijo's note to the Duc Decazes (Oct. 9, 1874), etc., etc.

—With the exception of the "Bible in the Public Schools" case in Cincinnati, the most interesting ecclesiastical suit which for some time has come before the courts is that of Hale *v.* Everett, in New Hampshire. A great deal of the decision (a full copy of which has been issued by the State Reporter) turns on local provisions of the New Hampshire constitution and laws; but the main facts were these. Some years ago, Mr. F. E. Abbot, whose name will be recognized by many of our readers as that of the author of some clever metaphysical articles in the *North American Review*, but who is much more widely known now as the editor of the *Index*, a radical Boston paper, was called to the pulpit of a Unitarian church in New Hampshire. The *Index* prints every week a little platform headed "The Demands of Liberalism," which are, 1st, that all ecclesiastical property shall be taxed; 2d, that the employment of chaplains in Congress and other public situations shall be discontinued; 3d, that all public appropriations to sectarian uses shall cease; 4th, that all Governmental religious services shall be abolished, especially the use of the Bible in the public schools; 5th, that the public appointment of fast and feast days shall cease; 6th, that all oaths be abolished; 7th, that laws for the observance of the Sabbath shall be repealed; 8th, that all laws looking to the enforcement of "Christian" morality shall be abrogated, and that all laws shall be conformed to the requirements of natural morality, equal rights, and impartial liberty; 9th, that politics shall be secularized, and Christianity "or any other special religion" be deprived of all special privileges. The *Index* counts among its "editorial contributors" persons of such widely different views as Mr. O. B. Frothingham, Mrs. E. D. Cheney, Rev. Charles Voysey, and Prof. Francis W. Newman; but we suppose the programme quoted above expresses the views of the editor-in-chief, and from them it clearly appears that he is not now a conservative. When he went to New Hampshire, however, to preach for "The First Unitarian Society of Christians in Dover," his attitude towards the Christian church was less purely negative, for the court finds that at the time of his ordination he had two children baptized "in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost," and he appears to have "believed in Jesus Christ as the Messiah," and regarded his religion "as a revelation from God." This was in 1864, but from this time forward Mr. Abbot (to whom the court pays a high compliment on the score of the truthfulness and integrity of his character) gradually changed his religious views, becoming more and more radical, till April 1, 1868, when he resigned.

—Towards the latter part of his ministry it appears that he voluntarily abandoned all connection with Christianity, making statements in sermons and other public ways to the effect that "Jesus Christ was like other men, with no more authority," compared him with good men now living; said that he considered Christ a mere men, and fallible like other men; that Christ was not the Messiah; that if he believed himself to be the Messiah, he was mistaken; that the New Testament showed that Christ did claim to be the Messiah, but that he (Abbot) believed the Messiah had not come and would not come. He openly declared himself neither a Christian nor a Unitarian, announced his belief that Christianity was "merely one of many religions," each "partly true and partly false." He also declared that "humanity is its own Messiah," and that "religion has no more to do with Jesus than it has with Judas." From these extracts it appears, says the court, that the charge "that said Abbot was a progressive man, and that he changed his opinions from time to time," was true. In the course of Mr. Abbot's progress towards his present position he, of course, dissatisfied a great many of his congregation, and the members finally split into two parties, both of which naturally desired to get hold of the church property. An independent society was organized which desired to retain Mr. Abbot; this they proposed substantially to do by hiring him to preach and swallowing up the church organization in their own. Certain members, however, protesting against it, brought a bill in equity against the wardens of the society and others, praying for an injunction, and this they got, the Supreme Court holding that the church property being held in trust for a "Christian Unitarian Church" could only be used to support Christian Unitarian worship; that the doctrines preached by Abbot were subversive of Christianity and Unitarianism. An injunction, which we take to be somewhat novel in form, was issued forbidding the society to hire, employ, allow, suffer, or permit Francis E. Abbot, or any other person, to preach and inculcate in the meeting-house of the society doctrines subversive of the fundamental principles of Christianity, as generally received and holden by the denomination of Christians known as Unitarians; or "to employ, suffer, or permit to preach in said meeting-house any person who rejects Christianity altogether; or who teaches that, as a system of religion, Christianity is partly true and partly false; or who preaches or inculcates a disbelief in the doctrine of the Lordship and Messiahship of Jesus Christ, as taught by him in the New Testament Scriptures, or a disbelief in Jesus Christ as the great head of the church, or of his divine mission and authority as a religious teacher, as thus taught by him; or who preaches and inculcates a denial of the doctrine that the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments do contain a divine revelation given by inspiration of God, and containing a sufficient and perfect rule of faith and practice."

—The North Carolina House of Representatives has just expelled one of its members for heresy. This gentleman, Mr. J. Williams Thorne, is a birthright member of the Society of Friends, and for twenty years has been associated with the body known as Progressive Friends, who annually assemble in Chester County, Pennsylvania. From this neighborhood Mr. Thorne removed, in 1869, to Warren County, N. C., as a *bonâ-fide* settler, with no political aspirations. Nominated last year by the Republicans as a Representative, he was elected and took his seat, and presently found himself on trial as an atheist. If this accusation could have been proved, it would, under the State constitution, have disqualified him; but Mr. Thorne affirmed in the most solemn manner that he always had believed, and did then believe, in the existence of a God, and he laid before the House a great many testimonials to the same effect from his friends and co-religionists in the North. He declared his perfect adhesion to the definition of God contained in the first of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England, and was soundly abused for this definition by one of his opponents, who had not recognized the source of the formula. All this availed nothing, except to make it impossible to expel Mr. Thorne for atheism; but he was got rid of on the ground that he had "advocated and promulgated a most blasphemous document, subversive of the principles of the constitution of North Carolina and of sound morality." The constitution, however, only disqualifies those from holding civil office who "deny the being of Almighty God"; and nobody could affirm for Mr. Thorne what he himself denied. The previous constitution, it is true, disqualified "all persons who shall deny the truth of the Christian religion or the divine authority of the Old or New Testament," but the omission of this disability in framing the present instrument was an unmistakable sign of progress in toleration. (The Jews used to be excluded from office as denying the divine authority of the New Testament; and the Catholics were only emancipated in 1835.) Mr. Thorne's opinions as to the inspiration or validity of the Scriptures, therefore, were of no concern to the House. Nevertheless, the majority, adopting the view taken by the Hon. Mr. Staples, that "he who denied any portion of the Bible necessarily denied the existence of God," expelled Mr. Thorne, and the next day voted to exclude the Bible from the public schools.

—The amusing feature of this case is that the pretext made use of by Mr. Thorne's opponents was a pamphlet written some months before, in reply to a lecture in Pennsylvania by the Rev. Joseph Barker, who had asserted that, "as a class, those who denied the divine authority of the Bible were inferior in morals to those who accepted it." This was a serious reflection by the reverend gentleman on his own past career, inasmuch as it is not many years since he himself was what he would now call a "howling infidel," and used to make the West resound with his "blasphemies." Mr. Thorne tried to meet him in public debate—once a favorite amusement of Mr. Barker's—and, failing in that, resorted to his pamphlet, which is in no sense atheistical. Mr. Thorne is a Unitarian and a Darwinist (he was charged "with believing that man is a spontaneous production of the earth"); and he considers as spurious in the Bible whatever conflicts with

his own notion of the character of the Deity. It is clear, however, that Mr. Thorne's political sentiments were the cause of his ill-treatment, he being a "civil-righter," and in other respects a Radical Republican of the Quaker variety. During the canvass preceding his election, one Alfred Christmas, whom we take to be a colored man, alleged that for eighteen months, "while he lived with me," to use Mr. Thorne's own words, "I invariably weighed out his rations one pound short," and that "I was in the habit of playing cards with him on Sunday, and winning back the money which I had paid him on Saturday evening." Mr. Thorne repelled these charges as ridiculous; and so they were, for the fact is that he is a very worthy citizen, if not a Democrat or a native of North Carolina.

—"Almost the only real incidents," says Hawthorne in writing in 'Our Old Home' of his consular experiences—"almost the only real incidents, as I see them now, were the visits of a young English friend, a scholar and a literary amateur, between whom and myself there sprang up an affectionate and, I trust, not transitory regard. He used to come and sit or stand by my fireside, talking vivaciously and eloquently with me about literature and life, his own national characteristics and mine, with such kindly endurance of the many rough republicanisms wherewith I assailed him, and such frank and amiable assertion of all sorts of English prejudices and mistakes, that I understood his countrymen infinitely the better for him, and was almost prepared to love the intensest Englishman of them all for his sake. It would gratify my cherished remembrance of this dear friend if I could manage without offending him, or letting the public know it, to introduce his name upon my page. Bright was the illumination of my dusky little apartment as often as he made his appearance there." Never was compliment more prettily concealed and conveyed, and Hawthorne was by no means the only American who knew that the crowning grace of these cordial words lay not so much in their sincerity as in their fitness. Hawthorne speaks of his friend as a literary amateur, and in this character Mr. Bright has just printed a little volume for private distribution, of interest to all the admirers of the genius of Burns. It is called 'Some Account of the Glenriddell MSS. of Burns's Poems: with several Poems never before published. Edited by Henry A. Bright.' It appears from Mr. Bright's preface that, more than twenty years ago, the widow of a son of Dr. Currie, the biographer of Burns, presented to the Liverpool Athenæum two manuscript volumes, one of them containing poems and the other letters by Burns, mostly in the poet's autograph, and selected by him for his friend Robert Riddell, of Glenriddell, Esq. These volumes had remained almost unnoticed in the Athenæum library till they recently attracted Mr. Bright's attention. The volume of letters contained some unpublished matter, most of which Mr. Bright sent to the (London) *Athenæum* of August 1, 1874. The collection of poems, a quarto volume of 162 pages, was made by the poet, as appears from the preface in his handwriting, in 1791, at the request of his friend Mr. Riddell, and as a tribute of gratitude to him and to his amiable lady "for the many, many happy hours the author has spent under their roof." He speaks of it as consisting "almost wholly of pieces local or unfinished," and he "trusts that nobody into whose hands it may come will, without his permission, give or allow to be taken copies of anything here contained, much less give to the world at large what he never meant to see the light." But, as Mr. Bright says, "almost everything the book contains has long since been given to the world, and the few things that Dr. Currie omitted, mainly on account of their political bias, may now at last be allowed 'to see the light.'"

—It is a pathetic circumstance, indeed, that the poet's injunctions should have been violated almost from the moment of his death. In Dr. Currie's memoir of the poet he prints a letter from a lady who saw Burns but a short time before his death, in 1796, in which she reports him as being in great concern about the publication of his posthumous works. "He said he was well aware that his death would occasion some noise, and that every scrap of his writing would be revived against him to the injury of his future reputation; that letters and verses which he earnestly wished to have buried in oblivion would be handled about by idle vanity or malevolence," and more to the same effect. Burns's reputation is indeed proof against his own poor verses, but a good deal that has been published under his name might better have remained in oblivion. The volume of letters that Burns gave to Captain Riddell shows the value he set on these compositions. In his well-known autobiographical letter to Dr. Moore he says; "I kept copies of any of my own letters that pleased me, and a comparison between them and the composition of most of my correspondents flattered my vanity." His letters have the faults for which such a confession prepares their readers. The manuscript volume of poems contains several of the best and most noted of his works, such as "Tam o' Shanter," "Holy Willie's Prayer," and "On Captain Grose's Peregrinations." Almost everything of worth, much or little, had been printed, but Mr. Bright's pious and tender regard for the poet's work was rewarded by a considerable number of variations in the text of familiar pieces; by two unpublished stanzas in the Epistle or Letter to John Gowdie, "O Gowdie! terror o' the Whigs"; by an Ode to the Departed Regency Bill, 1789, which is not distinguished by any flashes of genius; and by some hitherto unprinted portions of an Ode on the Birthday of Charles Edward, 31st Dec., 1787. In this piece there are two or three verses that show the poet. It begins with vigor:

> "Afar the illustrious exile roams,
> Whom kingdoms on this day should hail;
> An inmate in the casual shed,
> On transient pity's bounty fed,
> Haunted by busy memory's bitter tale."

The best of the new pieces printed by Mr. Bright is called "A Fragment—On Glenriddell's Fox Breaking His Chain." There is liveliness in it and point to its satire, and it may well be included in future complete editions of Burns's works. Mr. Bright has done his editorial work with entire skill, discretion, and modesty.

—The *Saturday Review* has recently noticed Dr. Bastian's last experiments favorably; but the incompleteness of his induction of the death-point of bacterial germs will appear from the following considerations. Professor Wyman, having many years ago repeated the original experiments of Pasteur, arrived at the conclusion, as the result of his investigations, that one of two generalizations in biology must be given up: namely, the doctrine that all living beings are derived from germs, or the doctrine that all germs are destroyed by a wet heat of about 150 degrees Fahrenheit, and that direct inductive evidence was not sufficient for deciding which of these two propositions must be considered limited in its generality. There can be little question, however, that on general deductive or philosophical grounds, such as have doubtless determined the scepticism of Dr. Bastian's critics, the eminent experimenter would not have hesitated as to which of the two doctrines he would limit as to its universality. The temperature at which life is destroyed is one of a class of empirical facts which would not be likely to have the precise generality which belongs to the other principle—*omne vivum ex ovo*—which Professor Huxley has claimed to be positively settled in biological science. And there are deductive physical reasons for believing that the action of heat on minute organic bodies, like those of infusoria, is not so disorganizing as upon larger organic bodies; so that it is possible that the germs, although paralyzed and injured by a heat necessarily less of course than that which would alter the chemical properties of the infusion itself, might yet so far retain life that their vigor might be more or less recovered under favorable circumstances. Dr. Bastian's attempt, therefore, to submit the question of the death-point to a test experiment might have been objected to before the experiment was tried, as not ensuring these favorable circumstances, since the mineral salts in which the uninjured germs of bacteria will flourish may be unfavorable to the development of the paralyzed or partially disorganized ones; as is indeed indicated by the fact that the "test-fluids" were chosen because in them life does not arise without inoculation or the introduction of vigorous germs. In fact, it seems obvious that there is a perfectly legitimate hypothesis in this matter of which no experimental tests can be made. All that is undoubtedly proved is that bacteria, when subjected to a temperature of 140 to 160 degrees Fahrenheit, are so far injured as to be unable to recover upon such poor hospital-fare as Dr. Bastian's test-fluids; *ergo, id est non demonstrandum*, and the position taken by Professor Wyman is still valid.

## EDGAR ALLAN POE.*

IT is indicative of a renewal of interest in the character of Poe that nearly simultaneous biographies should be published on both sides of the Atlantic whose chief if not entire object is to clear his name from the aspersions thrown on it by the misstatements of Griswold, self-appointed foster-father of all new-born American genius. In this they are both and singly successful, Mr. Stoddard in his brief memoir doing summary justice to the detractions, without at the same time hiding from himself the real faults of the man or seeking to throw a false light on his personal character. Mr. Ingram, on the contrary, apparently regarding himself as the sole and appointed restorer of a reputation which he considers Poe's countrymen and the world at large to have set themselves to tarnish, whitewashes him so completely that his American friends would hardly know him. He contemptu-

* 'Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Edited by John H. Ingram.' 4 vols. Edinburgh A. & C. Black.
'Poems of Edgar Allan Poe, with an Original Memoir by R. H. Stoddard.' New York: W. J. Widdleton. 1875.

ously ignores every story that tends to the discredit of his hero, and loses no opportunity to manifest his sense of American unworthiness of so great a fortune as to be the birthplace of his Magnus Apollo. Not content with proving (no more convincingly, however, than Mr. Stoddard) that Griswold was a slanderer, he tries to trace every rumor discreditable to Poe to the same or similar sources. Alluding to the verdict of the court-martial which dismissed him from West Point, Mr. Ingram, with a total misapprehension of all the bearings of the case (pardonable, perhaps, in an Englishman who dislikes America, and rather prefers to show that he does), says: "In the grandiloquent style of the Academy officials, he was 'dismissed the service of the United States'! Better for him, poor fellow, and better for the credit of his countrymen, if he had then and there accepted the fiat of the Academy officials as that of his nation, and sought on some foreign shore the hospitality denied him by his own countrymen." But why "grandiloquent"? Having been tried by court-martial and pleaded guilty to all the charges, and being, while a pupil of the Academy, in the service and under the pay of the United States, what simpler English could have been employed than "dismissed the service of the United States"? And why "accept the fiat of the Academy officials as that of his nation, etc."? What earthly connection is there between his dismissal from the Military Academy, of which he was a most discreditable pupil, *as pupil*, and exile from his native land? But why exile at all? Poe was received by his countrymen with all the fervor and enthusiasm an ordinate ambition could ask; he had plenty of work if he would do it, plenty of friends whom he took no pains to keep. He quarrelled with every one who had a less indiscriminate admiration of him than Mr. Ingram has; was adopted by a wealthy man, whose money he wasted at wine and cards, and whose affection he alienated by all sorts of misconduct, and who finally forbade him his house. He attacked every literary man of eminence greater than his own with virulent and senseless abuse, and, though poor, had that sublime contempt for earning money which Mr. Ingram would call philosophic, perhaps, but which common-sense people in America call shiftlessness. But will Mr. Ingram assure us that his treatment by his countrymen was worse than that of Keats, Shelley, Byron, or many others whom he better than we can name, by theirs?

Mr. Ingram sneers at the cadets at West Point because they received with "ridicule" a volume of Poe's poems which was not at all what he had promised them, and which even in its present shape contains much sheer rubbish. Mr. Stoddard shows that this was a volume published by subscription of the cadets, at two dollars and fifty cents—an enormous price in those days, and which they "paid in advance almost to a man." "When the volume appeared, they were disgusted with it. It was a penny volume, of about fifty pages, bound in boards, and badly printed on coarse paper, and, worse than all, it contained not one of the squibs and satires upon which his reputation had been built up. Few of the poems contained in that collection now appear in any of the editions of his works, and such as have been preserved have been very much altered for the better" (letter from Maj. Boynton, West Point). But here Mr. Stoddard, in common with his English colleague, fails to see that what the cadets wanted in the book was just exactly what Poe left out and what they had been interested in him for. They hardly cared, we may naturally conclude, for sentimental efforts of any kind, and were scarcely to be expected to perceive the promise in these crude efforts, which, like others more celebrated, would have escaped even Mr. Ingram's eyes had Poe not lived to write the "Raven."

In explanation of Poe's separation from his adopted father, Mr. Ingram merely says that they had "a violent quarrel." Stoddard says: "It is in the recollection of the lady who was his playmate in childhood that he insisted on seeing Mr. Allan, who was confined to his bed by illness, and that Mrs. Allan, not being willing to risk the scene that was likely to have ensued, refused him admittance to her husband's room. This excited his wrath, and he broke forth into invectives against her of a nature so insulting that it became necessary Mr. Allan should know of them, and that he should be forbidden the house." Ingram says of the prize award for the "Saturday Visitor" tales: "Some well-known literary men consented to adjudicate, . . . and, after a careful consideration of the various contributions, decided unanimously that Poe was entitled to both premiums." Stoddard says: "The elegance of his penmanship tempted one of the committee who was to make the award to read several pages of the MS. volume in which these sketches were written. He was interested in them, as were also the others, so much so that they decided to read no more of the manuscripts, but to give the prizes to 'the first of geniuses who had written legibly'"—which is substantially Griswold's account. This Mr. Ingram denies circumstantially, and asserts that two of the committee surviving denied the story; but his extreme carelessness throughout in quoting authorities, and strong bias against every statement which opposes his notion of Poe, make it impossible to accord the credit which he does to the favorable version, where there are two, of the same event.

Mr. Ingram again explains Poe's critical malignity and the ill-feeling it excited as "the dauntless intrepidity with which he assailed the fragile reputation of the small book-makers," while his associate in one of his literary undertakings, the English Burton, writes to him on the subject: "You must, my dear sir, get rid of your avowed ill-feelings towards your brother authors. . . . You say the people love havoc; I think they love justice." As to his critical justice, Mr. Ingram does not leave us to infer it when he tells us that in his "Literati" he assigned the highest position to Mrs. Osgood!

Mr. Ingram denies persistently that Poe was addicted to intoxication from his academical days—considering this only as the failing of his "lonesome latter years." Mr. Stoddard quotes Mrs. Allan as saying to a visitor in the family: "Mr. Gilliet, what *do* you think of Edgar? His father has just paid an enormous sum for his debts in Charlotteville, and now here is a bill for quantities of champagne and seventeen broadcloth coats, which he has gambled away." "Yes," answered Edgar, "I went to see how much of the old man's money I could spend, and I have done it." "The university was then a most dissolute place, and Mr. Edgar A. Poe was remarked as the most dissolute and dissipated youth in the university," writes one of the most friendly of his biographers, though this is partially contradicted by a fellow-student writing nearly thirty years later. "At West Point," according to Mr. Stoddard, "instead of his boyish drink, champagne, he drank brandy, and his room was seldom without a bottle of the best that could be smuggled in. It shattered his nerves and made him appear much older than he was."

The picture which we must draw even from the conflict of testimonies does not justify Poe's English biographer in inveighing against the Americans for not doing for him what it was quite impossible for any one to do. If his vices were genial ones, they were still those which necessarily entail the greatest hardships on the individual and leave their curses on his own shoulders. Neither England nor America could have made him a happy man. The final scenes of his tragic life are by Mr. Ingram wrapped up in a mystery which becomes the friend more than the biographer. Mr. Stoddard has taken the pains to investigate all the particulars, and we learn from him that on a journey preparatory to being married to his early love, he got intoxicated at Baltimore, and, wandering in the streets on the eve of an election, was drugged by election agents, used next day as a repeater, and then picked up senseless and carried to a hospital, where he died four days after leaving Richmond. His wretched life and still more wretched death were not owing to want of friends or want of appreciation; for, unlike the illustrious Joaquin Miller, he did not need to go to England to find his place in the world of letters.

Of the selections which follow both memoirs much need not be said. Some of the poems are silly enough, and much of the prose of the English edition would have been omitted by an editor considerate of his author's reputation. Such stuff as "The Oval Portrait," "The Island of the Fay," and some others, can but diminish the fame of the author of "The Gold-bug" and "The Descent into the Maelstrom."

## SMITH'S ASSYRIAN DISCOVERIES.*

THE ordinary reading public knows nothing more of George Smith than that he discovered, and translated two years ago, the Deluge Myth of the Babylonians. Oriental scholars know him not so much by this lucky find as by his association, as the successor of Edwin Norris, in editing the British Museum series of Cuneiform inscriptions, as the collector and translator in a quarto volume of 'The Annals of Assurbanipal,' and as the author of numerous papers on Assyriology in English and German-Oriental publications. They know him as one who, from his employment in the British Museum, has had exceptional advantages for the study of Assyrian texts, and as one of the most fluent translators of them. His limitations come from his lack of philological training. Col. Rawlinson commenced his study of Assyrian with the advantage of familiarity gained in the East with other languages. Mr. Smith, a man without liberal culture, commencing his philological study with Assyrian, has almost by intuition gained a knowledge of that language. But he has not been able to help himself as he needs by the flood of light which the Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, and Arabic, and, we suspect, the Ethiopic, might throw upon it. This was the weakness of Dr. Norris, whose Assyrian dictionary is constant evidence

* 'Assyrian Discoveries: an Account of Explorations and Discoveries on the Site of Nineveh, during 1873 and 1874. By George Smith.' With illustrations. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

that he was not master even of the Hebrew or Syriac information which he gleaned from Gesenius's or Castell's Lexicon. We are hopeful that A. H. Sayce in England and E. C. Schrader in Germany are the *avant-courriers*, though scarcely more than that, of a new and more philosophical school of Assyriologists. Great credit thus far is due to Oppert and Menant in France, and to Rawlinson, Hincks, Norris, and Fox Talbot in England, who by unguided and unchecked enthusiasm have laid the foundation and so much of the superstructure of Assyriology. These men, with their no less laborious disciples, Sayce, Smith, Schrader, and the singularly fertile Lenormant, have achieved wonders ; but thus far not one accomplished Semitic scholar has attacked Assyrian, the most interesting of its family, unless that shall prove true of the son of Dr. Delitzsch, whose opening lexicographical studies are extremely promising.

The present volume is the work of one who is simply a translator, and is valuable only for its translations. Mr. Smith doubtless is a successful explorer, but he has no skill in telling of his explorations. We imagine that he made no great impression as a correspondent of the London *Telegraph*, which sent him on his first expedition. In this respect this volume is far inferior to the similar works of Loftus, Rich, or Layard, while on the other hand it lacks the labored learning of Oppert's 'Expédition scientifique en Mésopotamie.' Apparently aware of his weakness as a narrator, the author modestly cuts the story of his excavations as short as possible, and devotes most of the volume to what doubtless most interested him—the translation of the texts which he discovered or completed. We must add that he evidently performed his explorations much better than he has narrated them. Mr. Smith is the first explorer who knew precisely what to seek, where to look for it, and when he had found it. He went, not for bas-reliefs or statues, but for records ; not for art, but for literature. He therefore opened no new palaces, though plenty of such there are, but first of all the ancient library of Assurbanipal in the palace of Sennacherib, a portion of whose *lateres coctiles* were the best spoil which Layard brought from Nineveh. Some thousands more of the broken clay leaves of this magnificent royal library Mr. Smith was able to secure in the brief period of his excavations, completing some important texts, of which Layard had secured a part, and filling up important gaps in our knowledge of Assyrian and Babylonian history.

We wish that Mr. Smith had indicated more conspicuously to the eye what is new and what is old in the texts which he has translated. In December of 1872 he published a translation of his Deluge Tablet as far as then known to him. More of it he has since discovered, and has added considerably to other parts of the epic of which this is a fragment ; all of which, old and new, is here given, with no indication of the new portions. The same is true of a principal text of 'Assurbanipal,' which he first published in 1871. Just how much is new can be learned only by laborious comparison with his previous publications and with such extremely valuable works as Menant's 'Annales des Rois d'Assyrie,' published last year, and the same author's 'Babylone et la Chaldée,' published a few weeks ago.

The inscriptions translated by Mr. Smith are almost exclusively either historical or mythological. The only exceptions worth mentioning are a few lines on astronomical observations, and a few excellent moral reflections for kings, reminding them that

> "When, according to the laws of his country, the king does not speak,
> The God Hea, lord of destiny, shall utter his fate, and he shall be set aside."

Menant, in the last volume above-cited, can mention but one king of Babylon before Hammurabi, who reigned about 1500 B.C. A new tablet of Smith's contains the genealogy of six kings who probably reigned prior to 2000 B.C., and is of interest as indicating the worship at this early period of nearly the whole of the later Babylonian Pantheon. We wish that in speaking of this inscription of Agukak-rimi Mr. Smith had told us why he reads "Agu" instead of "Sin." There are about ten very early Chaldean kings in whose names this element occurs, being the name of a god which Mr. Smith has hitherto read "Sin," as does Menant in a volume published since this of Smith's. Another gap just before the Assyrian conquest of Babylon, about 1270 B.C., is filled by two new kings. Turning from Babylon to Assyria, we have given a very important new inscription of eighty lines, belonging to the age of Bin-nirari, 1320 B.C., or Vul-nirari, as Smith calls him, for he seems unreasonably slow to accept Lenormant's determination of the name of the god who forms the first element in the name of this king. We had hitherto known only the bare names of this king and his three immediate predecessors. The inscription shows us Assyria as at this date the leading power in Western Asia, and the conqueror of numerous neighboring peoples, including the strongest tribe in Babylonia. Mr. Smith occupies a large space with the annals of Tiglath Pileser II. Although these badly-mutilated records include the very important names of Azariah and Ahaz, kings of Judah, and Menahem, Pekah, and Hoshea, kings of Israel, we cannot say that much has been added of interest. The new fragments do not relate to Palestinian or Assyrian invasions, and these names have been carefully studied. Here a curious fact may be noted. The English scholars appear to agree with Mr. Smith in recognizing the name of Azariah, while the French scholars are unanimous in making the Asriahu of the inscription to be the son of Tabeel, whose name is not given in the Jewish Scriptures. The new inscriptions of Sargon add very little of importance to what was already known of him, and the same may be said of the long inscription of Sennacherib. The two inscriptions of Esarhaddon are, we believe, entirely new. It was known before—chiefly from the titles assumed by this king—that he had carried on a campaign in Egypt. Considerable particulars of this campaign are here given. Sixty pages are then allowed to his son Assurbanipal's annals, as given in "Cylinder A." But we find on comparison of this text with the two volumes in which it has previously been published by Mr. Smith (one of them a very cheap and accessible book) that the changes are very slight and the additions insignificant. We notice that Urdamane, king of Egypt, son of Sabaco, is here always misprinted "Undamane." A new portion of "Cylinder C" is given, but it adds nothing to history. This brings us very near to the close of the Assyrian monarchy. Who Assurbanipal's successor was is not certainly known. It has been hitherto supposed to have been an inconspicuous Assur-edil-ili, but Mr. Smith has discovered one Bel-zakir-iskun, whose inscription, however, is of no importance. There are a few inscriptions of a later period, including several of a Persian or Parthian date, one of which is important as fixing the beginning of the Parthian era in 248 B.C.

Even more important than these historical monuments are the mythological tablets. Mr. Smith seems bound to make the most of his own spoils in the East, and they were considerable, but the bulk of his mythological texts, while new to the public, have long lain untranslated in the British Museum. The new portion by which he now completes the story of the Flood is very short and of no special interest. We have, however, for the first time a translation of all that has been found in the Epos of Izdubar. Our first interest in it was to discover whether or not it substantiates Rawlinson's conjecture (*Athenæum*, Dec. 7, 1872), that its twelve books would be found to correspond appropriately to the twelve months, and that the legend is thus a solar myth representing the passage of the sun through the Zodiac. Mr. Smith says that the narrative plainly contradicts such a theory ; and though so good an Assyrian scholar as Mr. Sayce has very lately attempted to controvert Mr. Smith on this point, it appears to us to have been on insufficient grounds. Only two tablets, the sixth and the eleventh, show any clear parallelism with the corresponding months. The sixth tablet recounts the unsuccessful suit of Ishtar or Venus, and the sixth month had the symbolic name of the "month of the revenge of Ishtar," while Ishtar, under the form of an archer (Sagittarius), is the sixth sign of the Zodiac. No less exact is the correspondence of the eleventh month, that of Aquarius, generally represented by a vase out of which water is passing, with the eleventh tablet, which contains the story of the Flood. The other tablets show no correspondence. The story of the conquest over the winged bull, which Lenormant, following Rawlinson, referred to the second month, which has Taurus for its sign, turns out to be a part of the Ishtar story in the sixth book. It is true that Mr. Sayce finds the ninth month, that of "the rainy cloud," paralleled in the visit to the region where the giants attend the morning sun ; but the story contains no indication that this was in "cloud land." Indeed, it is only "the mountains of Mas" that are mentioned as the scene of this adventure, which occupies about half of the canto or tablet, although the other cantos, as far as we have them, give no suggestion of the corresponding zodiacal signs or of the symbolic names of the months. It must be remembered that the story is imperfect, and there may be some slighter solar idea running through the legend. It is certain that it is in the eighth tablet (the eighth month being October and November) that Izdubar is stricken with disease, which is very appropriate if Izdubar is the sun ; and that it is not till the last tablet, corresponding numerically to February, that he gains the gift of immortality. This might well be a solar fable ; but as only two of the twelve tablets can well be compared with the symbolic names of the months, or with their zodiacal signs, we must conclude that the evidence has rather weakened than strengthened since Rawlinson propounded the hypothesis.

To all readers a principal question of interest in Assyrian discoveries is whether or not they confirm the Biblical narratives. Of the historical portions, the confirmation has been remarkable, bringing out into bold relief

kings perhaps incidentally mentioned a single time, and otherwise unknown, or giving independent accounts of their campaigns. The Babylonian legend of the Flood has been triumphantly hailed as wonderfully corroborating an earlier portion of Scripture. Of this we are not quite so sure. This cuneiform legend is nearly or quite as old as the time of Abraham. But its form is purely fabulous, and it is *prima facie* not improbable that this polytheistic legend, brought from Ur of the Chaldees by the Abrahamidæ, was purified by them to accommodate their monotheistic faith. Were it allowed that a solar myth was at the bottom of the story of Izdubar, that would pretty much remove the chance of the Flood's being historical. But before we can come to any safe conclusions, we shall need to make a more careful study of the yet unpublished Babylonian mythology. The discovery of a cuneiform version of the story of the Tower of Babel is announced, and there is every reason to hope that nearly the entire cosmogony of the first nine chapters of Genesis may yet be paralleled from corresponding tablets of Sumir and Accad.

*A Synoptical History of England*, with the Contemporaneous Sovereigns and Events of General History, from the Earliest Records to the Present Time. By Llewellyn C. Burt, Barrister-at-Law. Second edition. (London : Lockwood & Co.)—This compendium of English history will be found extremely useful, as well for teachers as for private readers. Each page of the history is arranged in three columns; the first contains a brief chronicle of events, the second fuller details upon the most important points, the third the events of contemporary history. No reign after the "Octarchy"—even Edward the Martyr and Edward V.—occupies less than one page, and in the earlier periods few reigns overrun a page ; later reigns are of course much fuller. There are many excellent genealogical tables, two good maps (of Britain under the Romans and England under the Saxons), copious lists of eminent characters, and extended general remarks upon government, literature, manners, and customs, etc., interspersed at appropriate points. The last instalment of these, "Remarks upon the Hanoverian Line," contains a large amount of most convenient information, such as the national debt, the British possessions, education, etc. There are also tables of important battles, treaties, statutes, etc. It is to be regretted that Mr. Burt's health prevented his attending to this part in person, as it is to be feared that all the details are not brought down to date ; for instance, there is no statement of the new Supreme Court of Judicature established year before last.

The detail is, in general, excellent. In the table of sovereigns, pp. 32, 33, the most important facts regarding each are given summarily ; it would have been well to add the day of the month of the accession of each—a point of a good deal of importance for the dates of statutes. "Æneas Sylvius, Pope," p. 58, might as well have added to it "Pius II." It would have been well to have given the substance (p. 73) of the celebrated statute of the forty-second Elizabeth, "which formed the Poor Law of England and Wales." The affair of Dec. 6, 1648, is told (p. 81), but its familiar name of "Pride's Purge" is omitted. On the same page the Marquis of Montrose is twice called "Duke." The bestowal of the Duchy of Austria upon Henry Jasomirgott is given (p. 37) as 1153 instead of 1156. Louis X. of France is called Louis V. (p. 47). Count Thurn is called (p. 76) Thurm. It is said (p. 77) that the Council of Dort "condemns Arminius"—who died nine years before ; on the same page New Amsterdam is said to have been founded in 1624 instead of 1613. In the excellent "Table Illustrating the War of the Spanish Succession" (p. 137), it ought to be added that the elder daughter of Philip III. (usually known as Anne of Austria) married Louis XIII.

*Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea.* Edited, with an introduction, commentary, etc., by James Morgan Hart. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—In our recent notice of Mr. Hart's 'German Universities,' we called attention to his fresh and suggestive remarks on acquiring the German language. Those who, following our advice, have read them, we are sure will confidently commit themselves to his guidance as editor of the Messrs. Putnam's 'German Classics for American Students,' of which the first volume is before us. We have nothing but praise for the form and mechanical appearance of this little book, in which the text, so far as we have compared it, is scrupulously correct, and lacks only quotation-marks in the conversational portions to be above criticism. Nor would we lay too much stress on this point, as to which the editor's judgment is as likely to find favor as our own. Mr. Hart supplies in his introduction all needed information about the circumstances under which the poem was composed ; and his commentary, and glossary of remarkable words and constructions, shed abundant light on the translator's path. This excellent beginning promises well for the series, which we take pleasure in commending to students and instructors.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Banvard (J.), The Early Life of a King | (Lit. and Art Pub. Co.) |
| Craik (Prof. G. L.), History of Eng. Literature, 2 vols.... | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) |
| Eckenbrecher (Dr. G. von), Die Lage des Homerischen Troja, swd | (B. Westermann & Co.) |
| Fatherland Series: Three Bank-Notes ; the Herdsman ; Rich and Poor | (Lutheran Pub. Soc.) |
| Fischer (K.), Deutschland's öffentliche Meinung, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Jacobi (Dr. A.), Acute Rheumatism in Infancy, swd | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 40 |
| Knight (E. H.), American Mechanical Dictionary, Vols. I., II. | (J. B. Ford & Co.) |
| Krüsi (H.), Pestalozzi: His Life, Work, and Influence | (Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) 2 25 |
| Lammers (A.), Die Bremer Landwirthschafts-Ausstellung, 1874, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Meyer (Prof. J. B.), Deutsche Universitäts-Entwickelung, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |


RECENT PUBLICATIONS:

*Lectures on the Early History of Institutions.*

By SIR HENRY SUMNER MAINE,

Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence in the University of Oxford

8vo, cloth, $3.

*Ancient Law.*

Its Connection with the Early History of Society, and its Relation to Modern Ideas. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. New edition. 8vo, cloth, uniform with the above. $3.

*AFRICA:*

The History of Explorations and Adventures, as given in the Leading Authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By C. H. Jones. With Map and Illustrations. 8vo, $5.

*MISTRESS JUDITH.*

A Cambridgeshire story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler. With an Illustration. Second edition now ready. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

*FAR FROM THE MADDING* Crowd. By Thomas Hardy. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series. $1 25.

*A WINTER IN RUSSIA.* By Theophile Gautier. Translated by M. M. Ripley. 12mo, $2.

*THREE ESSAYS ON RELIGION.* By John Stuart Mill. 8vo, $2 50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*MESSRS. MACMILLAN'S "READER" is occupied this week with Professor Green's 'Short History of the English People'—next page.*

*EPOCHS OF HISTORY*, Vol. V. 'Edward III.' By the Rev. W. Warburton, her Majesty's Inspector of Schools.'

"A model work of its kind."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

Volumes Previously Issued: 'The Era of the Protestant Revolution,' by F. Seebohm ; 'The Crusades,' by Rev. G. W. Cox, author of a 'History of Greece' ; 'The Thirty Years' War,' by Samuel R. Gardiner ; 'The Houses of York and Lancaster,' by James Gardiner.

Volumes in Press: 'The Fall of the Stuarts,' by Edward Hale ; 'The Age of Anne,' by Edward E. Morris ; 'The War of American Independence,' by J. M. Ludlow ; 'The French Revolution and the Wars that came of it,' by B. M. Cordery, author of 'King and Commonwealth.'

Each volume is enriched with maps and a carefully-prepared index. Price per volume, $1.

"This series is worth its weight in gold."—*London Spectator.*

☞ The above sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, when not to be had of local booksellers.

BOSTON: ESTES & LAURIAT, 143 Washington Street (Opp. Old South).

*CASTLE NOWHERE:* Lake-Country Sketches. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. 1 vol. 12mo, $2.

"Since the day when 'The Luck of Roaring Camp' awoke us all to a new sensation, there has been published no book of short stories so fresh in scenery and incident, so indisputably original."—*L. C. M., in N. Y. Tribune.*

*OAKRIDGE:* An Old-Time Story. By J. Emerson Smith. 1 vol. 12mo, $2.

"A work of peculiar character, differing utterly from the ordinary novel of the day, and attractive by reason of its freshness. Two or three love dramas are embodied in the book, containing passages of great dramatic power."—*Literary World.*

☞ For sale by all booksellers. Sent post-paid on receipt of price by the publishers,

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

Completion of an Important Work.

Messrs. CASSELL & Co. have the pleasure of announcing that

*The Bible Educator*

Is now complete in 4 vols., price $3 each.

The work needs no recommendation other than the mere mention of a few of the contributors: The Dean of Canterbury (Payne Smith); The Dean of Chester (Dr. Howson) ; Rev. F. W. Farrar, B.D. (Marlborough) ; Rev. Dr. Vaughan (Temple Church) ; Rev. H. D. M. Spence, M.A. ; Rev. W. Houghton, M.A., F.L.S. (Preston) ; Rev. Stanley Leathes, M.A., King's College ; Rev. Geo. Rawlinson, M.A. ; Major Wilson (Palestine Exploration) ; W. Caruthers (Botany Department British Museum) ; Jno. Stainor (Organist St. Paul's Cathedral). Under the Editorship of Rev. E. H. Plumptre, M.A.

For prospectuses and information apply to

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN,

596 Broadway, New York. | 83 West Fourth St., Cincinnati, Ohio. | 90 Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

# *The Reader.*

GREEN'S SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.

One feels in taking up this volume that Mr. Green is the privileged man who arrives with the book that the world has been waiting for.

It is probably the best short history of a nation that has yet been written. Both in the grasp of essentials and the working up of incidents it is singularly happy. It is the work of a critical writer, who, with jealous affection for his country, and for the national type he feels represented in his own mind, conceives the earliest events of his country's civilization as working and preparing for the state of admirable liberty and law under which the modern English character develops.

> Here and here did England help me. How can I help England, say?

is the key-note of the author's intention. He has done so good a work for his country that we understand how the man with the pen may be a better patriot than the man with the sword.

The history is the narrative of a civilization. The author explains his motive in dwelling more fully on thinkers than on warriors, on religious and literary opinion than on conquest, on great reformers rather than on great tyrants, and giving prominence rather to the charter of Runnymede than to the crown of John.

In consonance with this plan, he resumes from time to time the aspect of English enlightenment and letters. The vivid sketches of the successive English literatures, from Geoffrey of Monmouth and Walter de Map, through Chaucer, the Elizabethan poets, Milton, and Dryden, to the moderns, are so many masterpieces, clear as sculpture and sympathetic as painting.

While the studies of literary epochs are brilliant, no less skill is shown in the portraiture of historical characters. We may point with special satisfaction to the superb portrait of Elizabeth, "touching only on the intellectual side the England of her day, while its moral aspects were simply dead to her," as a painting at once grand in analysis and breadth; and to that of the elder Pitt, "the first English orator whose words were a power; not over Parliament only, but over the nation at large." His sketch of the Wesleys and Whitfield, with their propaganda, while it reveals by its excessive prominence the interest of an Oxford man in Oxford heroes, is as powerful, as complete, as well detached from the prejudices of the present, as the fine studies of those more distant apostles, Bunyan, the Puritans, or Wyclif.

The author contrives to avoid every fault. He is never in a hurry, and finds time for the most patient examination of home-life, social interests, and literary achievements, in a duodecimo volume that includes Hengist and Victoria between its covers. The extracts from chronicles, the scraps preserved from great authors, the little speeches and exclamations of famous people which vitalize a story, are apposite and seemingly unstinted, while the selection shows the ripest acquaintance with six hundred years of books. He steers clear, also, of that tendency to epigrammatic generalizing which is the besetment of an author laboring at condensation; and evades with excellent luck the temptation to rhetorical and dramatic writing which have cursed so many recent historians. He speaks like a man of letters and of culture, telling, in the plainest, most forcible words he can think of, a story too grand for adornment.

It may be pointed out that his treatment of American relations with England is distinguished by the highest spirit of impartiality.

No effort seems to have been spared to lend this epitome all the lucidity of a chart of history. It is evident that minute thought has been given to the divisions, the arrangement, the marginal directions, and the type they are printed in, the clear prominence of dates, the heads of chapters, the objects contained in the Chronological Annals, the genealogies, the tables, and the five epochal maps.

Jeffrey attended to the commas and colons in Macaulay's history, and boasted that it left his hands a perfectly punctuated work. This book, by whomsoever dressed into shape, is thorough in the least minutiæ, so that its very typography is helpful.

The 'Short History,' in fine, has accuracy, interest, breadth, and finish. It is eminently readable, admirably compact, supremely practical. It is worthy of England.


# MACMILLAN & Co.'s PUBLICATIONS.

Recently published, in crown 8vo, $2.

## A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE. By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History, Oxford. With colored Maps, and Genealogical and Chronological Tables.

"I thank you very much for sending me Mr. Green's book. I have read it with genuine admiration. It bears marks of great ability in many ways There is a vast amount of research, great skill in handling and arranging the facts, a very pleasant and taking style, but chief of all a remarkable grasp of the subject—many-sided as it is in its unity and integrity—which make it a work of real historical genius. I am sure I wish it all the success it deserves; and you are quite at liberty to give my opinion about it to any one who asks it."—*Extract from Letter of W. Stubbs, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History, Oxford.*

"Mr. Green's book seems to me not only the best English history of its size and plan, but really the most satisfactory of all the histories of England we have, giving the most complete and vivid account of the growth of the English nation, and the development of its literature and its character, as well as of its political institutions. It is singularly fresh, pointed, and lively in style; original and suggestive in its grouping of facts, and withal not less accurate than if it had all the insipidity of Lingard. It is hardly too much to say that it ought to effect a revolution in the way English history is taught in most schools, especially in girls' schools."—*Extract from Letter of James Bryce, D.C.L., Regius Professor of Civil Law, Oxford.*

"I think Mr. Green's 'Short History of the English People' admirably suited for students in the universities, and for the higher classes in schools. The object of the book, that of combining the history of the people with the history of the kingdom, is most successfully carried out, especially in the earlier part. It gives, I think, in the main, a true and accurate picture of the general course of English history. It displays throughout a firm hold on the subject, and a singularly wide range of thought and sympathy. As a composition, too, the book is clear, forcible, and brilliant. It is the most truly original book of the kind that I ever saw."—*Extract from Letter of Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D., etc., etc.*

"My wish is to advance the thoughtful and accurate study of English history, and no book that I have seen is so well calculated to do this as Mr. Green's recent work. . . . The very best summary of English history which has yet appeared. . . . The design of the book is excellent, and the execution of it, so far as I have been able to examine it at present, not less so. It ought to be universally adopted in schools and colleges where the teaching of English history is pursued, for it is the only book with which I am acquainted that brings the subject up to modern requirements. The author has carefully availed himself of the best and most trustworthy materials now at the service of the historian."—*Extract from a Letter of Professor Brewer.*

"Rightly taken, the History of England is one of the grandest human stories, and Mr. Green has so taken it that his book should delight the general reader quite as much as it delights the student."—*Extract from Letter of Professor Henry Morley.*

"To say that Mr. Green's book is better than those which have preceded it would be to convey a very inadequate impression of its merits. It stands alone as the one general history of the country for the sake of which all others, if young and old are wise, will be speedily and surely set aside. It is perhaps the highest praise that can be given to it that it is impossible to discover whether it was intended for the young or for the old. The size and general look of the book, its vividness of narration, and its avoidance of abstruse argument, would place it among school books. But its fresh and original views and its general historical power are only to be appreciated by those who have tried their own hand at writing history and who know the enormous difficulties of the task."—*Mr. Samuel R. Gardiner in the Academy.*

"The style is crisp and vigorous, the statements accurate, and the author shows great familiarity with the best literature of the subject. I shall take pleasure in recommending it to my classes."—*Extract from Letter of Professor Arthur M. Wheeler, of Yale College.*

## A PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By the Rev. Richard Morris, M.A., LL.D., President of the Philological Society of London, author of 'Historical Outlines of English Accidence,' 'Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar,' etc. 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper cover, 30 cents.

*** Forming the first volume of a New Series of History and Literature Primers, edited by J. R. Green, M.A.

"If all the books in the series of literature primers now publishing by Messrs. Macmillan & Co. prove to be as excellent in their way as the English Grammar, the series will be a valuable one for beginners in learning. . . . When it has been said that this volume of a hundred small pages presents a well-drawn outline of all the more important features which differentiate modern grammar as developed by the aid of comparative philology and scientific analysis of language from the dry-as-dust pages of Smith, Murray, and the rest, all has been said that it is possible to say of so small a book."—*New York World.*

## SOCIAL LIFE IN GREECE. FROM HOMER TO MENANDER. By the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Crown 8vo, $1 50.

"The whole book will be found well worth reading; the writer's knowledge and intelligence are put to the best of purposes, namely, the discovery of the human heart beneath all the dusty facts exhumed by arid scholarship."—*Atlantic Monthly (April).*

## THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF BISHOP PATTESON. By Miss C. M. Yonge, author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' With two Steel Portraits. Third edition. 2 vols. crown 8vo, $5.

"Miss Yonge's book is in one respect a model biography. It is made up almost entirely of Patteson's own letters. Aware that he had left his home for once and for all, his correspondence took the shape of a diary, and as we read on we come to know the man, and to love him almost as if we had seen him."—*Athenæum.*

## THE STORY OF A FELLOW-SOLDIER. Being an Account of the Life and Missionary Labors of the Rt. Rev. John Coleridge Patteson, Bishop of the Melanesian Islands. By Frances Awdry. With six Illustrations. Extra fcap. 8vo, $1 50.

"A first-class story of adventures in a strange land, among strange people, as interesting as a novel, and yet every word true, which will convey some idea of what an honest consecration to God in the missionary work means. Parents will find this an excellent tale to read to the assembled household, old and young."—*The Church Journal.*

## THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK FOR 1875. A Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Hand-book for Politicians and Merchants. By Frederick Martin. (Twelfth Annual Publication.) Revised after Official Returns. Crown 8vo, pp. 756, $3 50.

"The 'Statesman's Year-book' has become one of the institutions of the country. We find no fault in it this year."—*Athenæum.*

*THE NOVEL OF THE SEASON.*

## THE HARBOUR BAR. A Tale of Scottish Life. 12mo, paper, $1.

"Bright, picturesque, and true to life. . . . The story is readable and pleasant from first to last, growing in interest as it proceeds, and everywhere showing that the author is really at home in all the vivid scenes which she describes."—*The Standard (London).*

"It is written with charming simplicity, directness, and pathos, and forms one of those beautiful narratives of Scottish lowly life which ever and anon adorn and glorify human nature."—*Boston Commonwealth.*

"The writer knows the Scotch people, and in handling the characters which belong to the little fishing village, the events are made so consonant with the proper elimination of the story that the scenes become deeply interesting without any apparent attempt at dramatic effect."—*Sunday Times.*

"Upon the working out of Elsie's character the author has expended the more labor, and with good results, too; for rarely in fiction is there to be met with a more perfectly-finished picture of a true-hearted, unselfish woman. . . . The description of the terrible catastrophe of the storm on the Harbour Bar is perfect in its graphic vigor and intensity."—*Morning Post (London).*

*** Macmillan & Co.'s Complete Classified Catalogue, by mail, for 6 cents.

MACMILLAN & CO., 21 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1875.*

## The Week.

TWO committees are to be appointed to investigate the Canal Frauds in this State—one a joint legislative committee, and the other a commission, to be appointed by the Governor. The labors of the former are not looked forward to with a general feeling of confidence that they will be full and impartial, inasmuch as the appointment of the House branch of it is in the hands of Mr. Jeremiah McGuire—the same McGuire who, as the champion of public virtue, made a ferocious onslaught some time ago upon the reputation of the late Ezra Cornell, but who now turns out to be no more nor less than one of the "boys." On the other hand, the Governor's commission will do its work thoroughly; according to the *Tribune*, it is to contain no figure-heads, but young, active, enterprising, fearless, and progressive investigators, who will, we trust, under no circumstances "sell out" to Jarvis Lord. The unanimity of the press on the subject is very remarkable. We believe there is not a single Democratic or Republican newspaper—certainly not one of any weight—that does not support, more or less warmly, Mr. Tilden's attack on the Ring, which is of course creditable, as far as it goes, to the Republican papers, for they see plainly enough the connection between this attack and the Presidential question. An enthusiastic anti-Ring public meeting has been held in Syracuse—one of the headquarters of the Ring—and another is to come off in this city. The *Times*, we notice, though it supports Mr. Tilden, feels obliged to call the attention of the public to the fact that but for the exposure of the Tweed frauds in the columns of that journal in 1871 (which it will be remembered was not made by Mr. Tilden), the avalanche of public sentiment which now makes the destruction of the Canal Ring possible would not be in existence.

---

Speculation is again running riot in Wall Street, and during the week there has been such an outbreak as has not been witnessed for years. The withdrawal from the market on Monday of $5,000,000 gold enabled the gold "clique" to obtain from borrowers as much as one per cent. for one day's use, and also to carry the price of gold up to 117. Of course, the foreign exchanges were immediately unsettled, and foreign trade was embarrassed, and in some departments checked. Any advance in gold interfered with the negotiation of New Fives by the syndicate, and, what is probably much regretted by President Grant, defers the execution of his pet scheme of putting at least one silver coin in the hands of every American citizen. The gold clique at no time made much impression on the money market, and less on the share speculation; Union Pacific stock—the head and front of the "bull movement" in shares—having rapidly advanced, in six successive business days, from 51½ to 68½, the largest advance having been on the day when the gold clique made its demonstration. The extent of that day's business at the Stock Exchange can be judged when it is known that nearly 500,000 shares of various stocks—of the par value of $50,000,000—then changed hands. On the next day there was a reaction, gold and stocks both going down.

---

The general trade of the country has been slowly but surely improving. Of the leading staple products, the price of cotton has been fully maintained; the receipts at the ports continue small. In breadstuffs and provisions there was, early in the week, a slight concession in prices, but no important change in the tone of the markets. The statistics of the hog product for the year 1874–5 have appeared. The number of hogs packed—5,537,124—exceeds any previous year, and, although the average weight is less than in previous years, the market value of the product is surprisingly large, amounting to $96,750,000, or $35,600,000 in excess of the average proceeds of the product for the preceding four years. This $96,750,000 is an item to the credit of Western producers which should be taken into account in estimating the condition of the West as a market for Eastern-made goods. The dry-goods trade has been enlivened by the advent at last of spring weather. In the grocery trade there has been an advance in sugars and a decline in teas. The outlook as to general trade, while as good as could be expected, does not justify the wild speculation at the Stock Exchange. There have been no important failures in any department of trade. Credits are still granted with caution, and collections are good.

---

The adjournment of the Senate without confirming the nomination of Mr. Pardee as Durell's successor is significant of the tendency which the patronage system is taking. We understand that the real reason why he was not confirmed was, not that there were any serious objections to his character or capacity, but that the place was claimed by Senator West as his own property, and that the demand brought to his side the leading Republican senators, who felt that any change in the system would create a dangerous precedent. In connection with this, the nominations made by Grant from among his supporters in the late Congress have an extraordinary look. Lists have appeared in one or two papers of these men, and, as we have not seen the facts disputed anywhere, we must take it for granted that they are correct. We give the most complete we have met with: Godlove S. Orth, Minister to Austria; Horace Maynard, Minister to Turkey; James N. Tyner, Second Assistant Postmaster-General; D. W. Gooch, Pension Agent, Boston; C. C. Sheats, of Alabama, Sixth Auditor Treasury; I. C .Parker, of Missouri, United States Judge Western District of Arkansas; D. P. Lowe, of Kansas, United States Judge for Utah; J. D. Ward, United States District Attorney for Northern District of Illinois; A. J. Ransier, Collector of Internal Revenue, Second District, South Carolina; L. C. Carpenter, Collector of Internal Revenue, Third District, South Carolina; L. A. Sheldon, Assistant Counsel before the *Alabama* Claims Court; Alexander White, of Alabama, counsel to prosecute crimes under Attorney-General; O. P. Snyder, of Arkansas, postmaster at Pine Bluff. All these men supported the Force Bill, and, unless we are greatly mistaken, all of them have been turned out of their places for misconduct by the people.

---

The appointment of Joseph Brooks as postmaster at Little Rock is also a remarkable one in its way, for only a few months ago the President issued a proclamation describing Brooks and his party in Arkansas as "turbulent and disorderly persons," and threatened to call out the troops to take their lives. But the press of course does not know anything about matters of this sort. We have not the slightest doubt that on examination it would be found that Grant's motives were perfectly right; that he was entirely opposed to the nomination of Brooks, and repeatedly so expressed himself in private conversations; but the fact was that Dorsey and Clayton had a right to the place, and Brooks was their man. Grant, therefore, was obliged to yield what politicians call his "individual judgment," of which he seems to have an enormous supply, to what they also call the interests of the party.

---

Negotiations are pending in this city between a Catholic Committee, acting for the parochial schools of the church, and a Committee of the Board of Education, over a proposal, on the part of the former, to have the Catholic schools placed under the Board, and made part of the common-school system, "subject to its laws as regards the course of instruction, the methods of discipline, and the general management," on "such terms as may be agreed upon.' The only terms the Catholic Committee can offer include, neces-

sarily, the reservation to the Catholic clergy of the virtual management of the schools by the selection of the teachers, and the giving of religious instruction as part of the regular school course. If they were not going to insist on these things there would be nothing to negotiate about, and all they would have to do to get their schools into the common-school system would be to hand them over to the Board. The proposed compromise has, it is said, been adopted in other cities "with success," though in what cities we do not know, nor do we know what success can mean except the satisfaction of Catholic claims. People who suppose the satisfaction of these claims can mean anything short of the destruction of the common-school system deceive themselves. They must remember, first of all, that after we have given the priests the control of Catholic schools, we shall have only given them a part of what they conceive to be their due. They hold themselves entitled as of right, and solemnly proclaim it, to the control of the education of children of all denominations in every country. Their willingness now to share it with the Protestants in this country is simply a concession to the force of circumstances, which in no way releases them from the obligation of extending the limits of their jurisdiction by every means in their power; and it behooves those who negotiate with either cardinal, archbishop, or vicar-general to remember that they negotiate with a person who cannot bind himself on subjects of this sort by human conventions. A secret order from Rome may any day relieve him from any stipulation whatever which may seem prejudicial to the interests of the church.

---

In the second place, it is folly to suppose that after the Catholics have been allowed to withdraw their share of the school-tax from the common fund, or—which is the same thing—been allowed to place their own schools under the Board of Education, other denominations will long remain satisfied with the present system; all religious denominations would like to educate their own children in their own way, if they could get the state to raise funds for them by taxation. Episcopalians and Methodists and Baptists support the common schools, not as a perfect system, but as the best attainable system; but a large part of its efficiency and the whole of its justice would be gone if it was modified to meet the requirements of one religious sect. Moreover—and here is a consideration which the people of this country must face sooner or later, and they may as well begin to face it now—the education given or superintended by Catholic priests is a bad education; indeed, for political purposes, worse than none. It unfits children for the citizenship of free states. If extended widely enough, it would ruin this Government. It has been tried for ages in various countries, and has in all worked unutterable mischief, and destroyed the sources of national greatness by killing the sincerity, the truthfulness, the courage and high-mindedness on which national greatness is based. The thoughtful and patriotic men of all Catholic countries are to-day getting rid of it as a national curse. And it would be an astounding spectacle if, after the priests had been excluded from the work of public instruction in France, Spain, Italy, and Bavaria, they were to be allowed to carry it on here with taxes voted by American citizens. Compromise with these men has, in short, never succeeded, and never will. The only thing that does succeed with them is their rigorous subjection to the common law.

---

We presume there are very few persons in the United States competent to form any opinion on the subject, who would be prepared to maintain in a private room that the Civil-Rights Bill was constitutional. We regret to make mention of "a private room," but in the existing state of political morals this distinction is necessary. Mr. Carpenter made an argument in the Senate on this point which has never been answered and which it is safe to say is unanswerable, and now the courts are going to work at the Act, and we presume before Congress meets will not have left it worth repealing. Judge Emmons, one of the United States Circuit Court judges, has charged the grand jury at Memphis, Tenn., that Congress cannot give the Federal courts jurisdiction of offences committed by innkeepers and managers of theatres, as such, inasmuch as these persons are wholly controlled in their mode of conducting their business by and owe the privilege of conducting it to the State governments; that the late Amendments to the Constitution have not given the Federal Government jurisdiction of murder, arson, assaults, batteries, trespasses, frauds, injuries to reputation, obstructions to the right of attending church, public schools, or theatres, or of being accommodated in inns. On the contrary, these things were expressly reserved to the States. "The vast mass of civil and political rights," he says, "included in the term, life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, rest entirely under State protection." The citizen of the United States, he adds, as such, has no right to go to theatres or hotels, but only the right to pass from State to State on his lawful errands, to protection on the high seas and in foreign countries and a few others. In short, the Amendments have not changed the relations of the States to the General Government. They have simply placed one or two additional restrictions on State legislation.

---

The Illinois Constitution, and probably the constitutions of a good many other States, require that a majority of the directors of every railroad holding a charter from the State shall be citizens of the State. As a matter of fact, however, the greater part of the stock of the Illinois and other Western railroads is owned in the East, and as stockholders, when they are wise, generally elect directors who have some community of interests with them, it turns out that many, if not most, of the roads have a majority of directors who are not citizens of Illinois. The Chicago, Burlington and Quincy directory, as an instance, contains two Illinois directors in a board of thirteen. The only objection to this that we know of is that the non-residents are not as directors personally or criminally amenable to the laws of the State. But as the State can always compel a corporation to do business in accordance with its laws or lose its charter, there does not seem to be much hardship in the case. The only effect, however, of compelling Eastern stockholders to submit the management of their railroad property to citizens of Western States will be to make capital still more shy of Western investments than it is now. While there is in the East no distrust of Western men as such, it is impossible for any one in his senses to shut his eyes to the fact that it is by Western legislatures and through a Western popular agitation that a very serious attack upon capital and property has been made, and that now the chief reliance of people in New York and Boston against attacks of a similar kind is, that they do at least manage their property themselves. The experiment, too, of a "Western" management, in the case of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, has been actually tried, and most egregiously failed. If the West wants any more money, as it certainly does, the best thing it can do is to call off its legislatures and attorney-generals, as Minnesota has so sensibly done, and let the Eastern monopolist alone.

---

Mr. Eugene Lawrence, a voluminous writer for *Harper's Weekly*, had a long and bitter attack on Mr. Schurz a fortnight ago, based on a thoroughly disreputable piece of garbling—that is, he took a passage from Mr. Schurz's speech on the Louisiana question in the Senate, which, detached from the context, meant one thing, and with the context meant exactly the opposite, and used this passage so detached as a basis for his abuse. The performance was so scandalous that Mr. Curtis, the editor, on the following week exposed it in full, and disclaimed all responsibility for it. But then the public and Mr. Schurz have a very good right to ask who is responsible for Mr. Eugene Lawrence, and to demand that the publishers place in authority over him somebody of better judgment and sounder morals if they are going to allow him to write in their columns. He appears to be the victim of a monomania about Roman Catholicism, and to be devoting his powers, such as they are, to exposures of its iniquities, but this makes it all the more incumbent on him to keep a close watch over his own soul, which, judging

from the attack on Mr. Schurz, he has been recently neglecting. We advise him to let the Jesuits run for a brief period, while he is looking into his own spiritual condition.

The case of Jesse Pomeroy, in Massachusetts, is in many respects a curious one. This boy, now under sentence of death for murder, seems to have had a peculiar kind of infanticidal mania, if it may so be called. Pomeroy's great source of pleasure for some time back (he is only about fourteen years old) has been to hack, cut, mutilate, and torture little children. He did this without any other object, it seems, than a love of the infliction of pain, and, being arrested for it, was sent to a reformatory. In the reformatory he behaved well and was released, upon which he returned to his old courses, and very soon had killed one or two of his companions and hidden away their bodies. He now is under sentence of death, and the Governor of the State is besieged with petitions from charitable and public-spirited women, on the one hand to let him hang, and on the other to pardon him. The arguments against hanging are that he is irresponsible; that he commits crimes under an irresistible impulse; and that he should therefore be reformed, not put to death. On the other side, it may be said that the chances are ten to one that in a reformatory he will behave well and be pardoned out, and begin murdering again. It is an exceptional case, and has little or no real bearing on the capital-punishment question in general.

Our correspondent has spoken elsewhere of the effect produced in Prussia by the Papal Encyclical releasing Catholics from all obligation to obey the ecclesiastical laws. The Government promptly responded to it by the introduction of a bill withdrawing the state endowment from all priests and bishops—about $500,000 to each class—who refuse to sign an engagement to obey the law, and this, combined with the transfer of the administration of all ecclesiastical revenues, from whatever source derived, to lay hands, will be a heavy blow to the church, as it takes it unprepared. There is of course a possibility that, with due notice, the clergy might have decided to surrender all claim to pecuniary aid from the state. But Bismarck now does not allow them either time for reflection or freedom of choice, for even if they severed their connection with the state to-morrow, he would still under the law supervise their discharge of their ecclesiastical functions. One of the English papers tries to prove the tyranny of this by supposing similar action on the part of the English Government towards Dr. Chalmers and the Free Church of Scotland; but to make this comparison apt we have to shut out of view the history of the relations of the Catholic Church to the state, and the nature of its government, which are the two most important factors in the problem. It is here, indeed, that all attempts to claim for the Catholic Church the position of other sects before the law break down. No other sect gives the same account of itself, or has the same story to tell of its past.

Messrs. Moody and Sankey, the American revivalists, appear to furnish the principal sensation of English society just now, and they and their methods have furnished subjects for a good deal of religious, social, and psychological speculation to the newspapers both weekly and daily. They have drawn enormous crowds, perhaps the largest ever seen at religious meetings, have been assisted in London by many orthodox ministers, and have generally managed to have one or two peers or other leaders of society on their platforms. The view taken of them of course varies according to the speaker's stand-point. The cultivated, cynical people set them down as wholly mischievous. The Broad Churchmen admit they exert some spiritual influence, but doubt if it is as large as it seems, and whether a great part of their audiences are not drawn by curiosity, and think the widespread eagerness for some spiritual light or guidance which their popularity undoubtedly does reveal, an interesting and touching phenomenon. Part of this popularity seems to be due to a slight element of grotesqueness in their oratory, which throws an air of novelty over religious teaching, and thus delivers it from what in our day does so much to weaken its influence—the deadening monotony of iteration. It is the attempt to escape from this which is introducing so much of what is called "sensation" in the pulpit.

It is no exaggeration to say that the London *Economist* is perhaps the shrewdest and most perspicacious political observer in Europe, and it is, therefore, worthy of notice that it has come round to the view which we have all along taken of the recent action of the French Assembly, and has formally apologized to that body for the reflection which it had previously cast on its sagacity and public spirit, and has cordially approved of the recent constitutional legislation. It has, however, gone further, and pronounced on Marshal MacMahon the following verdict, which readers of this journal will recognize as somewhat familiar:

"Marshal MacMahon is not always so prudent as he might be. Yet his very want of statesmanship, his somewhat blundering communications to the Assembly, his transparent good faith, his strenuous efforts to keep his policy conservative without heedlessly irritating the popular party, render him just the man to try this kind of experiment with the best chance of success. If a more politic statesman were in his place, French suspicion would paralyze him. But of this blunt and not too clever soldier there is no suspicion, though his pertinacious conservatism may excite annoyance. And certainly, if a republic is to be inaugurated which is not to alarm France by its rashness, it is hardly possible that it could be more hopefully inaugurated than under the tutelage of a French soldier who is honestly desirous of keeping on good terms with parliament, while doing all in his power to check innovation and keep revolutionary forces under a strong curb."

In fact, most of the recent criticism of the French Assembly, and of MacMahon too, has been based on the assumption that both of them had a community at their back closely resembling Massachusetts, and that they were trying to cheat out of its republic a people which had enjoyed that form of government for centuries, and had no knowledge of Louis XIV. or of the First Napoleon except what they got from school histories. One of the latest stories circulated illustrative of the political condition of France, is one of a wealthy Parisian, whose instructions to his valet direct him always to inform him, on bringing in his hot water in the morning, under what form of government he is living.

The fact that Mr. Thorold Rogers has taken the field in public against the English Church Establishment shows that its fate begins to occupy seriously the more moderate as well as the more radical and Comtist Liberals. The bishops and archbishops of the church, with two exceptions, have issued an address to the clergy and laity which, though it contains no positive recommendation, shows that alarm about the matter begins to find its way into the highest ecclesiastical circles. Nothing can well be more pointless than the address; for, though it describes a sad state of things in the church, all it has to offer by way of remedy is advice to the clergy to be moderate in their ritualizing, and not to enrage the laity; and to the laity to be patient with the clergy, and bear with a little too much ceremony for the sake of peace; and to both to be good, and if they cannot be good, to be as good as they can. The rule of selection in the making of bishops has so much regard to safeness and the conciliatoriness of the position, that it is useless to look to them at a crisis like the present for any very positive suggestions, and what they now say will probably produce no effect on anybody. Even the *Spectator* denounces it "as a creamy and semi-fluid bread-sauce," and as resembling the Papal Encyclicals in its inflation; but the utterance of it shows that they begin to be alive to the situation. And yet, how little natural sense of it they have was shown in the recent support by the Bishop of Winchester of an ill-conditioned rector's insulting refusal to allow a Methodist minister to attach "Rev." to his name on his daughter's tombstone. The minister has since made preparation to enforce his rights in the courts, and now, after the mischief has been done, and the exasperation caused, the bishop has ordered the rector to yield, and let the Wesleyans put what they please on their tombstones.

## THE CANALS AND CHEAP TRANSPORTATION.

IT is an encouraging sign of the growth of the general intelligence and conscience as to public questions, that Mr. Tilden's attack on the canal peculators is not treated anywhere as a matter of merely local interest. Down to the time of the onslaught upon the Ring in this city in 1871, it was the custom all over the country for politicians, clergymen, lecturers, and even editors who undertook the task of apologizing for the decline in the United States of public honesty and respectability, as indicated by the corrupt condition of things in this city, to salve the matter over by some such gratuitous assumption as that New York was an exceptional place; that it was a large city, and large cities were always corrupt; or that it was not a fair example of the working of American institutions, being really in the hands of "ignorant Irish." The exposure of the Tweed government, however, together with the numerous other exposures at Washington which have followed, have served to convince people that the disease was not local or of foreign importation, or the result of city life, but was a genuine growth of the soil, which exhibited itself in its flower and perfection in New York simply because New York was the great city of the United States, where the social system found its fullest and most complete expression. Comparing the attitude of the press now with its attitude immediately after the exposure of the Tweed frauds, we have very good evidence of the fact that any bold attack on corruption has become an extremely popular move in the political game, and that the public at large has at last come to see that the corrupt administration of the great commercial State of the New World is not a matter for jest or apology, but is of the gravest concern to every citizen of the whole country.

It happens, very fortunately, that the canals of New York are public works in which the whole United States have an interest almost greater than the stake which the city and State have in them. It is easy enough to imagine the city and State getting on quite prosperously without any canals at all; but what the grain-producing regions of the West would do without water-communication (within the limits of the United States) with the Atlantic seaboard it is difficult to say. The canal system of the State, in connection with the Western lakes, forms the great highway from the Western grain-fields to tide-water, and the bulk of the grain coming East depends upon them for transportation. The cheapness of water-transportation as compared with rail makes the canals the great check upon the railroads. So impressed were the Senate Transportation Committee of a year or two ago with this truth, that they recommended the solution of the cheap-transportation question by means of new waterways in other parts of the country. It appears from an official report for 1872 that the canal tonnage during the season of navigation in that year was 6,673,370, while that of the Erie and Central railroads amounted to 9,958,239 for the entire year from October 1, 1871, to September 30, 1872. The tolls collected by the State increased from $844,508 02 in 1826 to $3,027,568 67 in 1873. The corrupt mismanagement of this great system of inland water-communication is of quite as much concern to Illinois or Michigan as it is to New York.

Taking into consideration all these facts with regard to the public works of New York—their national character, their competitive relation to the railroads, their dependence on the Western farmer for maintenance, and their public, anti-monopoly nature—it is obvious that we have in their condition the best possible experimental test of the wisdom of the great political panacea for transportation troubles—*i.e.*, the assumption of the business of transportation by the United States itself, and the appearance of the General Government on the scene as a common carrier. If half a century of government transportation will not settle the question, nothing, we may safely say, ever will.

As to the question of transportation itself, that afforded by the canals is no more satisfactory to the public than that furnished by the railroads. The same complaints are made against each as to excessive charges: the tolls are never low enough, the water is never deep enough. The immediate cause of Mr. Tilden's message was a petition from forwarders and others requesting a reduction of tolls; and tolls cannot be reduced without ruinous loss to the Treasury. There is no fictitious stock, either, on which dividends are to be paid—it is all hard debt and actual annual expenditure of money for repairs; and so we have no need to consider here theories which connect the cost of transportation with the number of stock certificates printed. If tolls cannot be lowered, it is for no other reason than because of wasteful and dishonest expenditure by the very body which undertook to give cheap transportation—the State itself.

As to this, we believe we speak strictly within bounds when we say that there is no form of corruption known or imagined by the mind of man which this experiment in cheap transportation has not been the means of introducing into the government of the State. We will give one or two instances. From Governor Tilden's Message it appears that for a long series of years the usual manner in which contracts have been awarded has been on "unbalanced bids"—that is, bids in which the estimates bear no relation whatever to the work to be done. Now, we know very well what would happen in any private enterprise if contractors put in such bids—if a contractor making proposals for a bridge were to estimate his stone at twenty dollars a yard and his iron at two cents a ton; such bids would be rejected at once as on their face collusive or fraudulent. But what does the State of New York do? Mr. Tilden declares that these bids have been for a long series of years invariably accepted, and he mentions in terms of high approval one of the present Canal Commissioners for having actually rejected them. So that, to begin with, we have the whole system of government transportation resting on the connivance of the canal contracting authorities at systematic fraud. Connivance, however, is no proper description of the real nature of the relation between the State and the contractor. From the evidence taken at Albany in 1868 on canal management, it appears that two of the highest officers of the State, on being asked whether they had received bribes from contractors, declined to answer. One member of the contracting board substantially confessed that he had guilty knowledge of a combination among the contractors to prevent bids being awarded to the lowest bidder; and among other things it was found that, under pretext of aiding in the erection of an "academy," a regular subscription for the auditor of the Canal Department was got up among the "canal men," the money paid over to him, and invested in stocks in his own name.

Now, the Canal Contracting Board and the Canal Commission represent in the matter of State transportation the Executive. With the actual management of the canals the Governor himself has and can have very little to do; and though a governor may now and then, as General Dix did, veto improper canal legislation, or, as Mr. Tilden is now doing, expose the corruption, ordinarily year in and year out executive superintendence must be devolved upon some such executive board; and, as a matter of fact, for more than half a century, though the State has varied the details, the canals have been in the hands of a commission, either appointed or elective. With regard to this branch of the government, the contracts published in the *Tribune* from day to day show how effective State superintendence is at the present moment, while the report of the legislative committee we have already quoted shows precisely the same state of things existing in 1868, when the committee reported "that for a long period of time gross and, in many instances, monstrous frauds have been committed by various individuals and combinations of men against the State in the management of the canals; that the abuses thus practised involved those engaged under the law in permanent construction works and in superintendence and repairs, as well as the trusted functionaries of the State; and that the wrong-doing and corruption which have thus crept into this part of the public administration have rapidly advanced within a few years to colossal dimensions."

Such being the condition of the executive part of the State machinery, which really does the work, it is hardly worth while to look into the legislative and judicial. The care with which the legislature guards the interests of the State, however, may be inferred from a good many things; perhaps from nothing better than that now,

after the exposure, the House put in the hands of the Speaker, an avowed tool of the "canal men," the appointment of a committee of enquiry. But the idea of the legislature of the State being a guardian of the public interest in matters of canal management is not worth discussion. It is a matter of common notoriety that, for a series of years past, legislation for the benefit of contractors has been the cover under which most of the frauds have been carried on. The judiciary, however, are untainted. There is no Barnard or Cardozo on the Court of Appeals; and under legislation recently secured at Albany, the Governor will be able, if he is a reform Governor, to direct the Attorney-General, if he is not on the other side, to bring suits for the recovery of stolen money. But this is rather a cumbrous way of managing the canals; and it need not be supposed, either, that because the Court of Appeals is honest now it will always be so.

There is one thing further to which we must request the attention of the advocates of government transportation—that no one in New York has yet been able to suggest any remedy for these abuses except the sale or lease of a part of the system to some private corporation. Particular men may be punished, but the vast corruption-fund still exists, and so does the legislative and elective machinery for circumventing or getting out of the way honest and capable superintendents or inspectors. Another very noticeable feature of the New York canal system is, that the only really permanent body in it is the Ring. Jarvis Lord was the head of the Ring, or one of the rings, in 1866, and he and Johnson and Belden have been continued in their peculiar offices ever since. These men also "superintend" and "inspect," as "trusted functionaries of the State," their own fraudulent transactions. Lord is a Senator, Johnson an Assemblyman, and so on. In fact, for length and security of tenure, no office in the gift of the people compares with that of the canal-contractor. Ten years ago he was stealing from us, and he is stealing to-day. In a report recently made on the canals to the Chamber of Commerce, by Mr. S. B. Ruggles, it is very justly said that in transportation the "brain" which "directs the action of the machine" and makes the management skilful and economical is a "very important factor," and that the rivals of the canals—the railways—"possess that element in a high degree, in the experience and skill of those who direct their management and use, and their constant and systematic supervision by one common executive head." With the canals the case is different, for the brain which "directs the action of the machine" is the brain of men who live by making the management reckless, wasteful, and fraudulent. Governors and legislators and canal commissioners, and inspectors and superintendents, come and go like the leaves of the forest, but year in and year out the peculator remains at his post, contracting, inspecting, legislating, and pocketing his profits himself, the only permanent part of the system of government transportation in New York.

We have no doubt that this exposure will do a great deal of good or that reforms will be introduced which will be of great benefit. But without a radical change in the system, they can only be temporary. The contract system was introduced, we believe, because the direct operation by the State proved corrupt; and now that the contract system has proved rotten, we are going to try a new kind of State supervision. But we trust that the fifty years of cheap transportation in New York and its results may open the eyes of the public at large to what government transportation really means. What a "double-track, steel-rail, fast-freight air-line" as a Government work from Omaha to the Atlantic really means is not cheap transportation, but wasteful expenditure, decreasing revenues, onerous taxation, widespread fraud, bribed officials, and suspected courts.

## THE CATHOLIC CLERGY AND THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT.

THE controversy which Mr. Gladstone has been carrying on with the Catholic clergy in England, and which may be said to have been closed by his recent rejoinder, if it has done nothing else, has brought out very distinctly two important facts. One is, that no promise or engagement or declaration made or entered into by Catholic bishops with regard to the policy or opinions or beliefs of the church, or with regard to its relations to the state, has any binding force or effect, or possesses any value whatever, as long as it has not received the approval of the Roman Curia. Another is, that whether the dogma of infallibility has been really adopted or not—about which Catholic theologians are divided—there is no means accessible either to clergy or laity of ascertaining whether in any particular case the Pope has spoken infallibly—or, as it is technically called, "ex cathedrâ"—or not. In fact, according to Dr. Newman, there is no problem in theology more difficult than the decision of the precise character of the Pope's utterances, and the only body in the world competent to undertake it is the "Schola Theologorum" at Rome, which attacks it with the aid of a highly artificial and very complex system of interpretation which it takes the study of a lifetime to master. For all practical purposes, therefore, the new powers of the Pope are of little value to the mass of mankind, though their value to the Pope may prove very great. He and the Schola will always know whether he has spoken as the oracle of God, or only as a man, and whether the matter on which he has passed lies within the domain of faith and morals or not; but nobody else will. In fact, he may extend the domain of "faith and morals" in any direction he pleases without let or hindrance, because the public will never know what he is doing until he pleases to tell it. He will thus be able to issue mandates which will cause great confusion among his flock, and which they will consider of divine authority, and afterwards, if their operation does not please him, deny their infallibility. The advantage of this in his conflicts with secular governments does not need to be explained.

Mr. Gladstone has also shown conclusively that the pretence which some of his clerical opponents have put forward, that the Pope no longer arrogates to himself the power of suspending the operation of state laws when he does not approve of them, or believes they infringe upon the prerogatives of the church, is really unfounded. In 1855, the present Pope declared null and void all acts of the Piedmontese Government which *he* considered prejudicial to the church or to religion, and particularly those suppressing the monasteries as civil corporations. In the same year, he annulled the acts of the Spanish Government which provided for the toleration of Protestantism and the secularization of ecclesiastical property. In 1862, he declared null and void the Austrian legislation establishing freedom of the press and of worship and secularized marriage. In these cases, it is true, there were concordats in existence, on the violation of which he might (though he did not) have rested his decrees; but Mr. Gladstone cites three other cases in which there were no concordats, and in which he annulled the legislation of Sardinia, of Mexico, and of New Granada on similar grounds, and shows that by the constitution *Apostolicae Sedis* of 1869 he excommunicates all persons who imprison or prosecute bishops—thus attempting to raise these prelates above the law of their domicile; all who interfere with any ecclesiastical jurisdiction—as, for instance, any one who should sue out a habeas corpus for a priest or monk or nun imprisoned by ecclesiastical authority; all who impede the officers of the Inquisition in the execution of their duties; and all who secularize or purchase church property without the Pope's permission. Moreover, just after the appearance of Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet, the German bishops were thunderstruck by the receipt of an Encyclical, annulling the Falk laws in Germany, which, however, they have not as yet dared to publish in their dioceses, fearing it would increase the rigor of the pursuit with which Bismarck is pressing them.

One has only to state these facts to make apparent the futility of the objections which a portion of the English press is making to the severity of the treatment which the German Government is inflicting on the Catholic clergy. The history of the relations of the Catholic Church with the state everywhere shows that it graduates its pretensions and behavior according to the treatment it receives. A century of repressive and indeed cruel legislation in England

and Ireland made the clergy the most submissive and humble-minded Christians that ever knelt before a throne. They solemnly repudiated before their emancipation Papal supremacy and Papal infallibility in as strong terms as any Protestant could use, and were never tired of proclaiming the indivisibility of their allegiance. In Poland, fifty years of despotism have made one of the proudest prelacies in the world one of the humblest and most patient. In fact, experience has shown that while the church, when exposed to persecution which really assails its freedom of worship, or the peaceable profession of its faith on an equality with other denominations, shows great courage and constancy, it abandons its arrogance and claims to universal dominion, and to jurisdiction over civil rulers, and to the supervision of education, and takes its place quietly by the side of the Methodists and Congregationalists and other sects, before determined resistance on the part of the state; and in that place it can be kept by stern and unremitting watchfulness on the part of the state, but in no other way.

In Germany, it has for ages been allowed to hold the position of an *imperium in imperio*, or, in other words, to retain the practices and powers built up in the Middle Ages, after the state has been completely transformed and modernized. The position of the church in modern Germany was an anomaly with which Bismarck would have been compelled to deal, as one of the features of the old régime, even if the declaration of infallibility had never been made. Its relegation to a position of complete subordination to the state was, in fact, a necessary part of the revolution, and would have been necessary even if the Pope had never enlarged his pretensions, and doubly necessary in a country in which the state claims so great control over the citizen's life as it claims in Prussia. The question for the Germans is not simply a religious one; it is a question whether two sets of functionaries shall be tolerated within the Empire—one obeying orders from a foreign potentate, which may direct him, under the most awful sanctions, to disobey the sovereign to whom he pays his taxes. To apply the term persecution to the solution of such a problem is an abuse of language. What the German Government says to the bishops through recent legislation is substantially this: "I do not care what creed you profess; worship what or how or where you will. I will see that you are protected in doing so. But no German citizen shall be compelled to remain in your communion longer than he pleases; if he chooses to leave you, he shall not suffer for it in mind, body, or estate, but may set up another church if he likes, which in my eyes shall be as sacred and respectable as yours. If any member of your church makes himself amenable to church discipline, the penalties inflicted on him must be purely ecclesiastical—that is, you must not, in seeking to punish him, seek to injure him in his local and political relations. If any priest offends his bishop, you may still fine or rebuke him, or you may fine or imprison him, but not unless the priest chooses to submit; and no penalty of this character may be inflicted until the civil authorities have approved of it, and a priest may always appeal to the local courts when the ecclesiastical courts have not done him justice." The only other point on which the church has complained is the requirement of a university training from the candidates for orders before their entrance to the Catholic divinity-school; but there are two answers to her on this point. In the first place, this requirement is not new. It has already prevailed in Austria and all the rest of Germany, and was enforced in Austria so long ago as the time of Joseph II., and the universities all have Catholic theological chairs, which the bishops control and which the student may attend if he pleases. In fact, this feature in the Falk Laws has been in force in Prussia ever since 1848, and has been applicable to the clergy of all denominations; but since 1855 the Catholic clergy have managed to evade it, so that the recent enactment is only to bring them back to their obedience, under altered circumstances which make that obedience more necessary than ever.

Of the final issue of the struggle there is nothing in the history of the church to cause any doubt. Bismarck cannot reduce the number of Catholic believers, or really invade the domain of conscience, properly so-called, by any legislation he could resort to; but he can compel Catholic priests and laymen to discharge the same duties towards the state as the rest of the community, or to refrain from all acts and omissions which would place them in a different category, politically, from their fellow-citizens; and he asks nothing now which both priests and laymen have not in other countries cheerfully submitted to when they found there was no help for it. There is, in fact, a wide tract of debatable ground in the matter of discipline which the church reserves for purposes of compromise and negotiation, and on which she keeps all she can, but yields what she must. If the state is weak and pliant, she calls God to witness that she needs every inch of it for the proper discharge of her lofty functions, and that she is ready to suffer for it, if need be, as she has suffered in the days of Domitian and Diocletian. But when threats and debates have proved fruitless, and she sees that the police are coming to remove her baggage, she smiles blandly, and declares that the matter is of small consequence, that she has never flourished more than when the clergy had to hide in caves, and the Pope was in jail, and that if the state chooses to be exacting she will resign herself and hope for better days.

## "THE SHORT-HAIRS" AND "THE SWALLOW-TAILS."

THERE is a story afloat that Mr. John Morrissey made his appearance one day during the past week, in Madison Square, in full evening dress, including white gloves and cravat, and bearing a French dictionary under his arm, and that, being questioned by his friends as to the object of this display, he replied that he was going to see Mayor Wickham, and ask him for an office, in the only costume in which such an application would have a chance of success. In other words, he was acting what over in Brooklyn would be called "an allegory," and which was intended to expose in a severe and telling way the Mayor's gross partiality, in the use of his patronage, for the well-dressed and well-educated members of society—a partiality which Mr. Morrissey and his party consider not only unfair but ridiculous. This demonstration, too, was one of the few indications which have as yet met the public eye of a very real division of the Democratic party in this city into two sets of politicians, known familiarly as "Short-Hairs" and "Swallow-Tails"—the former comprising the rank and file of the voters, and the latter "the property-owners and substantial men," who are endeavoring to make Tammany an instrument of reform and to manage the city in the interest of the taxpayers. Mayor Wickham belongs, it is said, to the latter class, and has given, it seems, in the eyes of the former, some proofs of a desire to reserve responsible offices for persons of some pretensions to gentility, and exhibited some disfavor for the selections of the "workers" in the various wards.

But we do not undertake to describe with accuracy the origin or nature of the split—all we know is that the Short-Hairs are disgusted, and that their hostility to the Swallow-Tails is very bitter; and that when Mr. Morrissey proclaimed, in the manner we have described, that a man needed to wear evening dress and to know French in order to get a place, he gave feeble expression to the rage of the masses. They have, too, concocted an arrangement which embodies their idea of a well-administered government, and which consists in compelling the Departments to spend in wages in each district at least $1 50 for each Democratic vote cast, and to apportion the appropriations with strict reference to this rule—the money of course to go to the nominees of Democratic politicians. The plan departs from that of the French national workshops in that it discriminates between laborers, but in other respects it has all the characteristics of well-developed Communism. The way to meet it, according to our venerable contemporary the *Evening Post*, is to have the taxpayers point out to the voters who are to receive the money that they (the taxpayers) cannot well spare it, that they need it for their own use, and that this mode of administering corporate funds is condemned by all the leading writers on government. The Swallow-Tails know so well, however, with what howls of mingled mirth and indignation the Short-Hairs would receive such suggestions that they never make them, but content themselves with confining the distribution of the money to the members of their own division quietly and unostentatiously, as far as lies in their power, which, we candidly confess, we do not think is very far.

It would be doing the Short-Hairs injustice, however, if we allowed the reader to remain under the impression that the unwillingness to have the Swallow-Tails monopolize or even have a share of the offices was peculiar to

them, or that John Morrissey's protest would be unintelligible anywhere out of New York. On the contrary, when he started out with his French dictionary he was giving expression to a feeling which is to be found in greater or less intensity in every State in the Union. The great division of politicians into Short-Hairs and Swallow-Tails is not confined to this city. It is found in every city in the country in which there is much diversity of condition among the inhabitants. Nor did Morrissey mean simply to protest against training as a qualification for the work of administration, as the *Tribune* assumed in a sharp and incisive lecture which it read him the other day. We doubt if any pugilist in his secret heart despises training. He *knows* how much depends on it, and as he is not apt to possess much discriminating power, he is not likely to mark off any particular class of work as not needing it. What the Short-Hairs dislike in the Swallow-Tails is the feeling of personal superiority which they imagine them to entertain, and which they think finds a certain expression in careful dressing and in the possession of certain accomplishments. In fact, the Swallow-Tails whom the New York rough detests and would like to keep out of public life, belong to the class known in Massachusetts as the "White-cravat-and-daily-bath gentlemen," and which is there just as unpopular as here, and has even greater difficulty in getting offices there than here. The line of division in New York is, however, drawn much lower down. The Massachusetts Short-Hair is a man of intelligence, of some education, who wears a plain black négligé and rumpled shirt-front and soft hat, and disregards the condition of his nails, and takes a warm bath occasionally. The New Yorker, on the other hand, wears such clothes as he can get, and only bathes in the hot weather and off the public wharf. If he has good luck and makes money, either in the public service or otherwise, he displays it not in any richness in his toilet or in greater care of his person, but in the splendor of his jewels. One of his first purchases is a diamond-pin, which he sticks in his shirt-front, but he never sees any connection of an æsthetic kind between the linen and the pin, and will wear the latter in a very dirty shirt-front as cheerfully as in a clean one—in fact, more cheerfully, as he has a vague feeling that by showing it he atones for or excuses the condition of the linen. In fact, the Short-Hair view of dress would be found on examination to be, in nearly ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, something of this kind: that the constant care of the person which produces an impression of neatness and appropriateness, and makes a man look "genteel," is the expression of a certain state of mind; that a man would not take so much trouble to make himself look different from the ordinary run of people whom he meets unless he thought himself in some way superior to them, or, in other words, thought himself a "gentleman" and them common fellows, and that he therefore fairly deserves the hatred of those of whom he thus openly parades his contempt.

A New York Short-Hair seldom goes further than this in his speculations, though he doubtless has also a vague idea that a well-dressed man is not so likely to stand by his friends in politics as a more careless one. In New England, as might be expected, however, the popular dislike of that "culte de la personne," as some Frenchman has called it, which distinguishes "the white-cravat-and-daily-bath gentleman," has provided itself with a moral basis. There is there a strong presumption that the Swallow-Tail is a frivolous person, who bestows on his tailoring, and his linen, and his bathing, and his manners the time and attention which the Short-Hair or "plain blunt man" reserves for reflection on the graver concerns of life, and especially on the elevation of his fellow-men, and this presumption a career of philanthropy and the composition of the 'Principia' would not in many minds suffice to overthrow. We believe it is authentic that General Grant never got over the impression produced on him by seeing that Mr. Motley parted his hair in the middle, and it is said—and if not true is not unlikely—that Mr. R. H. Dana's practice of wearing kid gloves told heavily against him in his memorable contest with Butler in the Essex District. We may all remember, too, the gigantic efforts made by Mr. Sumner and others in Congress to have our representatives abroad prohibited from wearing court-dress. What dress they wore was of course, *per se*, a matter of no consequence, provided it was not immodest; the fervor on the subject was due to the deeply rooted feeling that even the amount of care for externals exhibited in putting on an embroidered coat or knee-breeches indicated a light-mindedness against the very appearance of which the minister of a republic ought to guard carefully. It is partly to produce the effect of seriousness of purpose, but mainly to avoid the appearance of airs of social or mental superiority, that nearly all skilful politicians dress with elaborate negligence. In most country districts, no complaints can be made of men in office such as the New York Short-Hair makes against the Swallow-Tail. They fling on their easy-fitting black clothes in a way that leaves them their whole time for the study of public affairs and attention to the wants of their constituents, and at the same time recalls their humble beginnings.

What strikes one, however, as most curious in the controversy between the Short-Hairs and the Swallow-Tails, is the illustration it affords of the rigidity with which every class or grade in civilization treats its own social conventions, whatever they may be, as final, and as having some subtle but necessary connection with morals. When the Indian squats round the tribal pot in his breech-clout, and eats his dinner with his dirty paw, he is fully satisfied that he is as well equipped, both as regards dress and manners, not only as a man need be, but as a man ought to be. The toilette, the chamber, and the dinner-table of a plain New England farmer he treats as wasteful and ridiculous excess, and if good for anything, good only for plunder; and the farmer on the other hand loathes the Indian and his ways and thinks him a filthy beast, and that he (the farmer) has reached the limits of the proper as regards clothes and food and personal habits, and that the city man who puts greater elaboration into his life is a fribble, who is to be pitied, if not despised and distrusted. In short, we can hardly go one step into the controversy without coming on the old question, what are luxuries and what necessities; and, as usual, the majority decides it in the manner that best suits itself. It may be said without exaggeration that the progress of civilization has consisted largely in the raising of what is called "the standard of living," or, in other words, the multiplication of the things deemed necessary for personal comfort, and, as this raising of the standard has always been begun by the few, the many have always fought against it as a sign of selfishness or affectation until they themselves were able to adopt it. The history of the bath furnishes a curious though tolerably familiar illustration of this. The practice of bathing disappeared from Western Europe with the fall of the Roman Empire. The barbarians were themselves dirty fellows, like the Indians, and their descendants remained dirty in spite of the growth of civilization among them, putting their money, like the Short-Hair, mainly into jewels and other ornaments. As long as linen was scarce and dear, changes were of course seldom made, and the odor of even "the best society" was so insupportable that perfumes had to be lavishly used to overcome it. The increased cheapness of linen and more recently of cotton, and the increased facilities for bathing, have in our own day made personal cleanliness a common virtue, but an occasional bath is still as much as is thought, through the greater part of the world, compatible with moral earnestness and high aims. Of late, indeed within the memory of the present generation, persons, mainly belonging to the wealthier class in England, have boldly begun to bathe every day, and they have finally succeeded in establishing the rule that a gentleman is bound to bathe, or "tub," as they call it, every day, and that the usage cannot be persistently neglected without loss of position. Indeed, there are few social casuists in England who would decide, without great hesitation and anxiety, that any English-speaking man was a gentleman who did not take a daily bath. That this view of the matter should be accepted by the great body of those who would rather not bathe every day is not to be expected, nor is it to be wondered at that they should consider it offensive, and that the practice of sponging one's self in cold water every morning should in caucuses be looked on as a disqualification for political life. There is of course a necessary and provoking, though tacit, assumption of superiority in the display of greater cleanliness than other people show, just as there is in coming into a room and finding fault with the closeness of the air in which other people are sitting comfortably. It is tantamount to saying that what is good enough for them is not good enough for you, and they always either openly or secretly resent it.

The popular distrust of the practice of wearing white cravats in the evening may be traced to the same causes. The savage makes no change of toilette for the evening. He dresses for war and religious ceremonies, but he goes to a social reunion or feast in such clothes as he happens to have on when the invitation finds him. The plain man of civilized life, under similar circumstances, puts on a clean shirt and his best suit of clothes. This suit, among the European peasantry, is apt to be of simply the same cut and material as the working suit, or, as it would be called in Brooklyn, "the garb of toil"; among Americans, it is a black suit, like that of a clergyman, and includes a silk cravat, generally black, but permissibly colored. The whole matter is, however, one of pure convention. Now, it has been found of late years a matter of convenience, and of great convenience especially to hard-worked men and men of moderate means, who are exposed to the constant social demands of the great cities of the world, to have a costume in which one can appear on any festive occasion, great or small, which all, gentle or simple, are alike expected to wear, which is neither rich nor gaudy, and in

which every man may feel *sure* that he is properly dressed ; and the dress fixed on for this purpose now throughout the civilized world is the plain suit of black, with the swallow-tailed coat, commonly called "evening dress." Nothing can be simpler or less pretentious, or more democratic. Nobody can add anything to it or take anything away from it. Many attempts to modify it have been made during the last thirty years by leaders of fashion, and they have all failed, because it meets one of the great wants of human nature. Nevertheless, it made its way with difficulty. It is only within the last fifteen years that it has obtained a firm foothold in American cities. People looked on it with suspicion, as a sign of some inward and spiritual naughtiness, and regarded the frock-coat with its full skirts as the only garment in which a serious-minded man, with a proper sense of his origin and destiny, and correct feelings about popular government, could make his appearance in a lady's parlor. Why, nobody could tell, for there was a time, not very far back, when the frock-coat was itself an innovation. Of late, that is, within perhaps twenty years, the Swallow-Tails of the world have exchanged the black or colored for a white cravat, and justify themselves by saying that it not only looks cleaner, but *is* cleaner of necessity than a silk one, and that you cannot look too clean or fresh about your throat when you present yourself in a lady's house on a festive occasion. Nevertheless, the plain, blunt men are not satisfied. They do not as yet feel sure as to its meaning. They think it indicates either overthoughtfulness about trifles or else a leaning, slight though it be, towards despotism and free-trade. They will now all, or nearly all, wear evening dress with a black cravat, but even those of them who will consent to put on a white one do so with a certain shamefacedness and sense of backsliding and of treachery to some good cause, though they do not exactly know which.

## THE ANTI-PRUSSIAN ENCYCLICAL.

BERLIN, March 2, 1875.

MR. REICHENSPERGER declared the other day in the Prussian Landtag that "the Ultramontanes acknowledge the May laws in so far as they willingly submit to the punishments inflicted by them, while otherwise they (the laws) would only too likely be met with the fists." That is a standpoint against the principle of which nothing can be said. It has been the conflict of duties which has thus far secured a respectful sympathy for those candid Ultramontanes whose spokesman Mr. Reichensperger was in the above-mentioned declaration. Now they are no longer allowed to occupy this dearly-paid-for but honorable middle ground. The Encyclical of February 5 has left but one alternative to a man of honor—disobedience to the infallible master or open rebellion against the state. Henceforth only idiots can, without conscious lying, assert that the new doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church are perfectly compatible with the allegiance of the citizens to the state. The Pope declares the so-called Falk Laws "totally null and void," and, what is worth noticing, not because they are against the Laws of *God*, but because they are wholly incompatible with all the rules and doctrines of the *Church*. Now, what the Pope can declare and decree with regard to Prussian laws he evidently can declare and decree with regard to the laws of any other State, and the more so as he "in a certain manner *owns* every man baptized in the name of Christ," as this "servant of servants" was pleased to announce in his letter to the Emperor. Henceforth no law is valid in any Christian commonwealth unless his Holiness has expressly or tacitly consented to its validity.

On one essential point there is no difference of opinion : the Encyclical is not a stroke into the air. The only question is, Who will be hit by it ? As yet one does not know what the Bishops are going to do about it. Will they publish it officially, or will they rest contented with its publication by the daily press ? In either case they will put themselves in an awkward and dangerous position. If they do not publish it officially, their solidarity with the infallible Pope has ceased to exist. Undoubtedly, it is but a small crack ; but here the slightest crack is almost certain to widen and to deepen, and in the course of time it might grow to be a yawning gulf which the infallible one himself might be unable to bridge. And that their refusal of an official publication would be a break in the solidarity of the Pope and the German Bishops there is no possibility of denying. The gist of the joint declaration recently issued by the latter against Bismarck's circular despatch concerning the election of a new Pope, is the assertion that the dogma of infallibility has not in the least produced a change in the relations of the Pope towards either the bishops or the states. It is an utterly unfounded invention of Catholic apostates and Protestants that by this dogma the sovereign power of the Pope has been extended over the proper domain of the State. While the Council were deliberating the dogma these same German Bishops protested against it, "in order to decline all responsibility for it before men and before the terrible judgment of God." "Over night"—to use the expression of Bishop Hefele, who was soon himself to join the rest—they changed their conviction, and ever since they have tried to screen the shame of their submission behind that harmless interpretation of the dogma. However great the powers be which Christ has intended the Bishops to possess, one is not to be found among them—the power to make a compromise with principles and with one's conscience a harmless thing by hiding it under oily words and finespun quibbles. A man like Bishop Hefele ought to have known that the Jesuits, after having obtained the submission of the Bishops to the dogma, would not rest satisfied with an interpretation of it which renders it worthless. As the Bishops have pocketed their protest, so they may now throw their joint declaration into the waste-paper basket, for the Encyclical of February 5 is the practical application of the interpretation given by Peronne, in March, 1871 : "The Pope is the supreme judge over all civil laws. In him the two powers—the spiritual and the temporal—run together as to one point, for he is the *locum tenens Christi*, who is not only the eternal priest, but also the King of kings and the Lord of lords."

On the other hand, if the Bishops dare make an official publication of the Encyclical, it may cost them their bishopries. Prussia has already proved that she is not at all afraid to remove a Bishop, and everything indicates that the Government is determined to meet this new attempt of the Holy See with terrible earnestness. Surely a sweeping removal of all the Bishops would make the conflict about as acute as one can imagine. But neither the Government nor the Liberal parties will shrink from it on that account, for it is not of their seeking ; and, besides, it is not unlikely that in this manner a satisfactory result will be attained much sooner. Perhaps, also, the Government will forbear once more to apply this heroic remedy, for there are yet several other means left in its hands, as, for instance, the withdrawal of the pecuniary support which the Church at present receives from the State. Nothing will be decided until the Bishops have taken their position in an unmistakable manner. Only this much is certain : the blow will be met with a blow, and neither the Government nor the public is likely to be betrayed into a rash decision. At present they watch and deliberate. The press is discussing some measures of a most incisive character. For instance, it has been proposed to bind all Government officials and the members of the Landtag by an oath of allegiance so plainly worded that, in spite of all Jesuitical skill in interpreting and all mental reservations, no man of any honor could take it who acknowledges and submits to the principles laid down in the Encyclical of February 5. Whether or no such an "iron-clad" oath be required in future, every man whose moral perceptions are not entirely perverted by religious fanaticism has already been placed on the fence, and can no longer put off his decision, whether he incline to the left or to the right. And there is a very large class of honorable men who, thus far, have been able to defer making any decision. They have not liked infallibility, but they have liked still less to break with the Church. So they have chosen the middle ground of keeping their mouths shut, which, under the circumstances, can hardly be judged incompatible with honor, as they were not forced either to make a direct profession of faith with regard to the new dogma or to refuse obedience to the laws of the country. This is no longer possible. They must either treat the solemn decision of the infallible *locum tenens Christi* as "empty wind," or they must cease to be true to their country and to their king. What the choice of the great majority of this class of men will be there cannot be any doubt. The hold of the clergy upon the masses is still very great, and therefore the end of the conflict is probably yet far off ; but the Encyclical of February 5 is certainly the beginning of the end. From this day even the most blindfolded Jesuits will begin to perceive the truth of what Bishop Hefele wrote in November, 1871 : "The new dogma . . . damages the Church in an incalculable manner, so that it has never received a heavier and more deadly blow than on the 18th of July of this year."

The state of the public mind I may illustrate by an interesting little anecdote. One of our best known professors of Roman law, a man of a very mild temper, who has never been heard to advance any extreme opinion, said to me the other day : "When I read the declaration of war by France in 1870, I exclaimed, 'There will be a terrible judgment of God (*Gottesgericht*).' I had exactly the same feeling on reading the Encyclical of February 5." It is very significant that this confidence in a final and complete victory is not in the least abated by the rumors of Bismarck's intentions to put the reins of government into other hands, though these rumors undoubtedly rest on a solid foundation. The final decision of the Chancellor is, however, not expected before the end of the

summer. That until then any decisive result will be attained, of course no one believes ; yet, so far as this question is concerned, no one feels any serious alarm on account of the eventual retirement of Bismarck. Partly this is to be explained by the hope of seeing his health restored by complete rest, so that, if in case of great need he is again called to the helm, he will be found to grasp it with all the strength of his best days. His constitution renders this hope a perfectly reasonable one, and reconciles the people more and more to the likelihood of his yielding at last to the urgent warnings of his physicians. From the possibility of his consenting to be sent into the Reichstag as a simple representative, they derive little consolation, and, I dare say, the judgment of their political instincts is more correct than the deep speculations of the correspondent of the *Kölnische Zeitung*, who first broached this idea, no matter how high his standing and how well informed he may be. The comparison he makes with the English statesmen, the Pitts and Peel, is a very unfortunate one. The Radicals, who are still now and again pleased to call the Reichstag and our Landtags "debating clubs," are hardly more wrong than those who consider the constitutionalism of England and that of Germany the same thing. A well-known general is reported to have said to Bismarck on the battle-field of Sadowa : "If our grenadiers had not conquered to-day, the old women would have hunted you out of the country with their broomsticks" ; and the statesman himself has often acknowledged that at that time he played *va banque*. His whole career since is proof how firmly he is convinced that with us also no government can be strong whose policy is not freely and decidedly supported by the majority of the people. Yet the mainspring of the political power is in what we call the "Government," *i.e.*, the King (Emperor) and his cabinet ; for we are by our historical development, by all our traditions, and by our actual political institutions an eminently monarchical people. Bismarck, as the leader of the majority in the Reichstag, can never play so important a part as the great English statesmen have played as leaders of the opposition minority. Besides, the most prominent feature of his political genius is his daring initiative, for which there is no play in the position of a simple representative. In one word, it is only in the first place that his services are invaluable, and that he cannot be replaced.

But whether I am right in this or not, the state of the public mind with regard to the conflict with Rome is, in the main, not determined by any hopes or fears concerning the resolutions of the Chancellor. Even in the eyes of the plain people with little education, it stands forth as a tremendous struggle of principles, in which victory *cannot* remain with night and darkness, because it cannot be dependent upon the leaders and incidents of the day. The spirit of the Reformation is once more alive—the spirit of the Reformation, not as it appears in Luther fighting his way through the dead wilderness of Roman formalism to the dogma *sola fide*, but the spirit of the Reformation as it appears in the friendship of Ulrich von Hutten and Luther, breaking the chains of Roman despotism, and preaching to princes and peasants alike that there is a political future for Germany too, if she only wills it.

## BOSSUET.

PARIS, March 12.

I HAVE before me a new (anonymous) English life of Bossuet, the Bishop of Meaux.* Cardinal de Bausset wrote a long life of the great orator, "bulky and dry," to use the words of the new biographer. But if you wish to know the real man, you must read the Memoirs and the Journal of the Abbé Le Dieu. I have always considered Bossuet as the greatest prose writer of the seventeenth century, and have taken the greatest interest in all that concerns him. Some of the original copies of his works, I wish I could say all, are on the shelves of my library, and this new biography has surprised me by its accuracy and its exhaustive character.

Bossuet belonged to the strong races of Burgundy, where you find a good mixture of the old Celtic blood of Gaul and of the blood of the German Burgundians, who settled in the east of our country, while the Franks established themselves in the north. He was named Bénigne, from the great saint who has given his name to the cathedral church of the town. His father had a numerous family ; he held a small parliamentary office, and removed to Metz, leaving Bénigne under the care of an uncle, a man of letters, who had a good library. At a very early age the Bible became his favorite study ; during all his lifetime he read it with passion, I may say ; his style has a Biblical boldness and simplicity. He was sent to Paris after the most brilliant classical studies to improve himself in philosophy. Descartes was the new luminary, and Bossuet began to study his works. "I foresee," he wrote to Father Lami, "a great warfare now rising up against the Church under the name of *Philosophie Cartésienne*. I foresee more than one heresy springing from out its bosom, from, to my mind, its misunderstood principles." The Jesuits never liked the Cartesian philosophy, but Bossuet was not the slave of the Jesuits, though he owed to them his education. He became a Gallican ; Gallicanism and Cartesianism went together and were connected by some secret ties which are now hardly perceptible. It is somewhat curious to find that, unlike most Cartesians, Bossuet never liked mathematics or science. In one of his sermons before the King in 1666 he said : "Cultivate science, but do not allow yourselves to become absorbed by it ; do not presume and believe that you are something more than others, because you know the properties and reasons of what is great or small ; empty food for curious and weak spirits, which, after all, leads to nothing which exists."

Bossuet, while he studied at the Collége de Navarre, was introduced to the hôtels of Nevers, Rambouillet, and others. The young theological student saw the *précieuses*, and preached before them ; and Voiture, of course, made his pun, saying that he never heard a man preach so early nor so late. So great became his reputation, that Condé came to attend the debate which took place on the day when he took his degree. Condé remained his friend ever afterwards, as we know from the pathetic tone of the great oration which Bossuet delivered at his funeral ; and the statue of Bossuet will soon be erected in the pleasure-gardens of Chantilly, where the great bishop and the great warrior often strolled together, talking over the great problems of religion and philosophy. At the age of thirteen Bossuet had been made canon of the cathedral of Metz ; after he was ordained, he went to fulfil the duties of his office. He returned soon to the Collége de Navarre, at the beginning of the Fronde, and was amongst the besieged while his patron, the Prince de Condé, Governor of Burgundy, blockaded the capital. He had been named Bursar of the college. In 1652, Bossuet took his doctor's degree, and was appointed archdeacon of Sarrebourg, a small town in Lorraine ; he received priest's orders the same year, after the usual *retraite*, or period of prayer, of meditation, and solitude. The diocese of Metz had been much neglected ; its bishops were absentees, who remained at Court. Bossuet undertook to administer the abandoned diocese ; he left Paris and devoted himself to his duties. Bossuet, remarks our author, does not seem to have had a ritualistic turn of mind. Of course not ; nothing was more grandly severe than the old Gallican church of France ; it had not the austerity of a Puritan church, but it was eminently a serious church. The Romanism of a later period has, to many a good Catholic in France, seemed a corruption. Bossuet was not a man to be amused with flowers, perfumes, and candlesticks. He lived at Metz with two sisters of his and with the Schombergs. His first controversial book was a refutation of Ferry's 'Catechism.' Ferry, the Protestant minister of Metz, had written a big book against the Church of Rome and the doctrine of papal infallibility. Bossuet had, therefore, to treat, at the very first a question which is, perhaps, the most difficult for a devout Catholic: "We only respect the Pope's authority," says he, "because we are convinced that Jesus Christ, our Master, entrusted it to him under strict obligation to render account to himself of its administration. We believe that Jesus has not forsaken his Church, and for that reason alone we believe her to be infallible." The author of the biography cites a phrase of this refutation which seems to me very fine ; it touches on the great question of grace : "Just as man gives sentence by *declaring* the accused to be innocent, so God gives it by *making* him innocent." In Bossuet's doctrine, it is faith which justifies, but good works are the fruit of justification.

The quiet life of Bossuet in Metz was interrupted by the arrival of the Queen with young King Louis XIV., Cardinal Mazarin, and all the Court. He preached before Anne of Austria. In 1658 he was sent to Paris by the Chapter of Metz, and his fame was such already that he was many times asked to preach, and his success is even noticed in Loret's 'Muse Historique,' which is the history of the *grand siècle* in small verse. Preaching seemed for some years to be his only vocation. He left the pulpit, however, on the coming in of 1669, and after that year he rarely preached in Paris, except when he delivered his great funeral orations. I doubt if all Bossuet's sermons have been printed, though there is a collection of them. The Abbé Le Dieu, his intimate, represents him as going for years from parish to parish, Gospel in hand, and finding in the Holy Book an inexhaustible fountain of eloquence. The printed sermons are mere skeletons ; and still, here and there, it seems as if you felt the living ardor of the inspired preacher, and saw his eagle eye, and heard the vibration of his proud voice.

I cannot dwell on every incident of so full a career, and must treat only a few isolated subjects. How came it that Bossuet created a new variety of oratorical speech in his funeral orations ? He was tempted by the grandeur of the subjects he had to treat : how could he make an ordinary sermon with the coffins of Henrietta of England or of Condé before him ? He could

* 'Bossuet and his Contemporaries. By the author of 'A Dominican Artist.'' London : Rivingtons ; New York : Pott, Young & Co.

not read eulogies or biographies either, as people do in the French Academy. His funeral orations are, so to speak, history condensed, magnified, and turned into a great lesson of Christianity. Nothing can approach their sublimity in some parts, and they will remain as the most majestic monuments of the French language, at the time when it had acquired its perfection. The bibliophiles, who may be a little absurd at times, but who have a clear view of what is choicest in art, are now almost frantic for the original edition of the funeral orations; they were printed in quarto in the magnificent large type of the time. I have seen a copy of the Condé oration, which the binder had not yet touched, sold for six hundred francs.

There is a splendid solidity, even in a material sense, in most of Bossuet's works. I have before me, for instance, the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle,' a large quarto volume, and the 'Politique tiré de l'Ecriture Sainte.' What strikes me most when I turn over the pages of these revered old volumes is not only the incomparable beauty of the style, it is the absence of doubt, the strength of the faith which inspired them. We cannot feel as these men did in the seventeenth century. Bossuet believed in his church, in his king, as all men believe that the sun will rise to-morrow. His 'History of the Variations of the Protestant Churches' is simply marvellous in this respect: he feels real pity, almost contempt, for all these poor, struggling, divided, new-born upstart little churches; he celebrates the majestic unity, the antiquity of the Catholic Church; division seems to him the best proof of error. His church is one in which all wills are bent by the will of God. It is a universal union, not a discordant struggle of feeble voices.

How changed our ideal is! We cannot help envying those generations of France which, after the wars of religion, the troubles of the Fronde, gave their whole heart to a glorious monarchy, surrounded with the pomp of art, hallowed by the prayers of men like Bossuet and Massillon, and by the most extraordinary growth of genius. Bossuet has always represented pre-eminently to me what we call the *grand siècle;* he has no doubts like La Bruyère, no hours of revolt such as you can find in many passages of the 'Caractères'; his mind does not wander far away from the orthodox monarchical or theological faith, like that of Fénelon when he wrote his 'Telemachus' or the 'Explication des Maximes des Saints'; he is not in secret revolt against the omnipotence of royalty, like Saint-Simon; he is a pillar of the church and of the state, as hard as granite and as immovable. His controversial powers are terrific; he treats Fénelon, in his 'Relation du Quiétisme,' as a schoolmaster would a child. Many a Protestant writer tried his argumentation against Bossuet, but all in vain. Bossuet is like a living force; his eloquence resembles a strong wind which bends the oaks as well as the poplars. When we read over the history of Madame Guyon, we must confess that she deserved little sympathy, and that Bossuet was right in attacking the morbid sentimentalism which she tried to introduce into the teachings of the church, and which had for a moment deceived the mild Fénelon. Most writers side with Fénelon in this great struggle; the long war of pamphlets between the two bishops has now become tedious. From a Catholic, and one may even say from a Christian, point of view, Bossuet appears to me to have been on the right side in this question; and feeling that he was right and that quietism was a dangerous form of mysticism, he may be excused for having attacked it with some degree of violence.

There was so much vigor in Bossuet that he clung to life instinctively, to the great wonder of the Abbé Le Dieu, who was surprised that constant meditation on the gospels should not have extinguished this sentiment. He went to Paris in his last illness, and spent his last days with Bourdaloue, Père de la Chaise, and others. Can we wonder that during his illness he had his own 'Universal History,' his 'Meditations,' and 'Elevations to God' read to him? He died on the 12th of April, 1704, at the age of seventy-six. The admirers of the great bishop will find in the new English biography a condensation of all the minutest details which are known about him, and which are spread in other works through numerous volumes. The tone of the work is agreeable and not too florid. It is a historical study rather than a panegyric, and, notwithstanding the character of many theological questions, may be read without fatigue.

# Correspondence.

## MALUM AND MALUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number, of March 18 (p. 191), you quote an extract from the London *Academy* of February 29, which is reported by your contributor as saying:

"In his answer to the well-merited castigation which we recently administered to the transatlantic archæologists, Mr. Trumbull actually commits a pun implying the equivalence of mālum and mălum. When will American scholars learn to pay due regard to quantities? Are the members of the Oriental and Philological Societies really any better than the bank-officer of whom we read in the same paper, who, his salary being only $5,000, out of heedlessness of quantity took $50,000?"

It is not quite clear from the above passage what the offence of Mr. Trumbull consists of. If, in committing his pun, he has betrayed "heedlessness of quantity," it must be left to him to meet so grave a charge against himself and the wholesale rebuke administered to American scholars. If, however, he has merely been guilty of a play upon two Latin words which, though they sound alike, differ in quantity, I beg to interpose and respectfully express my dissent from the assertion that such play is not fair play.

It is in itself quite improbable that the Romans, with their conscious deficiency of native wit and humor, should have carefully restricted their propensity for punning, and confined themselves to such words as would come strictly within the accepted definitions of *Antanaclasis* and *Paronomasia.* The latter is defined by Cicero (de Orat., ii. 63, conf. Quintil. Inst., 6, 3, 53) as "*parva verbi immutatio, in litera posita,*" involving, therefore, a slight change in the sound of the word, whereas the former implies the use of the same word in another sense (*contraria significatio*, Quint. 9, 3, 68). The well-known play of Terence on the words *amans* and *amens,** that of Plautus on *fel* and *mel,*† and the many instances of cheap and usually far-fetched wit which we find in Cicero (cf. in Verr., iv. 5, 10) are specimens of the one class of puns; the often-quoted *Sustulit hic matrem, sustulit ille patrem,*‡ furnishes a good illustration of the other class.

It is difficult to conceive of any valid reason why the use of words that are written and sound alike, and differ only in the quantity of one syllable, should not legitimately come under the one or the other of the above definitions. It is surely not necessary to consider the words mālum and mălum as perfectly "equivalent" in order to make them the peg to hang a pun upon. The fact that a similarity of sound exists is as sufficient a warrant for making a Latin pun as it is for making a French calembour; and we cannot doubt that Cicero would have perpetrated his pun on *amari*§ with the same gusto if the quantity of the first syllables of *ămo* and *ămarus* had not been alike.

Indeed, many passages like the line of Propertius‖ in which a pun on *mŏra* and *amōre* occurs, could be cited, and, to come to the point, Heineccius, in commenting upon the "elegantissima anaclasis" of Cicero (ad Attic., epist. xiv. 14) on the word *brutorum,*¶ expressly remarks: "*Ita eodem exemplo dixeris*: 'MALIS *me onerās, haud* MALIS'"; and in another place (Fund. Stili Cult., p. 69), in speaking of paroemia, we read: "*Sic si quis de Hannibale diceret: 'Omnibus* MALIS *Punicis inest granum putre' argutissime hoc esset dictum, cum ob aequivocationem* MALIS *tum ob paroemiam.*"

It does seem as though "the *Academy* had spent its strength mainly in finding something to carp at." As for Mr. Trumbull, I presume he will content himself with that species of contest which Florus (Hist., ii. 6) characterizes as a "*nova de Hannibale victoria*—Nolle pugnare."**

F. H.

Stockbridge, Mass., March 23, 1875.

---

[When the history of the Latin Pun is written, it will be instructive in many ways. Years ago W. A. Becker called attention to the literary-historical importance of the pun. How little or how much Plautus altered his Greek originals cannot, in the absence of those originals, be made out. We must be grateful, therefore, for even the slender evidence afforded by the puns, which in most cases cannot have been translated from the Greek. The phonetic range of the Latin pun was immense. Not much evidence for sounding *c*, the Latin *k*, as *s*, can be deduced from the pun on "Amphitruonis Sōsiam" and "Amphitruonis sŏcium" (Plaut., Amph. 383), or from the pun on *servos* and *cervos*, which may be implied in the Poenulus, III. 1, 20, sqq. As to overriding quantity, "every schoolboy knows," as Macaulay would say, Nero's joke about the dead Claudius, "morari eum desisse inter homines producta prima syllaba

* "Inceptio haec est amentium, non amantium."—Ter. Andr. 1, 3.
† "Amor et melle et felle fecundissimus."
‡ "Quis negat Aeneae natum de stirpe Neronem?
Sustulit hic matrem, sustulit ille patrem."—Suet. Nero, 39.
§ "Amari jucundum est, si curetur, ne quid insit amari."
‖ "Tu levis in nullo quaeris amōre mŏram."
¶ "Quid ergo? ista culpa Brutorum? minime illorum quidem, sed aliorum brutorum."—Cf. Heineccius, l.c. p. 98.
** Novam de Hannibale victoriam commentus est Fabius, nolle pugnare."

iocabatur"; that is, "Claudius had ceased to play the dizzard" (mōrari, μωραίνειν), for he "had ceased to tarry among men" (mŏrari); and the pages of Plautus swarm with illustrations of this point. Our correspondent says "we cannot doubt that Cicero" [or Cornificius?] "would have perpetrated his pun on *amari* with the same gusto if the quantity of the first syllables of *ămo* and *ămarus* had not been alike." We have our doubts, by the way, whether this pun is really Cicero's. Like many other of his good things, we think it is borrowed from somebody else, or at any rate based on the old "amor amari dat tamen quod aegrest satis." But that a Roman would not have stuck at a pun between ămari and a conceivable āmari can be demonstrated by an example where the difference in quantity is greater. A lover, disguised by a patch over his eye, is asked: "What has become of your eye?" "My eye? Oh! my eye is all right." "Yes, but I mean the left one." "I'll tell you:

"'Maris caussa hercle istoc ego oculo utor minus.
Nam si apstinuissem a mare, eo tamquam hoc uterer.'"

Here we have a pun on *ā mărе*, "from the sea," and *ămāre*, "to love," which it passes our ingenuity to do into English. A German, W. A. B. Herzberg, *audax omnia perpeti*, has essayed it in German:

"Hätt' ich dem lieben Meer en'sagen können."

Which may be read:

"Hätt' ich dem Lieben mehr entsagen können."

Finally, if Mr. Trumbull has really got into any serious trouble by venturing a pun on *mīlum* and *mĭlum*, he can be helped out of that with very little ado. It was Charles James Fox, we think, speaking without book, who was fond of putting the two lines of Virgil together:

"Malo me Galatea petit, lasciva puella:
Tu ne cede malis, sed contra audentior ito."

But we do not propose to convince Englishmen even with an Englishman's joke. We cite a higher authority, a man whose right to joke on the subject is unquestioned—Titus Maccius Plautus (Amph. 721):

ALCUMENA. Verum tu *mălum magnum* habebis, si hic suum officium facit.
Ob istuc omen, ominator, *capies quod te condecet.*
SOSIA. Enimvero praegnati oportet mulieri *mălum* dari,
*Ut quod obrodat sit*, animo si male esse occeperit.

It should be explained for those who, like "F. H.," have been misled by the above supposed extract from the *Academy*, that it reproduces the spirit and not the exact words of that paper. Mr. Trumbull was rebuked, schoolmaster fashion, for a want of "prosodial accuracy" in making such a pun.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. publish this month Hamerton's 'Harry Blount,' passages in a boy's life on land and sea; Sarah Tytler's 'Musical Composers and their Works'; R. St. John Tyrwhitt's letters and studies on landscape art, entitled 'Our Sketching Club'; and a single domestic production, a 'Paragraph History of the United States,' by Edward Abbott, a son of Jacob Abbott, and one of the editors of the Boston *Congregationalist*.

——The excellent address delivered in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, on the hundredth anniversary of the Congress of 1774, by Mr. Henry Armitt Brown, has been privately printed in a handsome manner with notes and references. An interesting centennial anniversary in the same city is announced for the 14th instant, that, namely, of the founding of the "Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, the Relief of Free Negroes unlawfully held in Bondage, and for Improving the Condition of the African Race." This society, which was originally designed to prevent the kidnapping and enslavement of free negroes, was reconstituted in April, 1787, when Benjamin Franklin was elected president. It was the parent of all the anti-slavery societies in this country, and still exists, applying its funds to educational purposes, especially to freedmen's schools at the South. Dr. William Elder will be the orator of the occasion.——We learn from the *Academy* that a new monthly chronicle of current history, *Die Zeitgeschichte*, edited by Dr. Martin Waldeck, has begun to be published at Berlin. The politics of the United States as well as of each European state are embraced in the scheme of this useful periodical.

—A very useful volume has just been issued in the "Clarendon Press" Series—'Fragments and Specimens of Early Latin,' edited by Mr. John Wordsworth. It is a thick octavo, and contains an elaborate grammatical introduction, followed by copious selections, first from inscriptions, second from authors. The term "Early Latin" is defined as embracing the whole period of the Republic, but, of course, the standard and familiar authors who fall within this period are almost entirely excluded. On the other hand, there are abundant specimens of Cato and Varro, as well as of the fragments of the poets, historians, and orators of the Republic. The chief value of the work will, however, we think—at least for American use—be found in the inscriptions, to which we have so little access in this country. Besides specimens of sepulchral inscriptions, vases, coins, etc., we have here collected several of the documents which are not commonly referred to—The Song of the Fratres Arvales, the Senatus-Consultum De Bacchanalibus, the Lex Acilia Repetundarum, the so-called Lex Thoria, the Lex Julia Municipalis, all the extant fragments of the Twelve Tables, and, in an Appendix, a number of Pompeian programmes, *graffiti*, etc. The notes follow the text, and are very full and satisfactory.

—It seems a little unaccountable that students of English early constitutional history pay so little attention to the parallelisms in the sister kingdom of Scotland, dismissing it, for the most part, as Mr. Hallam does, with the remark that it "furnishes no authentic historian, nor laws, nor charters" earlier than the twelfth century. Nevertheless, this barren field is not altogether unworthy of cultivation. Mr. Robertson's 'Scotland Under Her Early Kings' and 'Historical Essays' are quite well known; and besides these, a series of lectures upon 'Scotch Legal Antiquities,' published in 1872 by the late Prof. Cosmo Innes of Edinburgh, will furnish more than one hint in elucidation of English institutions. What strikes the reader most forcibly, in the chapter upon Parliament, for instance, is the fact that both kingdoms, although in different degree, were from the earliest times *constitutional* kingdoms. Scotland had no Magna Charta, no Henry II., no Edward I.; and yet it, as well as England, worked its way out of feudalism into the possession of genuine free institutions. The explanation seems to be that the fundamental institutions of the two nations—from the time when Scotland made Teutonic Lothian rather than Celtic Dalriada its political centre—were essentially the same; so that Scotland, although lacking certain important forces in its development, and in spite of its long exposure to French influences, never fell very far short of English liberties. The most significant illustration of this is perhaps to be found in the fact that in both nations the lesser barons did not unite with the higher nobility to form a powerful political aristocracy, which crushed out all democratic life, as in the nations of the Continent, but affiliated rather with the representatives of the boroughs, and are reckoned, with them, in Parliament, as composing the Commons.

—An interesting article on William Blake is contributed to the last *Atlantic* by Mr. T. S. Perry, apropos of Rossetti's edition of his poems and Mr. C. E. Norton's edition of the Job. It brings out very distinctly the difference between what Blake could do, or perhaps we should say might have done, in the way of poetry, and what he actually did accomplish. Early in life Blake carefully cultivated the poetical style of the great English poetic period, as may be seen in the following quaint piece of imitation:

"My silks and fine array,
My smiles and languished air,
By love are driven away;
And mournful, lean Despair
Brings me yew to deck my grave.
Such end true lovers have.

"His face is as fair as heaven
When springing buds unfold:
Oh! why to him was 't given,
Whose heart is wintry cold?
His breast is love's all-worshipped tomb,
Where all love's pilgrims come.

"Bring me an axe and spade,
Bring me a winding-sheet;
When I my grave have made,
Let winds and tempests beat:
Then down I'll lie, as cold as clay.
True love doth pass away!"

This fact explains, in a measure, his copious vocabulary, and at the same time suggests an origin natural enough for many of his peculiar turns of expression. Blake will probably always be a critics' poet, for he was, speaking after the manner of the flesh, too reckless of his public; and it is a curious sort of revenge of fate upon him that this over-simple, childlike, innocent man, visionary or mystic, should have now fallen a prey to Mr. Swinburne, who has undertaken to explain his less intelligible and sane words as being in the nature of progress-

sive essays of a communistic reformer of some sort. "Part of the joy Mr. Swinburne feels at flying in the face of 'Philistia' is made over by him to Blake, who was probably unconscious of the heresy which was to be ascribed to him in these later days. Blake's occasional enthusiastic overtoppling of social walls bears much more resemblance to the wanton thoughtlessness of a child than it does to the disgust of a man who takes hold of the world in a way sure to produce satiety, or to the scorn of one who has carefully weighed the world as it is and the world as he would have it, and who has then taken the side of those who wish to remodel it."

—The *Atlantic* and *Scribner's* for April both contain articles from the fertile pen of Mr. G. E. Waring, that in the *Atlantic* giving an amusing account of some Southern cavalry service during the Rebellion, and of a horse which, from his owner's account, must have been a fine beast; and the true version of the end of the battle of Pontotoc, in Northeastern Mississippi, described by the rebel general Forrest as "a cavalry charge of the enemy, which was repulsed," but by Mr. Waring as a cavalry charge of the *Vierte Missouri*, which, though brought up by a staked and ridered rail fence, not previously taken into account by the commanding officer, nevertheless dispersed the rebel foe. In *Scribner's*, Mr. Waring gives an account of a "farmer's vacation" in Holland—an interesting article with capital illustrations. Hardly worth printing, we should say, are the dozen pages given up to the "Liverpool of America" (Baltimore). We must also enter a *caveat* with regard to the article on the "Shakspere-Bacon Controversy," as it is entitled, for it is unfair to call that a controversy which is entirely carried on by one person. Judge Holmes of Missouri is, we believe, the only person living who really believes either that Shakspere wrote Bacon or that Bacon wrote Shakspere; and until he brings forward some more direct evidence than that Miss Delia Bacon believed that if Shakspere's grave could be opened, evidence of Bacon's authorship would be found, we can hardly expect the controversy to get very violent. It is announced, by the way, that Mr. Holmes is about to issue a new edition of his remarkable work, containing new and important evidence, and we therefore take this opportunity of pointing out that the theory that the writer of Shakspere must have been a profound lawyer does not point to Bacon, for Bacon was not a profound lawyer at all; Queen Elizabeth, at least, who must have known if anybody did, is quoted, in Macaulay's essay on Bacon, as saying: "Bacon hath a great wit and much learning; but in law showeth to the utmost of his knowledge, and is not deep." We trust Mr. Holmes will not overlook this point in his new edition, for, on the theory referred to, it seems to show that some third person, perhaps Coke, had a hand in the plays.

—The statistics of crime in the city of New York are difficult of access, and, when obtained, frequently unreliable. The only officials, so far as we know, charged with the duty of collecting criminal statistics, are the Board of Police Justices, who, under the new city charter, are obliged to make annual reports. The first report of the present Board, recently published, is therefore a document of a good deal of interest, though deprived of much of the value it ought to possess by the absence of all previous records. The value these reports might have may be guessed at when we reflect that these New York police justices—whose courts possess and exercise nearly the whole summary jurisdiction in this population of a million souls—have ceased to be a political body, have a ten years' term of office, depend no longer upon the favor of the criminal classes for their appointments, and have at once better opportunities of observation and greater inducements to the faithful performance of their duty than formerly. We have therefore looked with much interest through this report to see what the police justices have to say on the subject of a practice which (though as a social custom it is rarely talked about at all) every few years leads to acts that attract a great deal of attention—we mean the practice of carrying concealed weapons. In the *Nation* of June 19, 1873, we discussed this subject, apropos of the new murder law then recently passed by the Legislature of this State, and maintained that the only way in which the use of deadly weapons could be effectively checked was the enactment of a law making the carrying of concealed arms a presumptive evidence of intent to use them. We find now that the police judges have been brought, by actual experience and observation of the results of the practice, to the same conclusion which we reached. They say:

"There seems to exist no sound reason why the law which applies to the carrying of slungshots should not apply to the carrying of pistols. Any person found in possession of a slungshot, with intent to use the same against another, is declared to be guilty of a felony; and the mere possession of the instrument, concealed on the person, is declared to be presumptive evidence of such intent. The operation of this law, although of comparatively recent enactment, has been very beneficial, and has caused a marked diminution in the use of this weapon. It is submitted whether an enactment in a similar spirit regarding firearms would not have a like beneficial effect."

—The Baltimore *American* mentions, among the considerations which should govern the trustees in determining the character of the Hopkins University, the probability that the testator, being himself a shrewd and successful business man, intended that his university should be of commercial advantage to Baltimore, and that therefore they ought not to adopt any plan which seems likely to keep down the number of students who will resort to it. If they should take this view of the matter, and decide to make it a thoroughly popular institution which will bring plenty of custom to the Baltimore stores and boarding-houses, we trust they will not overlook the value of chromos in drawing it, and will offer them freely either to every student entering or every student graduating. Our religious contemporaries, whom it would be well to consult on the matter, have had ample experience of their value; and if we may judge from statements of theirs which we have read, it is possible to obtain thirty good chromos from the manufacturer, if you take them wholesale, for the price at which one can be bought at retail. We doubt if Maryland is yet familiar with these delightful works of art, and we have little doubt that hundreds of families would probably send their boys to college for the sake of drawing the pictures. A chromo and a degree would in fact be a temptation which even the poorest could not resist. Up here, it is true, we can do better, for we can get a chromo, a weekly paper, and a strong chance for eternal salvation for less than four dollars a year; but Maryland must not expect to enjoy such advantages within ten years after the abolition of slavery. It might be a question whether the Produce Exchange in Baltimore would not supply the chromos. In fact, the subject will bear much turning over.

—Those of our readers who are interested in the drama will thank us for calling their attention to a work on this subject which is remarkable in many respects, and which bids fair to be one of the most voluminous books of the day. The title is 'Geschichte des Drama's,' by J. L. Klein (Leipzig: T. O. Weigel, 1865–1874, 11 vols. 8vo). It is still in course of publication, the first part of the eleventh volume having just been received. Klein's design is no less than to give a general history of the drama of all times and peoples. What progress he has made, and what enormous proportions his work must assume, may be seen from the following sketch of the contents of the volumes so far published. Volumes I. and II., 1865, contain the introduction and history of the Greek and Roman drama; Volume III., 1866, the non-European drama, and Latin plays from the first to the tenth century, the former including the Indian, Chinese, and Japanese drama, as well as that of the Incas and Aztecs; Volumes IV., V., VI. 1, 2, VII., 1866–1869, the Italian drama; Volumes VIII. to XI. 1, 1871–1874, the Spanish drama down to and partly including Calderon. These volumes average more than seven hundred pages. It is difficult to characterize the work as anything but an enormous, ill-digested mass of valuable material, which owes its overgrown proportions to the author's passion for giving interminable analyses of works under examination—a proceeding, we may safely say, unequalled in the whole range of literary history, and disastrous to the scientific as well as to the popular character of the book. His style, though often bombastic, is attractive, and he is unsparing in his criticisms both of the dead and the living. Some of his attacks are very amusing, as for instance in the sixth volume, where he devotes thirty pages to demolishing Professors Vallauri of Milan, and Ritschl of Leipzig, who dared to object to his treatment of Plautus. He introduces his critics in a dialogue in which they are made to converse in Italian and Latin, and dismissed with Ritschl exclaiming: *Sum satis verberatus, obsecro.* It is a matter of some curiosity as to what the length of Klein's completed work will be. Giving him two more volumes (the second part of the eleventh will only finish Calderon) for the Spanish, and four each for the English, French, German, and other North European dramas, we shall have the respectable number of thirty volumes, which may be increased indefinitely. We see the *Saturday Review* is already beginning to pun on the author's name, which, considering the length of his work, it pronounces a misnomer.

—Students of human anatomy will be glad to hear of the completion of Heitzmann's 'Atlas of Descriptive and Topographical Anatomy.' The sixth part, containing the vascular system, has recently appeared. This work, suggested by the engravings of 'Gray's Anatomy,' and intended to accompany Hyrtl's excellent text-book, has been appearing in parts since 1870. It offers the student a convenient atlas and just enough text to be very useful when reviewing or "cramming," even for those who do not read German readily. Of the six hundred engravings, about fifty are from other authors, most of the remainder being from Heitzmann's own drawings on wood, after preparations made in Vienna. The typographical

execution is admirable, and the details of a macroscopic anatomy are given as clearly as is possible without the use of colors or of the higher arts of the engraver. The publishing price of the six parts, which may be had separately, is fifteen (Austrian) florins—about seven and a half dollars. Another very handy anatomical atlas is that containing the illustrations from Henle's 'Handbuch der systematischen Anatomie.' The second edition of this atlas is also appearing in parts, four of which are already in the market (New York : L. W. Schmidt). Typographically, they are much inferior to their Vienna prototypes, and contain no text, but they cost about one-half less. The coloring of Part III. (myology), very like that of the 'Traité d'Anatomie descriptive' of Cruveilhier and Sée, renders it a very convenient aid to the practical dissecter. Part IV. (augiology) is not bad, but, despite the coloring, we prefer Heitzmann, which the student can color for himself with advantage. English-speaking students of histology are to be congratulated on the appearance of an English translation of Heinrich Frey's valuable manual on the 'Histology and Histochemistry of Man.' (New York : D. Appleton & Co.) Being the work of a single skilful investigator, it is more uniform in its character and better adapted to the wants of beginners than the somewhat more exhaustive and rather too composite handbook of Stricker. The translation reads very smoothly, and the excellences of the original work seem to be well reproduced.

—Late Athens papers record the death of George Finlay on the 26th of January. He was a Scotch Philhellene, who remained in Greece and became a painstaking student of her antiquities and mediæval history. His larger works are 'Greece under the Romans,' and histories of the Byzantine Empire and of Mediæval Greece (1204–1461 A.D.) and the Empire of Trebizond. Besides publishing brief essays on a variety of subjects, he had for years been a regular correspondent of the London *Times*, and had incurred some odium in the land of his adoption by the freedom—not to say severity—of his criticisms on the present generation of Greeks. The relics of prehistoric Greece, or Greece of the stone age, interested Mr. Finlay in his later years. Having collected thirty-two pieces, he published a description of them in 1869, and circulated it widely not only in the present kingdom but in Thessaly and Epirus and other regions beyond. He appealed to school-teachers especially to search for further remains, and he was thus enabled to increase his own collection to more than four hundred specimens. ——Schliemann's Trojan discoveries are still discussed in the Athens journals. Nikolaïdes adheres to his first love, and claims Bunarbashi as the site of Homer's Ilion, in reply to Prof. Burnouf of the French school, who supports the city that has been uncovered on Hissarlik. The Germans have established a school at Athens, apparently on the pattern of the long-existing French school, to which a few young scholars are sent from the mother-country to study under the direction of an eminent archæologist. The inauguration took place at the beginning of winter, at which the director, Otto Luders, made an address on archæology, and Prof. Philippos Ioannou of the University, who has pleasant memories of his residence in Germany, spoke of the services which that country had rendered to Greece. Among the dignitaries present were the Minister of Public Instruction and the ambassadors of Germany and Austria.——The Austrian explorers in Samothrace have succeeded in reconstructing the plan of two beautiful temples which were thrown down by an earthquake about the fifteenth century. One was dedicated to Kybele and Dionysos ; the other, of circular form, was erected by Arsinoë of Egypt about 250 B.C. The latter was discovered about ten years ago by two French explorers, who, however, published no description. The Austrians have found a considerable amount of sculpture in the ruins, which they have sent to the Vienna Museum. A full report is promised soon.

## MAINE'S EARLY HISTORY OF INSTITUTIONS.*

NO men have done so much to revive in England the study of jurisprudence as Austin and Maine. But no two writers are a greater contrast, both in style and in spirit.

Austin's stiff, laborious sentences, in which nothing is ever sacrificed to grace or sound, and everything is sacrificed to clearness and precision, have repelled many promising students, but are exactly adapted to attain the aim of a writer whose sole object was, at any cost of labor to himself or his readers, to express his exact meaning, and to force others to understand the very thought which he intended to convey ; nor has his effort been without its appropriate reward. Whoever has once studied in Austin's school will find that certain notions, limited it may be in number, but of immense theoretical importance, have been permanently impressed on his mind. The nature of "law," the definition of "sovereignty," the distinction between "real" rights and "personal" rights, the elementary terms of legal logic, are explained by Austin with a lucidity and enforced on his readers with a power which make misapprehension or forgetfulness impossible. To have been freed from all mistiness and confusion in respect of the terms which constitute the elements of the logic of law, is the service which Austin's pupils owe to their teacher. Those who are most indebted to his works need have no scruple in confessing that the originality and force of his intellect exceeded its fertility and pliability, and that he and his school approached law almost exclusively from its logical rather than its historical side.

No man of genius can pay a more generous tribute to a teacher of a different stamp of mind from his own than Maine renders to Austin. But the points of contact between the two render the contrast the more marked. The easy grace of Sir Henry Maine's style, his singular aptitude for seizing on the interesting aspects of his subject, the skill with which thoughts are suggested rather than worked out, have attracted to the study of jurisprudence as many students as Austin's ruggedness has repelled. The style, too, in his case, no less than in that of Austin, represents the man. His grace of expression, and the easy flow with which he passes from one interesting topic to another, exactly correspond with the fertility of conception, the ease, so to speak, of thought, and the rapid appreciation of other men's best ideas, which constitute the salient features of his mind. To trace analogies which escape ordinary observation ; to suggest on the slightest hint bold and always ingenious theories ; to apply to the history of law the best historical, scientific, and ethical conceptions of the day ; to point out the limitations under which the rigid theories of writers such as Austin must be admitted, are feats which the author of 'Ancient Law' performs with unrivalled skill and ease. It is as natural that he should survey law from an historical point of view as that Austin should treat it from its logical side. To complain of either for following the natural bent of his genius were futile. In each case it is a matter for congratulation that a writer of singular power should have taken the course best calculated to give his talents full play and extend his influence. That Sir Henry Maine has exerted an extremely wide influence on English legal speculation no one competent to form a judgment can doubt. His first work greatly stimulated, if it did not create, a study of Roman law. His last will, it may be hoped, give a similar impulse to investigations into comparative law, and especially into the legal institutions of India.

The 'Lectures on the Early History of Institutions' are marked by all the characteristics of their author. The annals of Irish law are, it may be suspected, in themselves as dry and crabbed a topic as any subject of real interest can be, and it may well be doubted whether the translations of the ancient laws of Ireland, recently published by the Government, will not rather disappoint students who attempt to peruse them under the enthusiasm kindled by Professor Maine's lectures. But whatever be the character of the documents to which he is mainly indebted for his facts, there is no doubt that the lectures themselves are full of interest. Their charm arises in part from their style, but chiefly from the mass of ingenious suggestions and speculations with which every page is filled. This fertility in new ideas is exactly one of those charms of which it is almost impossible to give any real notion within the limits of a review ; and one or two examples must suffice as mere specimens of Sir Henry Maine's singular and admirable capacity for tracing analogies and forming generalizations. The theory, for example, which connects the Brehons with the Druids is valuable as affording an instructive comparison, whatever may be its worth as a contribution to history ; and the further suggestion that the position of the Brahmins throws light on that of the Brehons is well calculated to point to a line of useful enquiry. It is, in effect, only one example of one of the most remarkable characteristics of the early history of institutions : the constant parallel between ancient Irish and existing Indian institutions. Sir Henry Maine's career has manifestly called his attention to the great importance of bringing together, for the purpose of comparison, the institutions and laws of the East and of the West. But though his position has given him a rare opportunity for illustrating the comparatively modern history of European society by an investigation into the existing institutions of the ancient and stationary societies of the East, his habit of placing the laws of Ireland in constant juxtaposition with the result of investigations into the customs or traditions of India, is merely an application of one of the general theories which he has done as much as any man living to expound and enforce. In all his other works, he has directed attention to the fact that what we call "progress" is limited to a small portion of the human race, and that the mass of the world has, after making a certain advance, remained in a stationary condi-

* 'Lectures on the Early History of Institutions. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine.' London : John Murray ; New York : Henry Holt & Co. 1875.

tion. Hence it follows that the existing institutions of stationary societies often keep alive for examination habits and modes of life which correspond with the habits of early European civilization. It therefore follows that it is probable that ancient Ireland may be illustrated by modern India.

To this idea Sir Henry Maine returns again and again. The Indian family throws light on the Irish sept. The influence of the Brahmins illustrates the influence of the Brehons. An analogy which certainly is extremely striking is discovered between the extraordinary Hindoo custom of "Dharna" and an almost incomprehensible allusion in Irish law to what is called "fasting upon a debtor." That a creditor should, at any time of the world's history, have extorted payment of his debt by threatening to sit down at his debtor's door and there starve himself to death, is strange enough. That the custom should have needed English law to repress it in India is an undoubted fact. That a similar custom once existed in Ireland is a startling theory; and, without knowing something of the texts on which those who maintain it rely, any one must hesitate to affirm positively its truth. Sir Henry Maine, however, has pointed to a most suggestive analogy between Indian custom and the terms of Irish law, and has, moreover, shown that the institution of "fasting upon a debtor" may have been, at one stage of civilization, far from the unintelligible absurdity which it sounds to modern ears. Closely connected with his explanation of the nature of "Dharna" is his whole view of distress and of the history of legal procedure. It is, in fact, to this portion of his last work that we should ourselves point as the most important contribution he has made to the theory of comparative law; but though many persons will be at once startled and interested by the observation "that there is no more ancient institution in the country than the village pound, which is far older than the king's bench, and probably older than the kingdom," the most attractive—the perhaps too attractive—part of Professor Maine's speculations will be found by most readers to be the brilliant generalizations, which present a whole view of history in a few lucid sentences. "The change," for example, he writes, "which took place in France at the first Revolution was this: The land-law of the people superseded the land-law of the nobles. In England the converse process has been gone through, and what has occurred is in harmony with much else in English history. The system of the nobles has become in all essential features the system of the people." "Fewness of ideas," again he lays down, "and slowness of addition to the mental stock, are among the most general characteristics of mankind in its infancy"; and from this doctrine he proceeds, with extraordinary ingenuity, to explain a variety of features in ancient institutions. Another wide inference drawn from the study of Brehon law is that, in some respects, differences of race are, in general, far overrated. Such a study "conveys a stronger impression than ever of a wide separation between the Aryan race and races of other stocks; but it suggests that many—perhaps most—of the differences in kind alleged to exist between Aryan sub-races are really differences merely in degree of development. It is to be hoped the contemporary thought will before long make an effort to emancipate itself from those habits of levity in adopting theories of race which it seems to have contracted. Many of these theories appear to have little merit except the facility which they give for building on them inferences tremendously out of proportion to the labor which they cost the builder."

Each of these reflections is full of interest, and scores as interesting might be culled from Professor Maine's works. Each of those we have cited is in our judgment true, and the last is an observation of immense importance which modern theorists, as well as modern politicians, cannot lay too much to heart, and the only question it suggests is whether its spirit is not wider and truer than its terms. Non-Aryan races are after all human beings, and further investigation may perhaps diminish our opinion of the difference between even the larger divisions of mankind. Sir Henry Maine's generalizations exhibit the weak no less than the strong side of his intellect. In the power of tracing analogies between different institutions, in the capacity for seeing the bearing of obscure and neglected facts, he surpasses any living writer. The fertility, however, and resource of his imagination are apt to lead to the construction of theories which, though useful as suggestions, cannot be said to rest on a wide basis of ascertained fact. In many instances, he may have collected information which fully supports his conclusions; but the unfortunate habit of hardly ever referring to his authorities renders it impossible to distinguish in his writings the realm of fact from the domain of theory. What, for example, is the proof that anything like the *patria potestas* existed in any other race than among the Romans? How far can we safely press what Professor Maine happily terms "ancient dramatization?" Can it, that is to say, be assumed that the dramatic element in early forms of action is always the representation of what at one time was literal fact? Is the likeness between the Brehons and the Druids to be considered merely accidental, or are we to search for an historical connection? Is there any real connection between any tenure known to Roman law and the feudal system? Is it at all certain that the expressions to be found in Irish law as to "fasting upon a debtor" have been rightly interpreted, or that the texts are sufficient to support any certain theory with reference to the habit to which they relate? These and a hundred other enquiries thrust themselves on any intelligent reader either of 'Ancient Law' or of 'The Early History of Institutions.' We do not for a moment undertake to answer these questions. What we do assert is, that Professor Maine does not provide the means for their decisive answer. The facility of his style, his masterly handling of his subject, conceal from his delighted readers the immense amount of hypothesis which underlies even the best ascertained of his theories, and a doubt suggests itself whether his ingenuity in providing solutions for the problems of legal history does not occasionally lead him to confound a plausible hypothesis with a certain fact. The turn of his mind inevitably makes him look at law from its historical side. Of this in itself there is no reason to complain; but it renders him a not quite satisfactory critic of writers who, like Austin, treated law logically. Hence the last chapters of Professor Maine's work, which are in effect a critique on Austin, though full of interesting suggestions, are the least satisfactory part of his work. To complain, for example, that Austin does not deal with the question of "sovereignty" historically is to fall into the error, which at the present time is common enough, of confounding the province of history and of logic. It seems not unlike asserting that Ricardo ought to have connected the theory of rent with a history of tenure. The truth is that the relation between Ricardo and later writers on political economy has a distinct resemblance to the relation between Austin and his critic. The older economists, of whom Ricardo may be taken as a type, traced out the principles of their science in a hard, precise, and dogmatic form. It has been the work of later speculators, such as Mill, to press on public attention the modifications and limitations to which the doctrines of their predecessors are liable when applied to life or history. This is the spirit in which Sir Henry Maine deals with Austin. He accepts that great jurist's fundamental ideas, but he urges that Austin's conceptions can be taken as true only within certain limitations and subject to considerable reservation. Unfortunately, the stress laid on these limitations is so great that many readers, we suspect, may begin to doubt the value of the conceptions themselves. To produce this result is undoubtedly not the intention of Austin's critic, but it is the effect of the indirect historical form of criticism in which Maine excels. Austin's logical system should be grappled with logically. The critique on Austin shows the weakness just as the rest of the lectures exhibit the strong side of the historical method of which Maine is the greatest living master.

## RECENT WORKS ON ENGLISH HISTORY.*

NUMBERLESS are the histories of England, and yet until now it has been difficult to select any one from the number as really and thoroughly satisfactory. This difficulty exists no longer. We will not go so far as to pronounce Mr. Green's book faultless, but we will say without hesitation that it is almost a model of what such a book should be—so far above any other brief and complete history of England that there is no room for comparison. It is first of all a history of the English people. "I have," he says, "devoted more space to Chaucer than to Cressy, to Caxton than to the petty strife of Yorkist and Lancastrian, to the poor-law of Elizabeth than to her victory at Cadiz, to the Methodist revival than to the escape of the Young Pretender." At the same time, he has not forgotten that the king and nobility are a part of the people, and has by no means neglected the matters that form the stock of most histories. Nor, on the other hand, has he lumbered his pages with tiresome details of social life—as tiresome and unedifying, in the way they are usually introduced, as the dry details of political and military history; but whenever such facts are

* 'A Short History of the English People. By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History, Oxford.' With Maps and Tables. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. xxxix. and 847.

'The Houses of Lancaster and York, with the Conquest and Loss of France. By James Gairdner, editor of the 'Paston Letters,' etc.' With Five Maps. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874. 12mo, pp. 262.

'König Sigismund und Heinrich der Fünfte von England: Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der Zeit des Constanzer Concil's. Von Dr. Max Lenz.' Berlin: Georg Reimer. 1874. 8vo, pp. 215.

'An Introduction to the Study of Early English History. By John Pym Yeatman of Lincoln's Inn, Esquire, Barrister-at-Law, author of 'The History of the Common Law of Great Britain and Gaul,' 'An Outline of the Practice of the Mayor's Court of London,' etc. "Magna est Veritas et prevalebit."' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1874. 12mo, pp. 352.

'British Ethnology. The Pedigree of the British People: An Argument, Historical and Scientific, on the Origin and Growth of the Nation; tracing Race-Admixture in Britain from the Earliest Times, with Especial Reference to the Incorporation of the Celtic Aborigines. By Thomas Nicholas, M.A., Ph.D., F.G.S., [Third Edition.]' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1873. 8vo, pp. xiii. and 567.

introduced, it is in their relation to the national development. A striking example of this is found in the sketch of English society in the reign of Queen Elizabeth (p. 388), every point of which is connected directly with the wonderful impulse given at that time to the national growth. The book is, therefore, in truth a history of civilization, but civilization regarded in a concrete point of view. Society is not treated, after Mr. Buckle's fashion, as growing like a plant wholly from an internal development, but all the forces which act upon it, as well without as within, are carefully and adequately analyzed. The characters of leaders are remarkably well described, and their respective influence upon history fairly and appreciatively judged. And the author has shown rare tact and discrimination in the selection of his facts, so that the reader never feels himself to be put off with commonplace generalities, but to be always standing on the firm ground of ascertained and systematized knowledge, while at the same time every line is interesting reading.

Although in a certain sense a compendium, this book is fully up to the most recent scholarship ; its author, if not an original investigator himself, knows at any rate what historical proof is. In early history, he is of the same school as Mr. Freeman, although not an unquestioning follower of his ; as, for example, he is far more moderate in his championship of Godwine and Harold. One feature of Mr. Freeman's view, indeed, Mr. Green pushes altogether too far—the extensive use of the term English. He will have it that the Jutes and Saxons, before the migration, were all embraced under the name "English"—surely an opinion rather the converse of the truth ; for it is well established that the Angles migrated in a body, the name disappearing for ever from the territory which they had occupied ; while Jutes and Saxons continued permanently in their old haunts. In like manner, he gives without question (p. 56) Mr. Freeman's view of the Witenagemot, as a development of the mark-moot and shire-moot—a view which is rejected, and seemingly with right, by Prof. Stubbs. We are not sure that in his arrangement Mr. Green does not carry too far his peculiar method of discussing the history of the people rather than of the court. His division into chapters pays very little regard to reigns and dynasties, being grounded upon the great epochs in the life of the community. But perhaps it might be said that the history of the nation is even better worth telling than that of the people ; and the national life depends a good deal upon the old familiar division of periods. This method leads to some slight discrepancies. For example, Chap. IV., "The Three Edwards," is followed by Chap. V., "The Hundred Years' War." Now, the reign of the third Edward falls almost wholly within the range of this topic, while the closing scene of the war—Joan of Arc—is relegated to Chap. VI. This cannot fail to create some confusion. His plan even leads him at times to disregard chronological connection altogether, in order to secure a better logical arrangement ; for instance, Lord Bacon is introduced (p. 591) in connection with the scientific development of the period of the Revolution of 1688 rather than with the age in which he lived. For this reason, we do not feel satisfied with the Table of Contents. The present generation has learned the value of indices, and the book before us is provided with a very excellent one ; but it is equally important to have a copious table of contents, such as Mr. Freeman always gives. The peculiarities of Mr. Green's arrangement, joined with the meagreness of the table of contents, make it difficult to know where to look for the detailed treatment of any subject which is narrower than the heading of a section and broader than an index topic.

American affairs are very well treated ; but both in the map (p. 491) and in the text the New England colonies are considered as identical with the present States ; only the three colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island are given in the map for 1640. Again, it is stated (p. 739) that an "established church" was impossible in the American colonies. Now, the Congregational Church was "established" in New England and the Episcopal in the Southern colonies. Another error is in regard to the colonial governments, in all of which it is said that the Governor was appointed by the Crown ; but Connecticut and Rhode Island elected their own governors until the Revolution, while Pennsylvania and Maryland continued under proprietary rule until the same time.

We notice the following slight errors or misprints : The descent of Julius Cæsar upon Britain is placed (p. 5) in B.C. 54 instead of 55 ; the first king of the House of Valois is called (p. 219) Charles instead of Philip ; the mother of Charles IX. is called (p. 404) Mary instead of Catharine of Medicis ; the Peace of Paris is placed (p. 743) in 1772 instead of 1763 ; the period from the Duke of Grafton's administration (1768) to the close of the American War is reckoned (p. 749) at eight years. There are excellent genealogical tables, five maps (partly from Mr. Freeman), and a very copious chronological table from Miss Thompson. The present edition contains no special references, but carefully prepared and valuable general lists of authorit at the head of each section. In these Mr. Green has confined himself to English and a few leading French authorities. This is no doubt judicious, but we think it would have been well to make an exception in the case of so recent and important a work, and so specially interesting to English students, as Lechler's 'Life of Wiclif.' The book is well printed, but we must protest against the practice of the Messrs. Macmillan of cutting the edges of some of their books to the quick ; this book, like Stubbs's 'Constitutional History,' is seriously injured by the narrowness of the margin.

There is no better way of testing the special merits of a book than by comparing it with another in the same field ; and the fourth of the "Epochs of History" Series, 'The Houses of Lancaster and York,' covers partly the same ground with Mr. Green's history. Mr. Gairdner's strength is just such as to complement Mr. Green's work. His history is almost purely dynastic ; very little attention relatively is paid to the social and literary history of the period. On the other hand, the political history is very full, and the complicated intrigues of these most puzzling years are unravelled probably as completely as is now possible. Mr. Green gives a far more lively picture, for instance, of the King-maker, and shows the general bearings of the Revolution of 1461 with greater force. There was no great principle dividing the parties, neither were the hereditary claims of any material weight in the contest ; but "the persecution of the Lollards, the disfranchisement of the voter, the interference with elections, the odium of the war, the sham of the long misgovernment, told fatally against the weak and imbecile king, whose reign had been a long battle of contending factions" (p. 277). It was a protest against misgovernment—like the political revolution of last fall—and was followed by the reaction of 1485, when it was found that the misgovernment of the new House was almost as gross as that of the old. On the other hand, Mr. Gairdner points out, what Mr. Green does not, that the quarrel between Edward IV. and Warwick as to the French or Burgundian alliances was not on an empty point. The Burgundian alliance was "greatly to the satisfaction of the king and of the people generally, especially of the London merchants, who traded with the duke's subjects in Flanders" (p. 185). It was a natural outgrowth of the industrial development of more than a hundred years.

It may be worth while here to call attention to a recent German monograph coming within the scope of this work. Dr. Lenz's object is to ascertain the causes which led the Emperor Sigismund to exchange the hereditary alliance of his family with France for one with England, and to trace the results of this alliance. The causes of the Treaty of Canterbury he finds (p. 57) chiefly in a desire to get back the provinces of the old kingdom of Burgundy, which had come into the possession of France. For this object he agreed to join Henry V. in active hostilities against France. This, however, came to naught—Sigismund's hands were too full elsewhere—and the sole practical result of the alliance was in its influence upon the Council then sitting at Constance. The great war between England and France threw its shadow upon the deliberations of the Council, and was carried on as fiercely there as in the field. France, under the lead of Gerson and D'Ailly, had taken the lead in the efforts for reform ; and it was clear that any efficient reform must be accomplished before the vacancy in the Papacy was filled. But France was now thrown into the arms of the party of the Curia, so that she was united with the Italians and Spaniards against reform. Even the zeal of the Teutonic nations now flagged, and the compromise was soon effected by which Cardinal Colonne was elected Pope (Martin V.). All further plans of reform were now postponed until the Greek Kalends.

Mr. Yeatman's views upon early English history are briefly as follows : "That Mercia and East Anglia, long before the days of the Romans, were a great confederation of Ligurian [=Llogrian] people, who were divided on the north by the Humber and Mersey from a confederation of their neighbors the Umbrians, and upon the south by the Thames and the Bristol Channel from the West Angles" (p. 198); that "the Angles were the people who called themselves Llogrians" (p. 43); and "that the Angles were Celtae" (p. 38); that "Eastsex, Midsex, and Sussex comprised the whole dominions ever occupied by Saxons," the name Wessex being "a modern forgery" (p. 21) ; that "the Saxons swarmed from every part of the Continent, and necessarily spoke every kind of dialect and language . . . not unlike the lingo invented for purposes of intercourse by the soldiery of any nation" (p. 86) [say pigeon-English] ; that "in the Anglo-Saxon tongue, as it is presented to us, there is a very small proportion of English words, and the bulk of it is damaged Teutonic and Scandinavian, the kind of lingo we should expect to find current among the sea-robbers of the north" (p. 83) ; that "the whole of Saxon literature from beginning to end is a forgery" (p. 258); consequently, that "the fame of Alfred perishes" (p. 319); fur-

ther, that "the whole story of Norman rule in this country is based upon fiction. It began, not with William the Conqueror, as Mr. Freeman pretends, but with the elder Danish kings, his ancestors" (p. 20); Edward the Confessor being "looked upon, not as a restored Saxon, but simply as a son of the famous Princess Emma of Normandy, the wife successively of Ethelred and of the great Canute" (p. 19). We have omitted the "probablys," "doubtlesses," and "unquestionablys" which introduce many of the above passages, and will only say that we have never read a book in which these words entered so lavishly in the premises and were so wholly ignored in the conclusions. These views are reiterated in many and various shapes throughout the book; but the style of argumentation may be fairly judged from the following extract: "It may be asked, what evidence have we of the antiquity of our language? what fragments of it do we possess? We can only answer we possess the language, and that it proves its own antiquity and its own origin: except here and there a word, we must not expect to find much evidence of its earlier existence. That it was the language of the natives, and of their conquerors, the Romans, in the first five centuries after Christ, we know; and we do not know anything for certain in the five centuries which ensued" (p. 68).

Let us now pass to a book in the same general direction, but of a very different type. It is the aim of Dr. Nicholas "to show that a moiety, perhaps the greater part, of the subjects of the early Anglian and Saxon kingdoms must have been of the 'British' race" (p. vi.) This, which covers only a small portion of the vast field embraced by Mr. Yeatman's views, we think the author has satisfactorily made out; and, having regard for the evidence —which is not by any means of a very remote or recondite nature—it is hard to conceive how the theory of extirpation held by Mr. Freeman and Sir Edward Creasy, could have got a foothold. Nevertheless, we cannot think that all Dr. Nicholas's reasoning is sound. He adduces, for example, the desperate resistance made by the Britons, and the consequent slowness of the conquest, as an argument for his view. It seems to us that it tells directly the other way. A rapid conquest, like that of the Franks, was likely to be superficial: a slow and bitterly-resisted conquest is apt to be relentless and thorough. Again, while his reasoning from language, history, and physical characteristics is generally sound and always able, that from institutions is weak; evidently he is not thoroughly familiar with this branch of the subject. He seems entirely ignorant of the fact that Anglo-Saxon laws and institutions have close and intimate relations with those of the Teutonic nations of the Continent, which is a *prima-facie* evidence of community of origin. As an instance, he says that the division of the territory into hundreds and townships was "copied absolutely from the Britons" (p. 306); and a short chapter of nine pages (Chap. IV. of Part III.) is devoted to pointing out a few superficial resemblances between British and English law, to the complete ignoring of the deep and fundamental resemblances in other branches of Teutonic law. The argument would have been stronger without much of this. There are serviceable maps and an index.

---

*Ezra Stiles Gannett*, Unitarian Minister in Boston, 1824–1871. Memoir, by his son, William C. Gannett. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1875.)—This extremely voluminous memoir deserves attention, not because Dr. Gannett was a man of remarkable force, but because there is something rather strikingly typical both in his character and career and in the execution of the work. Mr. William Gannett has evidently determined to be readable—to make as far as the subject permits a "picturesque" biography. From his own point of view, we should say he had succeeded even brilliantly. His book is elaborate, and yet clear and vivacious, and it comes as near as possible to being an entertaining account of a man whose intellectual character was singularly monotonous and colorless. Considering that it is written from the filial standpoint, it is even curiously candid and impartial; it seems to us, in fact, to carry contemplative frankness to rather painful lengths. If we call such a work, written in such a way, typical, it is not that we find it easy to express the various strange things it suggests. Mr. William Gannett looks at things in a larger way than his father; he is, in literature and theology, eminently of the period, as the phrase is; and there is something very odd, and, to one who reads between the lines, rather melancholy, in seeing Dr. Gannett's subdued and shrinking personality converted into a theme for a regular high-colored "story," with picturesque headings to the chapters. The whole work belongs to the class of "intimate" biography, and Dr. Gannett was so stubborn a conservative that there is a certain irreverence in the application of the process to him. It is a process by which some of his most familiar and most valued canons of taste are rather rudely handled. Dr. Gannett, for instance, had the misfortune to be lame, and to be obliged to use in walking two sticks with crutch-handles. It is not speaking harshly to say that this idiosyncrasy has been made a pretext for picturesque touches—used by the biographer as a pigment, an "effect." It is repeatedly alluded to, in a sketchy manner, to enliven the narrative; it constitutes the subject of two engraved vignettes. This is the sort of thing one looks for in the novels of Miss Stuart Phelps and Mrs. Harding Davis. Dr. Gannett's career was essentially limited and local; he evidently was a man of incorruptible modesty, and his own self-estimate did not err by over-liberality. Local, indeed, is Mr. William Gannett's memoir; it is conceived not only in the temper, but written in the vocabulary, of an especial phase of Boston civilization. But it operates as such a flinging wide of doors, such a tossing up of windows, such a lavish admission of searching, staring daylight, that, where much is intended to be pathetic, the image that most solicits sympathy is perhaps that of the venerable subject in his extreme bereavement of privacy. If we should say that the manner of all this is unwholesome, we should doubtless seem to be making an unkind charge, but we hardly know how else to qualify this latest development of literary portraiture. It is the trivial playing at the serious; it is not the masculine way of looking at things.

Dr. Gannett was a Unitarian minister in Boston from 1824 to 1871, and an account of his life involves a somewhat detailed history of New England Unitarianism during that long period. Mr. Gannett has treated of this subject in two interesting chapters—the best, perhaps, in his book. In the first he sketches the formation, early in the century, of the sect as a sect: "The Girding" he characteristically calls his narrative. In the second he depicts, with effective strokes, the great Transcendental and Radical schism of which Mr. Emerson, first, and Theodore Parker, later, were the most eminent apostles. The presiding spirit at the outset of Dr. Gannett's career had been Dr. Channing, and it was under his untarnished wing that he took his first steps in the ministry. He was Dr. Channing's colleague in the pulpit from the year 1824 until the latter's death in 1842. He then assumed the sole charge of the congregation, and kept it till his own sad death, by a railway accident, in 1871. He was purely and simply a minister, and in the practical rather than the intellectual sense. He produced nothing but his weekly sermons, and treated none but religious topics. He was a man, we should say, of an extreme simplicity of organization. He was a born minister; he stepped straight from his school days into the pulpit, and looked at the world, ever afterwards, from the pulpit alone. His piety was of a most strenuous and consistent type; what is called the "world" said little or nothing to him; in his tastes, in his habits, in his temperament, he was a pure ascetic; his life was altogether the life of the conscience. Religion for him, in fact, meant simply intense conscientiousness —an attitude of perpetual vigilance against wrong-doing. His conscientiousness, as his son intimates, was morbid and overdone. We read with a sort of alarm that the young lady he was about to marry had "a conscientiousness as certain as his own." Dr. Gannett's religious feeling was so intense and, if there had been a little more of what we may call "temperament" in it, one would say so ardent, that one almost wonders that he found himself able, in Unitarian soil, to sink his shaft deep enough. It would seem that he ought to have belonged to a Church of the rigid, old-fashioned sort. But he found his opportunity by making his Unitarianism as conservative as possible; he kept his faith, and that of his congregation, in so far as he could, where he found it, and conspicuously failed to avail himself of any later-born latitude of thought. Mr. Emerson diverged into magnificent vagueness, but we doubt whether Dr. Gannett went a step with him even in imagination. He opposed Theodore Parker, he had nothing in common with the Anti-Slavery group. Both at first and afterwards, he saw nothing in the Civil War but matter for regret. His biographer has printed in an appendix a number of his sermons, few of which were published during his life. He declined, sagaciously, shortly before his death, to make a volume of them, for he felt that, though they had played a useful part when addressed to a congregation with whom he was in intimate personal relations, they would not fall very forcibly on the ear of the world at large. They have a great deal of precision and earnestness of statement, but they strike us as almost painfully dry. They are meagre and colorless, and we think they lack the highest sort of elevation. They have neither spiritual passion on one side, nor marked intellectual acuteness on the other. Dr. Gannett's character, in short, viewed on the scale on which his son has unfolded it, is chargeable on the whole with an extreme dryness; it is not the sort of character which a race is the stronger for producing in more than limited quantity. It seems, somehow, too economically compounded; it has, as we said just now, a fatal lack of temperament. It has certainly done good service in the history of New England, and it has carried the mechanical development of conscience, as it may be called, to an extreme refinement.

But we doubt whether, experimentally, measured by sufficient periods, the type to which it belongs would prove to be the soil from which first-rate men spring—men either of large purpose or of large culture.

---

*Days Near Rome.* By Augustus J. C. Hare. Two volumes. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1875.)—Both Mr. Hare's subject, which is one of the most charming possible, and the great popularity of his 'Walks in Rome,' will assure his present work a general welcome. Ever since he had announced, in the preface to the 'Walks,' that it was in preparation, we had been eagerly impatient for it; and, on the whole, we have not been disappointed. He depends rather more than may seem desirable on other people to convey his impressions, and rather less upon himself; that is, he is a compiler rather than a describer. His own powers of description, though not brilliant, are always agreeable, and he might with advantage more frequently trust to them. His present work is, with modifications, fashioned in the same manner as the 'Walks'; the text constantly alternating with quotations from other writers. It was noticeable in the 'Walks' that almost every one who had written with any conspicuity about anything else in the world, had also written something about Rome that could be made to pass muster as an "extract." The extracts were sometimes rather trivial, but taken together they made an extremely entertaining book. The outlying towns and districts of the old Papal Dominion have lain less in the beaten track of literature, and the process of collecting pertinent anecdotes, allusions, descriptions, must have been a good deal more laborious. Mr. Hare has followed a very happy line. His book is meant for the average Anglo-Saxon tourist, who is usually not brimming with native erudition, and he reproduces a great many things which are probably familiar to the learned (though of which even the learned can afford to be reminded), but in which most people will find much of the freshness of unsuspected lore. He is abundant (as is quite right) in his quotations from the Latin poets—from Horace, Virgil, Ovid, and Juvenal. The smallest pretext for quoting from Horace—the most quotable of the ancients—should always be cultivated. For the rest, his tributaries have chiefly been the modern (English, German, and French) historians and antiquarians; to which it should be added, that his own share of the text is much more liberal than in the 'Walks.' In Mr. Hare's place, we should have treated the reader to rather less of Herr Gregorovius, the German historian and tourist, for this writer possesses in excess the deplorable German habit of transforming, in description, the definite into the vague. Unfortunately, he seems to have penetrated into the most deliciously out-of-the-way nooks and corners, and his testimony about various charming places is the best that offers.

The author has thoroughly explored the field, and left no mossy stone unturned which might reveal some lurking treasure of picturesqueness. The volume represents in this way no small amount of good-natured submission to dire discomfort. It is true that the inspiration and the reward were great, and that there is no bed one would not lie down upon, no tavern fare he would not contrive to swallow, for the sake of a few hours in such places as Norma and Ninfa, Anagno or Sutri. The Alban and Sabine, the Ciminian and Volscian hills, the romantic Abbruzzi, the Pontine Marshes, the Etruscan treasures of Cervetri and Corneto, the nearer towns along the railway to Florence, the direction of the Neapolitan railway as far as Monte Cassino—this great treasure-ground of antiquities and curiosities, of the picturesque in history, in scenery, in population, has been minutely inspected by Mr. Hare. Many of the places have long been among the regular excursions from Rome; others had to be discovered, to be reached in such scrambling fashion as might be, to be put into relation, after drowsy intervals, with the outer world. The author now tells us in detail the ways and means for following in his footsteps, and gives us valuable practical advice. He has made a great deal of delightful experience easier, but we hardly know whether to thank him. We see the mighty annual herd of tourists looming up behind him, and we sigh over the kindly obscurity that he has dispelled. It was thanks to their being down in no guide-book that he found many of the places he describes so charming; but he breaks the charm, even while he commemorates it, and he inaugurates the era of invasion. He has done a good work, but we should think that he must feel at times as if he had assumed a heavy responsibility. He makes in his opening pages a vivid and dismal statement of what the new régime means in Rome itself in the way of ruin of the old picturesqueness—a fact that had a perfectly substantial value which it is as culpable to underestimate as to exaggerate. But it is really a melancholy fact that he himself will have introduced a new régime into the strange, quaint places of the Volscians. The utmost that we can hope is that it will establish itself slowly.

---

*Bric-à-Brac Series.* Personal Reminiscences of Moore and Jerdan. Edited by R. H. Stoddard. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875.)—We are not, as a general rule, fond of books of "extracts" of any sort; but it must be allowed that Mr. Stoddard is performing a useful work. There are a great many books that people are curious about which are too long or too dull or too much out of fashion to be attacked at first hand at the present hour. Mr. Stoddard may, apparently, be trusted to skim through them and cut out the most characteristic and entertaining pages. "Memoirs" are notoriously diffuse, and yet half the best anecdotes in the language are to be found in their pages. The eight octavo volumes of Thomas Moore's 'Diary' are, perhaps a conspicuous combination of the redundancy that the average reader dreads and the personal gossip that he longs to dabble in. Mr. Stoddard has compressed into a hundred and fifty small pages what he considers the most valuable portion of this copious record; but what he has given does not suggest that the present generation need greatly trouble itself about the remainder. Moore's period and circle of friends have become classic ground to people who possess what is called the historic consciousness, in a moderate degree of development. Rogers's breakfasts, Lord Holland's dinners, Byron's suppers, the hospitality of Abbotsford, the talks of Sydney Smith, the reunions of the Edinburgh Reviewers, were all occasions which have been in the habit of imposing themselves on our imagination with a suggestion of unattainable brilliancy—of unpurchasable privilege. Moore was *pars magna* of all these; but the perusal of his reminiscences is certainly reassuring to over-regretful minds. Anything more idle than most of his journalizing it would be hard to conceive. It is probable that he always selected the lighter matters for record in preference to the grave; he was a man of an extremely frivolous imagination and weak jokes, and thin personalities were the things he loved best to commemorate. But allowing for this, he lived with the best talkers of his time and was one of the shining conversational lights. He heard, of course, a vast amount of good talk; but we suspect, on his showing, that the average of talk among clever people was much lower—coarser, lighter, less cultivated—than it is now. Few of his professedly facetious stories—and of these he made a great collection—would do much toward keeping the tables of the present day in a roar. Mr. Stoddard gives many of his jokes and anecdotes; the run of them is decidedly poor. Here is one better perhaps than the average. "Told of Coleridge riding about in a strange, shabby dress with I forget whom, at Keswick, and on some company approaching them, Coleridge offered to fall behind and pass for his companion's servant. 'No,' said the other, 'I am proud of you as a friend, but I must say I should be ashamed of you as a servant.'" There are quotations from those parts of the 'Diary' relating to his visit to Byron in Italy, and various allusions to Scott—each reminding us afresh of Byron's unamiable folly and Scott's genial good sense. There are also extracts from Moore's record of his researches into the personal history of Sheridan, in preparation for writing his life; which reminds us afresh that of all profitless gossip the grea tstock of stories about Sheridan's smart sayings and loose doings is the most utterly profitless. They have always seemed to us singularly unavailable for either moral or intellectual purposes. The same may be said—though on different grounds—of the lucubrations of Mr. William Jerdan, editor of the *Literary Gazette*, patron of rising authors, and author himself of some elderly memoirs. He saw a great deal of the people of his day, and was apparently an estimable personage; but as a *raconteur* he is unpardonably dull and colorless. His literary importance may be measured by the fact that the performance in which he took most satisfaction was his standing godfather to much of the poetic progeny of the prolific but now forgotten "L. E. L." This lady is chiefly remembered by the tragical circumstances of her death (she poisoned herself, if we are not mistaken, at Cape Coast Castle, in Africa, where, after having married an officer in the English army, she had gone to live). We may connect her, on Mr. Jerdan's showing, with the more cheerful fact that she made, in her brief career, upwards of thirteen thousand dollars by her contributions to the annuals of the period.

---

*British Wild-Flowers considered in Relation to Insects.* By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., F.R.S., M.P., Vice-Chancellor of the University of London. With numerous illustrations. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.)—At the last meeting of the British Association, a veteran botanist, in tracing the recent progress of systematic botany, contrasted the science of his youth (restricted, at least mainly and popularly, to the naming and technical study of genera and species by means of a few obvious external characters, dealt with under a sterile artificial system) with that of his

later years, when the whole life-history, distribution in space and time, and behavior as well as structure, of the vegetable races are taken into account. For a single exemplification of the change which has taken place in a single lifetime, nothing could be more instructive than the lecture on the relation of flowers and insects delivered at the same meeting by a young but distinguished naturalist, not specially a botanist. Imagine Sir James Edward Smith, along with the other founders of the Linnean Society, listening to a discourse on the advantage and even necessity of insects to flowers; upon the arrangements in hermaphrodite blossoms—seemingly most secure of connubial fruition—to prevent pollen from reaching stigma except by *hymen*opterous or other insect agency; upon the beauty which insects have imparted to flowers, and the new and varied powers which flowers in their turn have developed in insects, so that, while to insects "we owe the beauty of our gardens and the sweetness of our fields, to them flowers are indebted for their scent and color, nay, for their very existence in its present form." These gifts have been bestowed in a most roundabout way, and the hypothesis, of which these are some of the outcomings, is open to a certain amount of criticism. We are not going to explain or to examine it. Suffice it to say that the lecture aforesaid has since done service in a series of articles published in *Nature*, and these are now collected to form the present handy volume. It will be very useful in England, where there were no text-books or popular treatises upon this interesting subject, such as those of Hermann Müller, Delpino, Hildebrand, and Axell on the Continent, and where even the investigations and fertile suggestions of Darwin—from whom all this new knowledge is directly or indirectly derived—seem by no means to be widely known or comprehended. Whatever of original matter Sir John Lubbock has himself contributed is pertinent and excellent; but the book is mainly a compilation, and the figures borrowed. The account of the British wild-flowers in their natural orders covers too much ground too thinly for the greatest usefulness. The earliest chapters are the fullest and best. Especially good is the illustration of the gradual modification which the mouth-parts and legs of bees and butterflies are thought to have undergone so that they might profit by their visits to flowers—condensed from Hermann Müller.

*Transit of Venus.* A Popular Account of Past and Coming Transits. By Richard A. Proctor. (New York: R. Worthington & Co. 1875.)—For the purpose of the critical reader, Mr. Proctor's books may be divided into two quite distinct classes of extremely unequal merit. The first, including such works as those on the Sun and the Moon, are systematic and elaborate treatises on their respective subjects, which, in matter, style, and arrangement, leave little to be desired. The other class comprises collections of fugitive essays contributed to newspapers and magazines, abounding in repetitions and speculations, and not worth more than the casual reading which they receive in their original form. We are pleased to find that this work on the Transit of Venus belongs to the first class, and is one in which the reader may find a very full discussion of all the questions growing out of the observations of that phenomenon. It is largely historical, commencing with the transit of 1639, which was observed by Horrox, and concluding with a description of the preparations made by different nations to observe the late transit, and a discussion of plans for observing that to come eight years hence. On the whole, it is the most complete popular summary of the entire subject for general reference which we have chanced to meet.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Amory (Dr. R.), Küss's Lectures on Physiology | (Jas. Campbell) 2 50 |
| Awdry (Frances), The Story of a Fellow-soldier | (Macmillan & Co.) 1 50 |
| Dowden (Prof. E.), Shakspere: His Mind and Art | (Henry S. King & Co.) |
| Dawson (J. W.), Nature and the Bible | (Robert Carter & Bros.) |
| Fessler (Dr. J.), True and False Infallibility of the Popes, swd | (Cath. Pub. Soc.) 0 50 |
| Hart (J. M.), Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00 |
| L'Année Politique, 1874, swd | (F. W. Christern) |
| Lawson (W.), Ten Years of Gentleman Farming | (Longmans) |
| Mill (J. S.), Inexpediency of an Irredeemable Paper Currency, swd | (H. L. Hinton & Co.) |
| McCosh (Rev. J.), Reply to Tyndall | (Robert Carter & Bros.) |
| Morris (W. O'C.), French Revolution and First Empire | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) |
| Morris (Rev. R.), English Grammar (Literature Primers) | (Macmillan & Co.) 0 40 |
| Michelet (J.), A Summary of Modern History | (Macmillan & Co.) 1 75 |
| Martin (F.), Statesman's Year-book for 1875 | (Macmillan & Co.) 3 50 |
| Maine (Sir H. S.), Lectures on the Early History of Institutions | (Henry Holt & Co.) 3 00 |
| Otto (Dr. E.), German Conversation-Grammar, 15th ed | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| French Conversation-Grammar, 6th ed | " " |
| Personal Reminiscences by Moore and Jerdan: Bric-à-Brac Series | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50 |
| Proctor (R. A.), Transits of Venus | (R. Worthington & Co.) 3 00 |
| Pagden (J. W.), $350 a Year by my Bees, swd | (A. K. Loring) 0 25 |
| Rüdinger (Dr.), Die willkürlichen Verunstaltungen des menschlichen Körpers, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Sticler's Hand-Atlas, Part 25, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Salkowski (Prof. E.), Das Fleisch als Nahrungsmittel, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Stephen (L.), Hours in a Library | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) |
| Shearer (J. W.), The Combination Speller | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) |
| Schliemann (Dr. H.), Troy and its Remains | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 12 50 |
| The Workshop, Nos. 1 and 2, swd | (E. Steiger) 0 50 |
| The Harbour Bar: a Tale of Scottish Life, swd | (Macmillan & Co.) 1 00 |
| The Rights of Women: Legal States Compared | (Trübner & Co.) |
| Winterblossom (H. T.), Game of Draw-poker Mathematically Illustrated | (W. H. Murphy) 1 00 |
| Warring (C. B.), Oneness of Genesis and Science | (J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.) 2 00 |
| Whyte-Melville (G. J.), Katerfelto: a Tale | (Porter & Coates) 1 25 |
| Wells (D. A.), Cremation Theory of Resumption, swd | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 25 |
| Yonge (Miss C. M.), Life of John Coleridge Patteson, 2 vols | (Macmillan & Co.) 5 00 |
| Zell's U. S. Business Directory for 1875 | (T. Ellwood Zell) |

JUST PUBLISHED.

*Sainte-Beuve.*

*English Portraits.*

By C. A. SAINTE-BEUVE,

Of the French Academy. With an Introductory Chapter on His Life and Writings. 12mo, $2.

*Mrs. Alexander's New Novel.*

*Ralph Wilton's Weird.*

By MRS. ALEXANDER,

Author of 'The Wooing O't' and 'Which Shall It Be?' 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

*MISTRESS JUDITH.* $1 25.

*HARDY'S FAR FROM THE* Madding Crowd. $1 25.

*HARDY'S PAIR OF BLUE EYES.* $1 25.

*JONES'S AFRICA.* $5.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

*CERTAIN NEW DEVELOPMENTS in British Cabinet History prior to 1766 are the subject of Macmillan's 'Reader.'—See page 232.*

*EPOCHS OF HISTORY,* Vol. V. 'Edward III.' By the Rev. W. Warburton, her Majesty's Inspector of Schools.'

"A model work of its kind."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

Volumes Previously Issued: 'The Era of the Protestant Revolution,' by F. Sebohm; 'The Crusades,' by Rev. G. W. Cox, author of a 'History of Greece'; 'The Thirty Years' War,' by Samuel R. Gardiner; 'The Houses of York and Lancaster,' by James Gardiner.

Volumes in Press: 'The Fall of the Stuarts,' by Edward Hale; 'The Age of Anne,' by Edward E. Morris; 'The War of American Independence,' by J. M. Ludlow; 'The French Revolution and the Wars that came of it,' by B. M. Cordery, author of 'King and Commonwealth.'

Each volume is enriched with maps and a carefully-prepared index. Price per volume, $1.

"This series is worth its weight in gold."—*London Spectator.*

☞ The above sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, when not to be had of local booksellers.

BOSTON: ESTES & LAURIAT, 143 Washington Street (Opp. Old South).

*Dodd & Mead*

PUBLISH THIS DAY:

I.

*DR. JOHN HALL.*

GOD'S WORD THROUGH PREACHING. Being the Yale Lectures on Preaching for 1875. By Rev. John Hall, D.D. 1 vol. 12mo, $1 50.

II.

*DR. R. S. STORRS.*

CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS in Preaching Without Notes. By Rev. R. S. Storrs, D.D., of Brooklyn. 12mo, $1 25.

III.

*MRS. CHARLES.*

CONQUERING AND TO CONQUER. A Story By the author of the 'Schönberg-Cotta Family.' 12mo, $1 25.

IV.

*DR. ATWATER.*

THE SACRED TABERNACLE OF THE HEBREWS. Its History and Significance. By Rev. E. E. Atwater, of New Haven. 8vo. Profusely illustrated. $4.

These books for sale by all booksellers, and mailed on receipt of price by

DODD & MEAD, PUBLISHERS, 762 Broadway.

*F. W. CHRISTERN,*

FOREIGN BOOKSELLER AND IMPORTER,

77 UNIVERSITY PLACE, NEW YORK.

Large assortments of the publications of Charpentier, Didier, Didot, Hachette, Lévy Frères, etc., on hand; also complete lists of Tauchnitz's Collection of British Authors, and Teubner's Greek and Roman Classics. All European periodicals received in weekly parcels.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 8, 1875.*

## The Week.

CANAL reform, like most other things connected with the canals, moves slowly but surely. During the past week meetings have been held to denounce the contractors, and the *Tribune* has been engaged in "lifting the shadows" from "the past life of the Lord family," and letting in the unwelcome light on the corruption of which they seem to have been the centre. According to the Albany correspondent, this family has carried on a system of plunder more thorough and far better devised than any practised even by the old governing families of Europe. They have, he says, "bribed rival bidders to withdraw from competition; they have engineered through both Houses infamous relief bills for their own profit, each voting for them in his place; they are said to have made up pay-rolls from the local directory, and charged thousands on thousands of dollars for work which was not performed; they have pushed bills through the legislature for two-thirds of the proceeds, and then refused to divide; they have demanded percentage on claims the door for which they opened by legislative enactment; they have manipulated committees and canal boards and legislatures; they have been legislators and lobbyists at once and parliamentary brokers all the time; they have fairly drained the canals into their private treasuries." "Jarv." Lord, however, who is the head of the clan, or one branch of it, proposes to take part in the investigation now going on. He says that some abuses have undoubtedly crept into the management of the canals, but that the reason the expenses increase so much is because of the extortions practised in New York and Buffalo by the middlemen of those cities. Some people will be reminded by this, perhaps, of the explanation given a year or two ago of abuses in the Custom-house, which was, if we remember right, that the "thieves over in New York" were at the bottom of it.

The Governor's commission has not yet been appointed, and the name most frequently mentioned in connection with it has been that of General Barlow. The politicians say that he could not be confirmed because he is not recognized as a Republican. This, however, probably does not deceive anybody. General Barlow undoubtedly knows more about the canal frauds than anybody in the country, unless it is Mr. Tilden and Charles O'Conor; he has been the active enemy of the Canal Ring for a long time, and it is this fact, and not any want of Republicanism, which is against him. The effect of the canals on the judiciary, to which we referred last week, has received a striking illustration in an interview between Judge Sanford E. Church, Chief-Justice of the Court of Appeals, and a *Tribune* reporter. In the first place, we can hardly conceive any greater reproach, if we leave out of sight actual corruption, than that a judge of the highest court of the State should feel it necessary to explain to a newspaper that he is not in collusion with a gang of thieves. This feat, however, was not enough for the judge, but, being asked whether he knew the origin of the "newspaper attacks" on the court, he said that he did; that they came from General Barlow, who had "vented his spleen" upon the court "because he has happened to be unfortunate in his private and public litigations." It is difficult to imagine a more indecent thing than this coming from a judge and directed at a counsellor practising in his court. As to the "newspaper attacks," we may mention for the benefit of our readers that they rest chiefly on a charge made in a letter to the *Tribune* by Thurlow Weed, under his own signature, that one of the judges was "counted in"; and that the evidence for his statement is to be found in the published election returns, which Judge Church or any one else can examine for himself.

Early in the week the gold clique "unloaded," in the dialect of the Street, and the price of gold has since fallen to 114. It is estimated that the clique at one time held, out of the banks, about $12,000,000. The greater part of this has been restored, although it was put back too late in the week to make much impression on the bank statement, which shows the average condition for six days and takes no note of the actual condition on the day when the statement appears. As soon as it was known that the clique were out of the market, foreign exchange, which had been demoralized, immediately recovered, and rates soon advanced to within half a cent of the figures which justify the export of gold coin. The Treasury reported a coin balance on the 1st of the month of $84,105,520, or, deducting $24,191,900 certificates of coin deposits, $59,913,620. Its coin obligations between now and the falling due of the July interest are $14,185,000 for May interest; $15,000,000 for 5-20 bonds which by the fourteenth call mature May 1; $5,000,000 which by the fifteenth call mature June 1; and $30,000,000 which by the sixteenth call are due from now up to June 11. Of the latter, about $3,400,000 have already been sent in and paid. There are also $6,887,000 5-20s on which interest has ceased, and which were called before any of the calls named were issued. It is possible and even probable that the syndicate will be able to purchase and pay into the Treasury a considerable part of these called 5-20s in payment for new fives. To that extent no gold will come out of the Treasury, the operation being merely an exchange of one class of bonds for another. How much of the gold to come out of the Treasury will remain here depends entirely on the exchange market. About two-thirds of the interest to be paid is due to Europe, and a corresponding amount of the called bonds are owned there. Money continues abundant, and the currency withdrawn from New York banks to facilitate the April annual settlements in the Eastern and Middle States was this year less than usual. Demand loans are easily obtained, and mercantile paper known to be good is eagerly sought—one bank alone having purchased in a single day $600,000 four-months paper at 6 to 7 per cent. Speculation at the Stock Exchange has been less excited, but there has been a further advance in all classes of securities, Union Pacific having led the share market and gone above seventy. General trade continues to improve, but less rapidly than was expected.

Last week the Stock Exchange was placed on the verge of a panic by the failure of Mr. Daniel Drew, "the veteran operator," to make good his "puts" and "calls." It turned out the next day, however, that the reason was that he was sick at home, and had neglected to give instructions to his brokers about the matter. Mr. Drew is eighty-two years old, and at that age it is not surprising that a man should be sick and should forget his "puts" and be unmindful of his "calls"; but when his indisposition and his forgetfulness threaten the public with a financial crisis, it is not unfair to ask whether it would not be well for a person so well advanced in life to forsake the Stock Exchange altogether. There must surely be some pursuit which a gentleman of Mr. Drew's well-known piety could find distraction in in his last years besides betting on stocks. He may at any moment, in the natural order, have not only "to lay down on his stock privileges," as they say on the Street, but to "lay down on" everything in the world; and we beg most earnestly to suggest that he will, in the interest of society, prepare for that event by a complete retirement from business. We make this appeal to him as to an aged patriot; his pastor might reinforce it by considerations of a higher order, addressed to him in the character of an old sinner.

The Civil-Rights Act is gradually getting before the courts, and leading to the development of some very remarkable and novel law on the subject of inns and places of public amusement. In Trenton, New Jersey, a charge has been brought against the

proprietor of the Trenton House for refusing to allow two colored men to play billiards in the billiard-saloon attached to the hotel. The United States Commissioner first remarks, what we believe will be news to the framers of this wonderful enactment, that the Civil-Rights Act gives no more civil rights to colored men (except as to places of public amusement) than they had at common law, beyond providing a fixed penalty to be awarded by juries, and not leaving it at their discretion to fix damages at six cents. He adds that the prosecutors in the case before him have chosen to proceed under the criminal sections of the law, and he then goes on to enquire whether the "peculiar situation of this billiard-room" makes it "one of the accommodations, advantages, facilities, and privileges" of the hotel. This knotty point the commissioner manfully approaches and views from all sides, and finally decides that the billiard-room (though attached to the hotel) is not such an accommodation, and he also plainly intimates that he would decide in the same way of a livery-stable or barber-shop or telegraph-office, and, we suppose, a restaurant and the boot-blacking "privileges." Therefore, under this decision, the proud white man will still enjoy advantages of no mean order, while it begins to look as if the hotel was the most dangerous place a negro could enter if he wished to keep up his self-respect, and as if the only thing he would be allowed to do under the law would be to register his name and retire for the night.

---

The Democrats have carried Connecticut by a large majority—for their moral good, perhaps too large a majority. The Prohibition vote, which for several years has shown a tendency to decrease, and last year amounted to nearly 5,000, has fallen off, the Republicans profiting, of course, by the decrease. Messrs. Hawley and Kellogg are both defeated, George M. Landers and Judge Phelps of the Supreme Court taking their places. Whether anything is gained by the loss of General Hawley remains to be seen, but as to the other seat there can be no doubt. Judge Phelps is a man of character and ability, and the only objection urged against him was that it was a bad precedent to take a candidate from the bench. This we may admit to be true, but the bench in this case had nothing to do with the selection, so that while we may blame the party we cannot but be pleased at the result. The vote cast in Connecticut, like that in New Hampshire, was heavy, and the independence manifested by voters is said to have been great. On the State and Congressional ticket only one Republican secures an office. Mr. P. T. Barnum has been elected mayor of Bridgeport, and will bring to the office, we have no doubt, "rare executive ability" and "great personal tact." There is no objection to him as mayor of Bridgeport, where he is a large property owner, provided the people want him; and he has at his disposal means of upholding the dignity and splendor of the office, and doing the civic honors to strangers visiting Bridgeport, possessed by no other municipal dignitary in the world—not even the Lord Mayor of London. In higher offices, which require a greater simplicity of taste and a less popular sort of training, he might be out of place, but as a mayor he may certainly bid defiance to all rivalry. Very few mayors in the world could give a distinguished stranger a mount on a camel. That this, however, can be said of Mr. Barnum alone in this country is due to the defeat on Monday, in Cincinnati, of a rival showman, "Uncle John" Robinson by name. He was the anti-Democratic or Reform candidate; uncouth but honest, so his supporters alleged. But the shock of his nomination as a *pis-aller* seems to have been too great for the respectable voters of Cincinnati.

---

The Republican platform in Connecticut contained an Administration plank, and hearty endorsement of Grant's Louisiana policy. The candidate for governor, too, had taken a very prominent stand by firing a salute of a hundred guns over Sheridan's "banditti" despatch. And the result, taken in connection with that in New Hampshire, is a pretty clear indication of the state of popular opinion. The Republicans did all they could to carry the State; sent their best speakers to take part in the conflict; and tried to persuade the voters that the question to be decided was whether they would or would not rally round the Flag, and drown the rebel yell with a Union cheer. But the voters declined to look at the matter as a war-question, and went bodily over to the Democrats or ex-rebels, with the strangest indifference to the fact that they were in this way encouraging the spirit of rebellion and slavery. The Michigan judicial elections show steady Republican majorities.

---

A protest has been very extensively signed in this city against the compromise proposed to the Board of Education with regard to the Catholic parochial schools. It sets forth the usual arguments against the appropriation of any money raised by taxation to the support of denominational schools, and calls attention to the section of the School Law of 1851 which forbids all religious or sectarian teaching in the public schools, and to the section of the city charter which forbids the appropriation of any money from the municipal treasury for the support of denominational schools. We suspect, however, without having any positive knowledge on the subject, that the Catholic clergy would agree to everything the Board of Education might require if they could only have the appointment of the teachers. They made a proposal of a somewhat similar character some years ago to the School Trustees in New Haven, the fate of which we forget, in which they were willing to concede everything that might be required if they were only allowed to retain nuns, in the costume of their order, as teachers. In other words, they were willing to rely on the subtle influence of dress, manner, allusions, and so on, on the imagination of the children, in order to produce the results they aimed at. And then there are so many opportunities, if the teacher is sound, of introducing little and perhaps hardly noticeable innovations, of one sort or another, which, if they would not make conversions among Protestants, would at least remove prejudices or beget prepossessions. One of the cities in which the proposed plan has been tried, and it is said has succeeded, is Poughkeepsie, where it has been in operation for some time. There the Catholic schools have been handed over to the Board of Education, and its books and curriculum substituted for their own, but the Catholic teachers, being found qualified, were retained, and there is an understanding that in the appointment of teachers to these schools Catholic preferences are to be consulted. It may be taken for granted, however, that under any arrangement of this kind the church will get the best of it in the long run, because it has a powerful and trained army of servants, whose sole business is to watch their opportunity, while their opponents are changeful, or indifferent, or preoccupied.

---

The Boston *Advertiser* calls the attention of Senators Merrimon, Logan, and Ferry to a few facts with regard to the currency which seem to show that the "theorists" and "closet thinkers" and "blear-eyed pedants" in the last Congress knew more about the currency than the practical men. The practical men, it will be remembered, at the beginning of the last Congress, particularly those from the West, were in a state of great excitement because there was some $54,000,000 of bank currency which had never been "redistributed"—that is, taken from the States having too much under the existing law and given to those States having too little. The West, they said, had not enough money to "go round," and all sorts of terrible things were announced as likely to happen unless the currency were equalized. The theorists, on the other hand, maintained that the amount of money in any one place must be determined by the laws of supply and demand; that the currency was not wanted in the West and South because the panic and other causes had prostrated business more effectually there than in any other part of the country. Two laws, one the free banking law, and the other allowing banks to surrender currency they do not want, were actually passed, which enables us to determine which party was right. The *Advertiser* gives the statistics both of currency returned and new currency issued, with the following result—the "month of February being absent from the account." Last June, the Eastern and Middle

States had $235,000,000 bank currency; they have surrendered $6,000,000, and taken $6,600,000 new currency. "The rest of the country, the States and Territories which were deficient in currency, had $118,000,000 circulation last June, and having surrendered $11,288,000 of this amount, only $4,342,000 has been taken again. While, therefore, the aggregate note circulation of the country has diminished since last June by more than six millions, the whole reduction is due to the States where the deficiency was alleged to be greatest, and where the clamor for free banking was loudest." The *Advertiser* therefore concludes that the theorists, in contending —(1) that where money was scarce it would be unwise for capitalists to invest in national-bank circulation; (2) that the business of the country did not demand an increase of bank-note issues; (3) that the privileges of national banks, though constituting a monopoly, were not a valuable monopoly—were not far out of the way.

We do not profess to be versed in North Carolina politics, but we believe we were substantially right in saying that the House of Representatives of that State recently expelled a member (Mr. Thorne) ostensibly because of his theological opinions, but really because he was a Radical Republican from the North. A correspondent, writing from Wilmington, seeks to correct us by stating that the resolution of expulsion "was offered by H. T. Hughes, a negro, the 'Radical Republican' representative from Granville Co., and was supported by other Republicans. It was opposed by some of the ablest Democratic members, and upon its passage only 77 votes in all were cast in a House numbering 120 members." As to the mover of the resolution we have no information, but if colored he did not appear in the final vote, when out of 46 voting yea only two were Republicans, and these white. On the other hand, out of 31 voting nay ten at most were Democrats, and one of these we presume was a North Carolina Friend who stood up for his co-sectarian. This seems to fix the responsibility so strongly upon one side as to justify us in calling the expulsion a party measure. In fact, it is only in this light that it becomes intelligible. Mr. Thorne went up to the General Assembly as (to use the language of the Democratic organ in Raleigh) "the acknowledged leader of 2,500 ignorant Warren County negroes" and "a carpet-bag civil-righter and miscegenatist." As such, he was worth getting rid of—by a Democratic Assembly. They began by bringing a charge against him which they could not sustain; they ended by convicting him on a charge which had no warrant in the Constitution. This is certainly more like politics than piety.

During the Connecticut campaign a speech was made by Mr. Blaine, in which he found much fault with the Southern whites for their absurd complaints against the Republicans. The Southern Conservatives, he said, complain that we in the North keep alive quarrels which are really over and settled, when in reality it is their lawless and revengeful spirit which forces us to keep these issues of the war open. As a general thing, it is difficult either to prove or disprove assertions with regard to the real spirit of a people, because, if we point to their acts, it is said that they do not exhibit their *real* spirit, but are merely a pretence, and that, with regard to the South, if the troops were once removed, the real spirit of wild revenge upon the negro, which is only awaiting its opportunity, would burst forth again. Fortunately, however, a little event has just occurred between South Carolina and Massachusetts which is a pretty good proof that the real spirit of at least one State in the South is not so bad as has been represented. If we were seeking for a State in which the feelings engendered by the war had completely died out, we should not select South Carolina, because we should have supposed that the hot-blooded citizens of that State would be inclined to attribute most of the anarchy and corruption of the past few years to the interference of the North in their domestic concerns; besides this, there was no State before the war so bitter towards the North, no State which had so much to answer for in bringing on the war, and no State in which during the war such fierce revenge was threatened in case of success. The particularly bitter feeling between Massachusetts and South Carolina was rendered all the more so by the fact that the former State invaded the latter with negro troops officered by white gentlemen in a war for the destruction of slavery. Any one who remembers the fierce exultation which prevailed throughout the South when Colonel Shaw fell at the head of the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, in 1863, and was "buried under his niggers," would hardly look to South Carolina for cordial expression of feeling toward Massachusetts, or *vice versâ*. Nevertheless, such a thing has now taken place, the regimental flag of this same Fifty-fourth Massachusetts regiment having been restored to Massachusetts by General Ripley, then in command of the Charleston garrison; while at the same time there has been a presentation of a flag by the military organizations of Boston to the Washington Light Infantry of Charleston. General Ripley, in doing this, refers to the "gallant conduct" of men "like Shaw, Putnam, and other sons of Massachusetts," who "sealed their devotion to the cause they adopted with their lives." Now, this may be all a pretence on both sides, but for ourselves we should be sorry to believe it.

The petition for an order to wind up the Emma Mining Co., which has been pending for some time before the English Court of Chancery on behalf of some of the disgusted stockholders, came on for a hearing on the 24th ult. It appeared that the petitioners only represented 225 shares, while the opponents of the order represented 20,000, and under these circumstances the Vice-Chancellor said he had no alternative, and must deny the motion, but added that if he acted on his own judgment of the enterprise he would grant it, inasmuch as the company was "formed on delusive statements emanating from persons on the other side of the Atlantic," and "there was no doubt the mine was long ago exhausted." The petition was then ordered to stand over until a meeting of the stockholders could be held—presided over by a person appointed by the Court—so as to obtain some formal expression of their opinions as to the future of the company. Some of the stockholders hope, we believe, that although they cannot find the vein they bought from Park and his friends, they may find another.

The making a cardinal of Archbishop Ledochowski does not, the Pope must observe with regret, inspire a more reasonable spirit in Germany. In fact, it has revealed a disposition to find renewed fault with the distribution of honors by the Holy See. The Pope, in short, has the same trouble about his "slate" that the President of the United States has in dispensing offices. There are sure to be grumblers over this or that evidence that their "section" (*pars orbis*) has been neglected by the Church Universal, who loudly make claims to some representation here or a fuller representation there, based on numbers, or services and fidelity. So the German press is in a carping vein because, having examined the Papal Calendar for 1875 ('La Gerarchia cattolica e la famiglia pontificia') it finds Germany conspicuous by its absence from among the registered dignitaries. Italian preponderance is notorious. But England, too, which is in no sense a Catholic country, is more strongly represented than Germany. Even Croatia is allowed more weight, just as in the Œcumenical Council the *Culturvölker* of Europe were swamped by the delegates from inaccessible and semi-barbarous regions of the East and the Southern hemisphere. By the strictest computation, it is alleged that the Germans scattered over the globe form at least a seventh part of the whole number of Roman Catholics, yet can point to but three cardinals out of fifty; and among these Prussia, with millions of Catholic subjects, counts none, and Germany but one, Prince Hohenlohe. Barely twenty Germans and Austrians are discoverable in the more than a thousand bishops. The same disproportion exists throughout the lower degrees of the hierarchy; and when we take into account the moral and material worth to the Church of any European people as compared with Asiatic, African, and Polynesian converts, it is hard to resist the conclusion that in the eyes of the Papacy the Germans are, in the words of one of their newspapers, "Catholics of the second or third class."

## THE PRESS AND THE COURTS.

THE Storey contempt case in Chicago is not one which at first sight would seem to be of very great importance. The Chicago *Times* is a newspaper which lives by means of purveying to the public those kinds of "sensation" which are sure sooner or later to get their purveyor into trouble; and if, instead of being horsewhipped by some aggrieved person, the editor is sent to jail some fine morning for contempt of court, and released in the evening on a *supersedeas*, most people would be inclined to say that he had got off easily. The contempt committed by the *Times* consisted in the publication of articles attacking the good names of members of the Grand Jury, the apparent object being to prevent the finding of indictments against the editor of the paper. On the 13th of February, it seems, the Grand Jury had found no less than four indictments against him, some or all being for obscene publications, and other complaints against the *Times* were under consideration. That paper, finding that there was warm work ahead, began immediately a systematic attack on the Grand Jury, pouring out a flood of abuse, referring to the members by name in terms of which the least offensive were "common drunkards," "sports," "bummers," and "gamblers"; denouncing the indictments already found as "mean, pitiful revenge"; and declaring that the *Times* would carry on "the battle" to "the end." The Grand Jury upon this appealed to the Court for protection, whereupon the judge, after hearing the arguments of counsel, announced his decision, which, in its way, is almost as remarkable as the publications which led to it. It consists in great measure of high-flown rhetoric, of the sort with which a French judge or prosecuting officer indulges himself, but which is seldom heard from an American or English bench. The court would, he declares, if deprived of public confidence through the libels of the press, be "as powerless and pitiable as Samson in the lap of Delilah." No greater offence, he continues, can be committed by any man than "to stab justice in her own temple and at her own altar." A judge must take duty as "his Polar star"; but, on the other hand, "duty cannot be learned in the school of fear." "The storm may rage, but one may patiently and calmly bide its buffetings." The defendant, he found, was apparently determined "to ruin if he could not rule," and accordingly, with an evident determination firmly fixed in his mind to "form a hollow square" about the administration of justice, the court sentenced the accused to ten days in the county jail, from which he was released a few hours later under a *supersedeas*, on giving bail.

As we just now said, we should not at the first blush have thought that the press of Chicago would take a very deep interest in a case of this sort, for the reason that it is one unlikely to occur again, and involves no sacred rights on the part of the press; for the right of a person accused of crime to blackguard the Grand Jury which is finding true bills against him, is not one in which the liberty of opinion or free discussion is bound up. But, as a matter of fact, the newspapers in Chicago have almost unanimously denounced the opinion of Judge Williams as a dangerous precedent, and a bill has been introduced in the Illinois Legislature to prevent a recurrence of such proceedings by restricting the power to punish for contempt to matters occurring in the presence of the court—doing away, that is, with what is called "constructive contempt," and leaving the power intact only so far as to give courts summary jurisdiction over such offences as the refusal of a witness to answer when sworn, the contemptuous or indecent behavior of persons in open court, or the disobedience of orders issued by the court.

Probably the case has excited more attention, and deserves it the more, because it has come immediately after a number of other cases in which the press and the courts have come into conflict during the past two or three years, and which have turned generally upon the right of the press not to attack maliciously the reputation of public men, but to discuss grave abuses in the administration of government. Generally, these cases have taken the shape of libel suits, but they may also come up in the form of contempt proceedings; and as, in the majority of cases, the attacks have really been justified by public opinion and the facts, the judicial proceedings taken have not had the effect of bringing the less reputable newspapers to their bearings (an effect much to be desired by the press at large), but have had a tendency to make a wide breach between public opinion and the incumbents of all public offices taken together—judges among the rest; to deepen the suspicion with which the public and the press regard those who for the time being have the control of local or general government in their hands, and thus create a sort of contempt for the administration of justice which works against the courts and against the best interests of society, even in the plainest ordinary cases. We have always believed, and still believe, for instance, that the so-called "gag-law" will be found to impose no new obligation on the press, and to be an enactment harmless in itself; but the harm which has been done by the widespread belief that a certain number of leading politicians in Washington were actually engaged in a deliberate attempt to gag the press and to drag editors to Washington for trial, is incalculable. So, too, when a well-known New York editor, on being summoned to Washington to testify before a committee of Congress, is arrested on a charge of libel, the outrage simply results in widening the breach a little more, so that the next editor who is subpœnaed to Washington openly declines to go there, on the avowed ground that he considers the summons a mere trap to get him to the District of Columbia and then arrest him.

These considerations make it extremely important that the power of courts to punish for contempt should receive more thorough and competent discussion than it has hitherto had, and for this reason we desire to point out one or two things which seem to have been generally overlooked. Several of the States, and the United States itself, have passed statutes to limit the power, which, in its original and common-law form, is not only summary but absolutely without limits; that is to say, a judge might imprison, fine, and, for all we know, torture a person guilty of contempt, he being at the same time the sole judge of what contempt was. In other words, it was a relic, one of the last, of the purely arbitrary power lodged in the courts as representatives of the sovereign. Now, in modern times it has been generally felt that this jurisdiction was too barbarous and comprehensive for civilized life, and an attempt has been made to distinguish between actual contempt of court—*i.e.*, acts or words tending to impede, hinder, or embarrass the administration of justice—and constructive contempt—*i.e.*, acts or words tending not to impede the administration of justice, but such as are by a mere fiction construed by courts into contempt. To this distinction there can be no sort of objection, provided it is carried out logically and rationally. But it is not carried out in that way. In most of the statutes which have been passed on the subject, the reformers have proceeded on a clumsy theory that the nature of the offence depends on the place where it is committed; and in the proposed Illinois statute, as given by the papers, we accordingly find that the power is to be confined to matters occurring in the presence of the court. This distinction is, however, almost utterly baseless. To take a very common case: it is essentially the same kind of offence for a witness to refuse to answer a question put to him on the stand, as to run away on hearing that an officer has come to summon him. In fact, so far as refusals to obey a process of court go, the only question can be whether the refusal was made not in the presence but within the jurisdiction of the court. With regard to another common class of offences, those which consist of scurrility and abuse, or defiance of the judges, jurors, or other officers, the question is one of degree, but has little to do with locality. If a party to a cause in court threatens a witness with words or gestures, it is a clear case of contempt; but is it any less so if a newspaper, day after day, threatens, intimidates, maligns, and accuses out of court? Yet, if the distinction between what is done in the presence of the court and out of its presence were correct, one would be contempt, and the other merely contempt by construction of law.

It should be borne in mind, also, that it is only by a very loose

usage that the power of a court to compel obedience to its process can be brought under the right to punish for contempt at all. The power to compel a witness to attend and answer questions is nothing more than the natural exercise of the normal jurisdiction of a court, and it would be almost as logical to speak of a decree for the specific performance of a contract, or an injunction, as coming under the right to punish for contempt, as it is in the case we are considering. Every court must have power to make its authority felt; but this is very different from cases in which an attempt is made to impede the administration of justice in indirect ways. One of these indirect attempts was made not long ago in this city by Tweed's lawyers, who did not by any means attempt to impede the process of court, but did try to bring the impartiality of the presiding judge into question in an irregular way. Now, if this had been done, not in court, but by publication in a newspaper, or two or three newspapers, would the offence have been less or greater? Unquestionably greater. Yet, if we adopt the distinction of locality, the latter would merely have been a "constructive" contempt.

The true distinction between actual contempt and constructive contempt we should take to be rather indicated by the nature of the acts or words, their intent, and their probable effect, than by the place where they are committed or spoken. To hold a newspaper in contempt, for instance, for publishing articles complaining of actual delay in the business of the courts, or criticising in a temperate or even indignant manner real abuses in the administration of justice, would clearly be an attempt at introducing "construction," not because the newspaper was published out of the actual presence of the court, but because such criticism has not the object or the result of impeding justice, but rather of advancing it.

Besides this distinction, another thing that should be taken into consideration is that the feeling excited in the press by contempt proceedings is chiefly due to their summary character, and, above all, to the fact that the judge is "judge in his own cause." There may be cases in which this is unavoidable, but the difficulty could frequently be obviated by a provision that cases may be sent to another court for trial—which is actually, we believe, the practice in France in the case of insults to judges. As a matter of fact, this end seems to be reached in Illinois in a roundabout way through a *supersedeas*.

## A NEW KIND OF SCAPEGOAT.

As the spring is now opening, the usual number of hardened villains who propose to spend the summer in foreign travel are getting ready to slink out of the country, by some one or other of the steamship lines plying between this port and Europe. How they can do it we do not see, for never, within our recollection, have the shame and criminality of their proceeding been so fully exposed. They have indeed been held up to public scorn and indignation within the past week in terms that recalled a good deal of the contumely heaped upon another class of our fellow-citizens—those who have suffered the administration of this and other large cities to run down during the past fifty years by neglecting their political duties and avoiding the "primaries," and so enabled bad men to be elected to office. Possibly they are the same class, the "absentee" of the summer having accumulated the money which he spends abroad by keeping far away during the winter months from the primaries and conventions and caucuses. If so, the absentee is probably case-hardened, and no denunciations have any terrors for him, for he has grown accustomed to them. Even if he were to pause in his career, and be brought to believe that his unpatriotic and nefarious conduct in taking money out of the country, and spending it for his own gratification in other countries, is steadily impoverishing the United States, we can hardly hope that it would prevent his going. He would probably say that the United States must look out for that; that it was not impoverishing him; and that as long as the steamers continued to run, he should go to Europe whenever he iked.

But it will not do for us to take this selfish and cynical view of the subject. If it be really true, as we have seen it recently stated, that this is "one of the gravest questions which the present day offers for consideration"; that we in the United States are poorer by the exact amount which is "carried away" and spent by the "absentees" in Europe; and that the amount so spent "has done no little towards enabling France to pay off her war debt," and in England "has raised the price of living in hotels about fifty per cent.," it might be a question how far this thing ought to be allowed to go, and what legislative or executive measures ought to be taken to prevent people going out of the country. When, too, we reflect on the other branch of the question, that "the mischief is not all done when the summer's tour is ended," but that the returning tourists come back "laden with foreign goods"—with shawls, dresses, linen, furniture, china, plate, chairs, tables, clocks, ornaments, carpets from France, leather from England, and spoils from the East—that these imported articles enter into ruinous competition with the native products, thereby cutting down the profits of business, and thus, in the end, rents, one is tempted to exclaim at least, *O tempora! O mores!* and perhaps even to join in the cutting satire suggested by the *Times* of asking the "proud owner" of these treasures, "Have you anything American in the house besides yourself?"

The cudgels have been taken up for the "absentees," however, by the *Bulletin*, and that paper has undertaken to show that the American absentee, so far from injuring the prosperity of the country by his absence, positively increases it; because, if he were to stay on this side of the water, he would not, unless he wholly changed his nature, begin at once to dress his wife in American silks, to buy clocks from Connecticut instead of Paris, and, in general, to substitute the products of our own manufacturers for those of the pauper-toil of Europe. He would, on the contrary, continue to surround himself with these things, because they appeal to his taste, by means of importations; and as he is not a producer, he would contribute nothing to balance the account; whereas, if he goes to Europe, he relieves this country of the burden of a non-producing class, and, by taking some work off the hands of the distributing class, enables more people to engage in production.

The fact is that, by the use of the term "absentee" for people who spend the summer abroad, a class of persons are invested with a name which is meaningless. If this country were cut up into large estates, owned by people living abroad, and worked by tenants fixed to the soil, out of whom the largest rent possible must be squeezed, we should have something like an absentee system; but such an idea is as grotesque as the Granger comparison of the modern Illinois farmer to the French peasantry described by La Bruyère in the seventeenth century. There are undoubtedly a large number of Americans who go abroad to take a vacation whenever they feel inclined to go, but their absence has little or no effect on the management of their property here. As a general thing, their property consists of stock or bonds—that is, of credits representing money advanced and actually employed in industry, or of real estate yielding a rental strictly proportioned to its agricultural or business value. The employment of this capital in the best way is the thing they most desire.

Of course there can be no doubt that if this country were as interesting to European travellers as it always has been to European emigrants, the United States would attract a large travelling public as well as a large emigrating public. But, as we pointed out last summer, this is precisely the difficulty. Americans go abroad to travel because they find in Europe what they cannot find here—things which are more comfortable and more pleasing to the taste, fancy, and imagination—things which take them out of the hard, dusty turmoil of work a day life into an atmosphere of art and beauty, and venerable and romantic tradition. This they will unquestionably continue to do so long as the steamers will take them. And in the interest not of trade, but of everything higher and better than trade, it is for the benefit of the country that they should do so. By means of an extremely prohibitive tariff and a paper currency, we have managed to cut ourselves off in great

measure from the rest of the world, and to force the great majority of the people of the country to live upon domestic products, whether they are good or bad, cheap or dear. Importation by the wealthy and luxurious, and trips back and forth by the "absentees," are almost the only free channels of communication with the outside world which are left us, and the only means of knowing the progress which is making in art and science and industry among the civilized nations of the world.

But the revival of the word "absentee," and the attempt to fasten it upon the people who spend the summer in Europe, is only one more indication of the popular tendency to saddle upon some conspicuous class any or all of the evils which are observed to be generally prevalent, and of which the class, far from creating them, is itself the result. Attempts have been repeatedly made to cure the evils of the civil service by heaping denunciations upon the "office-seeker," the office-seeker being himself nothing in the world but the product of a multiplicity of offices distributed as a reward of political service. So the evils which come from over-production, following in the wake of a swollen transportation system, have been laid upon the shoulders of the "monopolist" by another class of reformers, the monopolist being himself not less than the Granger the unhappy product of the swollen transportation system. All the evils of city government have been fastened upon the people who refuse to "attend the primaries," though their non-attendance comes in fact from their knowledge that the evils of the city government deprive them of influence in the primaries; while, on the other hand, those who do make a business of doing their duty as citizens by going to all the primaries, caucuses, and conventions, serving on delegations, working for the party, and, in a word, "taking care that the republic receive no harm," find very soon that they belong to a disreputable class known as "professional politicians," and are dragging the country deeper into the mire every day, and that their "attending" the primaries is now called "running" them; that their presence at caucuses is because they have no independence, and at conventions because they are engaged in an attempt to "capture" them. So, too, with the "absentee." Having a country blessed with "the best currency the world ever saw," and with a tariff which greatly increases the cost of living, it stands to reason that a large number of people of wealth and of luxurious tastes will spend as much of their time abroad as they can. But that is no reason why we should mistake cause for effect, and denounce the "absentee" because we continue to support a system which makes "absentees."

## THE LONDON CLUBS.

London, March 13, 1875.

THERE is no part of the huge economy of this overgrown capital which has spread so much of late years as what is called club-life. The great size of the town makes a club of some sort a necessity to almost any one who has the bad luck to live in it. Most men of business reside in the west end of London, at Notting Hill on one side of Hyde Park, or South Kensington on the other—five or six miles from their places of business in the City. Professional men, barristers and solicitors in particular, have their chambers in Lincoln's Inn or the Temple and the neighborhood of the Law Courts, three or four miles from their residences in the West of London. Members of Parliament, owing to the late hours which they have to keep, as the House of Commons rarely rises before midnight when anything is going on, still haunt the old-fashioned streets and squares of Westminster and the Belgravia district, but not a few of them have migrated to South Kensington. To all these classes of people, clubs become almost as essential as dwelling-houses: places where they may lunch, read the newspapers, meet their male friends pleasantly, dress for dinner, and so on. In Queen Anne's time, and during the reign of the Georges, London was a very small place as compared with what it is now. The politicians and men of fashion had their coffee-houses and gaming-houses, which served some of the purposes of modern clubs. In those days a merchant, or a practising lawyer, or a professional man would as soon have thought of being presented at court or driving a four-in-hand as of belonging to a West-End club. But we have changed all that in these more democratic, wealthy, and luxurious days. The merchant, though he can rarely find his way into Brooks's, or White's or the Travellers', or any of the more exclusive clubs, has his City club and his West-End club as a matter of course, just as he has his carriage and perhaps a box at the opera. The lawyer has his university and his political club, and the politician and man of letters have their two or three clubs, just as the men of fashion had of old. The clergy used long ago to frequent the Alfred, which was pronounced by a competent critic—the late Lord Dudley, I think—to be the dullest place in existence, "the asylum of doting Tories and drivelling quidnuncs." But the clergy have migrated from there to the University clubs, and the more dignified among them to the Athenæum. And, if we can believe a reported saying of a late Lord Alvanley, better known as Pepper Arden, they have not added to the joviality of that learned association. On being asked whether he still belonged to the Athenæum, he answered: "No, not exactly. I stood it as long as I could, but when the seventeenth Bishop was proposed I gave in. I really could not enter the place without being reminded of my Catechism." The *Quarterly Review* narrates that anecdote, so if it is a libel on the Club or the Bench of Bishops or the Catechism, that respectable periodical is responsible.

Dr. Johnson defines a club to be an "assembly of good fellows meeting under certain conditions." The definition is at best vague, and it is more than doubtful if the great lexicographer would have considered it entirely appropriate to the modern institution. Mr. Thackeray's Old Brown of the Union Jack "stretched on the best sofa, sitting on the second edition of the *Times*, having the *Morning Chronicle* between his knees, the *Herald* pushed in between his coat and waistcoat, the *Standard* under his left arm, the *Globe* under the other pinion, and the *Daily News* in perusal," could hardly come within the category of good fellows. But there is not a club in London, nor in New York either, I dare say, which cannot number several Old Browns among its members. It matters little what may be the basis of the club, or for what purpose it was established, Old Brown finds his way into it. It has always been the same, and will be so as long as human nature remains unchanged. But my intention is not to moralize on the effects of club-life upon the male character, but to tell you something of the London clubs.

Previous to the institution of these establishments of the modern type their place was supplied by taverns and coffee-houses. The politicians of the middle and early part of last century assembled at the St. James Coffee-house, and from it most of the political articles in the *Tatler* are dated. Learned and literary folks frequented the Grecian. Locket's, in Gerrard Street, and Pontac's were the fashionable taverns of the time, and White's Chocolate-house in St. James Street was the favorite resort of the same company in the evening.

Brooks's Club in St. James Street—all the clubs gravitate towards St. James Street and Pall Mall as the sort of ἀμφαλὸς γῆς of modern times—the haunt of the aristocratic Whig of the present day, was founded in 1764, and was originally a gambling-house started by Brooks, a wine-merchant and money-lender. Many curious scenes were enacted within its walls about the end of last century when Fox, Selwyn, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Garrick, Horace Walpole, Gibbon, Burke, and Sheridan were among its members. The old betting-book is still extant, and, though the bets were not so eccentric as some in the betting-book at White's, it is not without interest to find the names of Fox, Selwyn, and Sheridan recurring with an unexampled frequency. It is now one of the dullest and one of the dreariest clubs in London. It is filled with grumblers at the present state of things, and old Whig fogies moaning over the departed glory of their clique. Household suffrage having "dished" the Whig ascendancy, Brooks's has for some years been politically a nonentity. Time and fashion have interfered with the original purposes for which the club was founded. Gambling has lost its charms for the descendants of Fox and his contemporaries. A cock-fight in the morning-room would not be a greater novelty than a bank at faro, and you might as well expect to hear the clash of rapiers on the staircase as the rattling of the dice-box at the hazard-table. Those who wish to play or bet go to the smaller clubs in the immediate vicinity—the Turf Club, Pratt's, and the Arlington—where they meet perhaps a less select but certainly a more lively fraternity. Gambling and politics being in abeyance, Brooks's has kept up its old character for nothing but exclusiveness. Sheridan was blackballed three times by George Selwyn because his father had been on the stage, and he only was admitted through a ruse of George IV., then Prince of Wales, who detained Selwyn in conversation in the hall whilst the ballot was going on. Better men than Sheridan have been blackballed since, mainly because they were rich and had no hereditary connection with the governing families of England.

White's Club was established in 1736, and stands in St. James Street, nearly opposite to Brooks's. Bubb Doddington and Colley Cibber were among

the original members. Gambling and costly entertainments, and the bay window looking into St. James Street, used to be the principal attractions. The entertainments were of the most gorgeous character. In 1814, the club gave a ball that cost close on £10,000—an enormous sum in those days; and three weeks afterwards they gave a dinner to the Duke of Wellington that cost the members £2,500. To keep up such hospitality, gambling became more popular in White's than in any other club, and betting on any subject capable of controversy became a foible. The old betting-book is in itself a revelation of the times—more curious perhaps than improving. The coat-of-arms designed for the club by Horace Walpole and Selwyn indicates the prevailing passion. Blazon is vert (for a card-table), three parolis proper on a chevron sable (for a hazard-table), two rouleaus saltier between two dice proper, on a canton sable; a white ball (for election), argent; the supporters, an old and a young knave of clubs; the crest, an arm out of an earl's coronet shaking a dice-box; and the motto, "Cogit amor nummi." Round the arms is a claret bottle ticked by way of order. I do not say that these arms were entered at the Herald's Office. But they throw some light upon the pursuits of the members, and the familiarity with these pursuits of the designers of the arms.

Of the more modern clubs of the exclusive class, Boodle's, the Travellers', and the Marlborough (the Prince of Wales's club), are the best. The Travellers' is in Pall Mall, next door to the Reform. It was founded in 1814, about the time that the old military and naval clubs were formed, when men came home after the peace and wanted occupation. The fundamental rule of this club is that "no person shall be eligible who has not travelled out of the British Isles to a distance of at least five hundred miles from London in a direct line." Sixty years ago, it did not take much to constitute a traveller. Under this rule, there is not a Cook's tourist who has crossed the Channel who would not be eligible. Following on the institution of these clubs came the Athenæum and the two University Clubs. The latter keep up a solid character of dull respectability; the former is, take it all round, and despite of Lord Alvanley's horror of its episcopal character, the best club and the most interesting in London.

The political clubs proper are the only other clubs of much importance. There is an infinite number of smaller institutions which have sprung up like mushrooms round the "centre of the earth"—military clubs and junior military clubs, diplomatic clubs, whist clubs, and fine-arts clubs. But none of these have any history attached to them. The growth of the political clubs is of some historical importance. In the year 1831, the Tory party became alive to the fact that their opponents, the Reformers, by means of unions instituted throughout the country, had greatly advanced their political opinions. Determined to counteract this pernicious influence and to keep the command of the Parliamentary elections, they established the Carlton Club. The project suddenly came forth supported by a list of all the leading Tories and ex-ministers of the day, followed by a train of magistrates, lord-lieutenants, ex-governors, and ambassadors. It was a great political association, organized to unite the scattered fragments of Toryism and to re-establish the Tory supremacy. A Political Committee was appointed, and a political secretary, to keep up communication with local associations and to manage the registration of voters and the Parliamentary elections of the future. This was the beginning of the political club properly so-called. The Carlton soon made its influence felt in the country, and the Reformers, on the principle that it was lawful to be taught by their enemies, established a similar organization under the auspices of the Reform Club. In the history of these two clubs the sweetness of the uses of adversity is interestingly manifested. With the exception of one or two brief intervals, the Tory party have been in opposition since these clubs were instituted, forty years ago—and what has been the effect upon the fortunes of the clubs? The Carlton has raised up four or five institutions worse than itself, all contributing to a central fund managed by the leaders of the Tory party in their central office, with an organization spreading over the whole of England and Wales, and with branch-offices in Scotland and Ireland, all working together, and controlling, so far as such organizations can, the elections in almost every constituency. The Reformers, on the other hand, glutted with success, have allowed their organizations to die out. The party character of the club has almost disappeared. There is still kept up the fiction of a Political Committee, but it is unable to control the political conduct of the members of the club, and utterly powerless to influence a single election in the most loyal constituency. For years the chiefs of the Liberal party have been impressed with the inferiority of their political machinery, and have been tentatively throwing out suggestions for the establishment of a new Liberal Club. But nothing came of it until the shipwreck of their party last year brought them face to face with their misfortunes. They set about the formation of a new club in a workmanlike fashion, and ten days ago they opened it in spacious temporary premises at the head of St. James Street, under the name of the Devonshire Club—a pleasing tribute to the family of their leader the Marquis of Hartington. Whether it succeeds or not depends upon its management. It has opened under good and under bad auspices. The straits in which the party are at present are a kind of guaranty that the interests of the Club will at the commencement be well attended to. But the situation is one of evil auguries. The committee have taken for their temporary settlement the notorious gaming-house called Crockford's or "The New Pandemonium." Here, between the years 1827 and 1840 (when Crockford, who started in life as a small fishmonger, retired into private life a millionaire), more money changed hands at play than in all the other clubs in London. The knowing ones, particularly those of the opposite side of politics, say the place is doomed. Every scheme which has been started in these gilded saloons since 1840 has come to grief or bankruptcy, and the Devonshire Club is bound to perish like the rest. Meanwhile, the Tories, taking time by the forelock, as they always do, have erected a pretentious building on a new site altogether, close to the Houses of Parliament, looking out on the river flowing under the club windows, for the convenience of Members of Parliament of the Tory side of politics. Nothing can exceed the excellence of this establishment. A covered way leads from the door of the club to the underground railway, by which you can go to any part of London, and another covered way leads to the House of Commons across the street. An electric bell from the Speaker's table communicates with the club, so that when the House has been cleared for a division and the sand-glass turned, loyal party men may leave their comfortable rubber in the St. Stephen's Club, or their game at pool, and rush along the covered way in time to take such part in the division as the Tory whip directs. This is reducing party government to something like a science, and carrying it on with that maximum of comfort which the exigencies of the case admit.

## AN ITALIAN "NOTION."

ROME, February 6, 1875.

THE knowledge of living languages is daily becoming a greater necessity all over the world, as international relations are more closely cemented by rapid communication. Each one in his own profession, be he soldier or student, Government employee or simple citizen, feels an acquaintance with modern languages to be of importance to him. In Italy, where the floating population of the towns is composed of strangers, this is particularly the case, and especially so from the fact that Italian commercial men pride themselves on treating with their correspondents in their several languages. This has necessitated a widespread knowledge of foreign languages among a class who could not afford regular instruction, and from this very pressure laid on them has resulted an institution unique in its kind and answering to its aim so perfectly that there is now hardly a town of any commercial importance in Italy which is without a Philological Club, as it is called.

To convey an idea of what this is, let me give a short account of the Turin Club, which was the first founded. It arose from an association of seven or eight young men who wished to learn English, and constituted themselves into an evening class after their daily work was over, their joint means enabling them to pay a teacher. Finding the system answer beyond their hopes, they determined to extend to others the benefits of mutual help, and hired a room on the fourth floor in a narrow street in Turin, issued circulars, and opened the first Philological Club in August, 1868. It was instantly crowded to excess by persons eager to avail themselves of such privileges, and, the attention of the municipal authorities being drawn to it, they granted a *locale* in Piazza Carignano. At the end of a year (1868–1869), the Club numbered 412 members, taught seven living languages (French, English, German, Spanish, Arabic, Hungarian, and modern Greek), and was in receipt of $2,543 contributed by the members, plus $140 from the town and $50 from the Chamber of Commerce. Several learned Italian philologists and men of science were named honorary members to add to the repute of the rising institution, and for it the best teachers in the town gladly gave up their time, though the pay was then only $10 per month. In the second year (Oct. 1, 1869–Sept. 30, 1870), the members increased to 530, and two more languages were taught, Russian and Portuguese. The receipts now amounted to $3,462, nearly $800 more than the previous year. Examinations were now held and diplomas granted in the several languages. In the third year (Oct. 1, 1870–Sept. 30, 1871), the society again overflowed into a larger place of residence (its present abode), and opened schools for women, of which we shall speak later. The income this year was rather over $4,200, in which is included the yearly subsidy from the municipal

authorities, which they raised to $200, and the $50 from the Chamber of Commerce.

In this year, the rules of the society were modified to their present shape. They are very simple: the members name a committee of fifteen at the general yearly meeting, and this committee elects from its own number a president, vice-president, a censor, treasurer, cashier, librarian, and collector of dues, whose various duties are clearly defined in the statutes of the society. The committee also names the professors, who cannot be chosen from among the members. The schools are open from the 15th of October to the end of June, and should one class become overcrowded, another for the same language is opened. The members are of two kinds, active and ordinary. The latter frequent the schools, and pay one dollar monthly for so doing. They are not admitted without proper enquiries into their respectability; but the committee is more careful in the choice of active members, who all take part in the general meetings. These members can only be elected by the unanimous vote of the whole council, and they bind themselves to pay eight dollars yearly for three years. In this way, the mere scholars, whose interest in the society is only a passing one, are kept out of the administration. Ten free places are granted to youths who have not the means of pursuing their studies. There are reading-rooms and a library, amply provided with newspapers and reviews and many standard works, which are at the disposal of all the members. Besides the classes in languages, there is a class in stenography and one in comparative philology. A few more figures, and we have done: on the 1st of October, 1873, cash in hand, $777 50; on the 1st of October, 1874, cash in hand, $853 40. These speak for themselves.

It may be of interest to know to what classes of society the men who throng these schools belong. This can be ascertained through the interesting pamphlets of the vice-president, to which I owe most of my information. In the first year there were 412 members; of this number 160 were merchants (*commercianti*), 78 employés, 75 students, 21 lawyers, 20 engineers, 10 military men, 6 doctors, 5 priests, 4 professors, 3 accountants, and 30 of divers other professions. The average number of members who attended each class was: 106 for English, 94 German, 87 French, 42 Spanish, 8 Italian, 7 Arabic, 6 Hungarian. These figures naturally vary, and in the next year the French class was the best attended; in the third year, the German. The merchants in the third year were second in rank, and the students were the most numerous. It was also noticed that 153 members in 1871 ranged in age from 15 to 20; 12 from 21 to 25; 44 from 26 to 30; 26 from 31 to 35; 10 from 36 to 40; and 8 were over 40 years old.

I must now speak of the schools for women, which were opened December 15, 1870—as soon, that is, as a suitable apartment could be provided. On the day of the opening there were 109 members already inscribed, and this number rose in a few days to 142. These schools are managed by a committee of ladies with a directress or lady president at their head, the whole under the superintendence of the president and committee of the Club. One of the reasons given for the great success of this public school for women in Turin, where it was likely to be regarded as very unseemly to attend it, is that the male members were forbidden the use of the Club between the hours of 12 and 4 P.M., when these classes were held. The ladies of many of the highest Turin families diligently followed the classes, and all came copy-book in hand to the monitress, who corrected the exercises while the professor lectured, so that no time was lost, and the books were returned as soon as the lecture was over. Women cannot become active members, but as ordinary they have access to the library and reading-rooms. The results of the studies in this section are, according to the president, Signor Cibrario, more satisfactory than they are among the men. He accounts for this by the female classes being held in the best hours of the day, when the women come fresh to their studies, while the men have only the evening hours, from 8 to 11 P.M., and are tired after their day's work. To show the liberal spirit which pervades the Club, I may mention an instance in which the female element—as it, alas! so often does—ranged itself on the clerical side and decided to close the schools on the day of Pope Pius IX.'s jubilee, even gaining over to their side the directress, an enlightened woman. The administrative council, however, while respecting the Catholic religion in common with the directress, considered that the study of languages was equally divided among Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, and therefore, revoking the incautious decision, ordered that all the schools, without distinction, be opened on the day of the Papal jubilee, and announced in a manifesto posted in the different rooms of the Club, that "the Philological Institution keeps itself entirely aloof from every religious opinion and practice."

The elements of the brilliant and rapid success of the Circolo were manifold, but the essentials may be summed up under three heads: firstly, the great lessening of expense obtained by the power of association—*i.e.*, the payment of one dollar a month for the enjoyment of all the benefits and privileges of the Club; secondly, evening schools and evening lectures from 7 to 11 o'clock, being the hours in which men are free to attend; thirdly, gratuitous services of the administrative officials. The regulations also are very few, thus leaving the dignity of the member unimpaired. I may now give a short sketch of the workings of a few among the other Philological Clubs which have arisen in different parts of Italy, and, to begin with, that of Florence. The Syndic, Sig. Peruzzi, was the first promoter of the idea. Having just been deprived of her short-lived honor as capital of Italy, Florence required to be reminded of her old and glorious traditions, and needed a fresh impulse to urge her on the road to learning. It was thought that by diffusing a knowledge of modern tongues, industry and commerce would be encouraged; and certainly the need of some such institution must have been felt, for barely a year had elapsed after the foundation of the Club (opened in January, 1872) before the society outgrew its modest apartments, and petitioned the city for the use of one of the many handsome palaces at its disposal. The demands for admittance at the schools had enabled the society to open 16 courses, in which the chief modern languages were taught, and to subscribe to 70 reviews and magazines, and to 33 Italian and foreign newspapers. By such an unexpected success, the society was enabled to pay off all the expenses of starting, and had left $465 as a reserve fund. In the first year, the students numbered 118, in the second 312, this number increasing daily. The active members in 1872 were 365; in 1873, 685; from which figures we may perceive that the Florence Club is assuming more the character of an ordinary club—250 members on an average frequent its reading-rooms daily. Evening *conversazioni* are also held; these are gradually becoming more numerously attended, as invitations for a month are extended to strangers; also members of other Philological Clubs have free access to these meetings, and every stranger of note, on his arrival in Florence, is invited there. The schools for women have not thus far developed in a satisfactory manner, and only one class for English has been opened.

At Genoa, the *Circolo filologico e stenografico* was founded in 1872, the same year as the Florence Club, but it rather languished at first from want of funds. An enterprising member, Avvocato Berio, got up a loan of $800 in bonds of $5 each, which were readily disposed of. This attracted general attention, and on March 1, 1874, the female section opened with one hundred and seventy-five names, divided into the following classes: two for French, two English, two German, and one Spanish, one class for telegraphy, and one for declamation. The direction is in the hands of a committee of lady patronesses. This Club aims chiefly at the education of women, and in a printed circular to the Genoese nobility and gentry, begging for contributions of books or money for the enlargement of its library, the Board especially prays that only such books may be given as will be of real use to women, who have hitherto, it says, fed on fantastic novels from circulating libraries. One evening a week is devoted to a lecture, on any subject of general interest, by the best professors in the city, and this is attended by male and female members, and often terminates with music. The active members of this Club, excluding those that attend the schools, are one hundred and forty-four in number. A weekly paper is issued, publishing the number of scholars and giving an account of the weekly lecture. The *Circolo* at Leghorn has greatly prospered. It was opened in 1872, and numbered, December, 1874, 239 active and 100 ordinary members. It has assumed the form of a serious club, in which chess is the only game allowed. This is a great impediment to allowing women to share in the educational advantages, as we have seen in the case of Florence, and there are consequently no classes for them. This is the only Club which has started without monetary help from the Municipality and Chamber of Commerce. In Milan, they have a *Circolo* for women alone, which has hitherto not succeeded. The men's Club, which is a separate enterprise, has met with the happiest results, and counts 600 members. In Rome, the institution is but one year old, so that it has not yet a history. Ancona, Alessandria, and Pisa have also successfully imitated Turin, the first two being commercial cities and the last a university town.

Searching for similar or corresponding institutions in other countries, I find nothing that resembles the Italian Philological Clubs. In England, the nearest approach is the Taylorian Institution, established not long ago by Sir Robert Taylor; but this really has none of the distinguishing features of these Clubs. In France and Germany, there is certainly nothing like them. This is, I believe, the first instance in which the Italy of to-day takes the lead of the civilized world in the cause of education, and she does so in a thoroughly practical spirit, laying her foundations on the great principle of mutual help.

# Correspondence.

## GOOD AND BAD GRANGERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 18th instant I notice a letter from Eau Claire, Wisconsin, signed "F. R. L.," to which you, Mr. Editor, have appended a note that does much to intensify the wrong done to the Grangers of this State by your correspondent.

There is no doubt but that "the Potter law was the result of an outburst of passion, manipulated with mischievous skill by ambitious politicians." The same might be said of the foolish legislation of this winter with equal truth. Charging this folly to the Order of P. of H. is an outrage, and the statement that the Grangers are responsible for the present state of things is false in every particular.

If "F. R. L." was "in Madison during most of the time when legislation concerning railroads was progressing," and I have no doubt he was, he must know that the Grangers of Wisconsin are no more responsible for the action of the legislature in this matter than is the Editor of the *Nation* himself.

"F. R. L." says: "The leaders of the Granger element are" (not were) "shrewd and unscrupulous, the rank-and-file well drilled and submissive, and the temper of the whole organization narrow and vindictive." All of which must have originated in the "narrow and vindictive" brain of "F. R. L." without a particle of evidence to sustain it.

"F. R. L." must have known—at least must have been culpably ignorant of what was passing around him if he did not know—that from the time the railroad legislation commenced until the end, there never was a meeting of any kind of the Grangers in Madison having any reference whatever to the legislation to be had on this question or any other.

Members of the legislature, Grangers, and Non-Grangers met daily to consult on the action to be taken in regard to the railroads, but not as Grangers, neither were they of a class for whose acts the Order can or should be held responsible.

I believe there was not a Granger in the Legislature who had ever been heard of outside his own Grange as belonging to the Order, much less having a controlling influence in its ranks; yet one cannot but wonder and be sorry that even such as these should have placed themselves under the control of men of such small calibre as Potter, Quimby, and Lee—men who have about as much sympathy with the Order of P. of H. as "F. R. L.," and no more.

Even the Milwaukee *News*, which has been the most outspoken in its denunciations of the Potter law, and has never, I believe, been guilty before this of uttering a word in favor of the Grangers, did us the justice of saying in its issue of the 9th instant that "it was a bogus Granger element and a false Granger sentiment which was led by dishonesty and demagoguery in the late legislature to the hostile legislation on the subject of railroads. All the leading Grangers in the State—the best men among the Patrons—the officers of the State Grange, and the men who founded the Order and who brought it to its high position of power and popularity among the Wisconsin people, were in favor of legislation which would bring substantial relief to the railroads, and through them to the other business interests, the industries and commercial enterprise of the State. Such Grangers as Governor Taylor, Colonel Cochrane, Lieut.-Governor Parker, W. Orledge, R.R. Commissioner Osborne, and others of equal rank and position among the Patrons, had read the lesson of hard times, business depression, crippled credit, and languishing industry, and they were ready and willing to endorse reasonable measures of relief."

The Milwaukee *Commercial Times*, in commenting on these remarks, said:

"The *News* now admits that it is the spurious Grangers who are to blame for the illogical, half-loaf, spiteful measure of relief to railroads adopted by the late legislature. . . . No expression of indignation can be too harsh for those demagogues and blatherskites who pretend to be Grangers when they are not, merely for the purpose of misrepresenting the objects and the spirit of that great and respect-worthy movement of the agricultural class for self-protection and reform. The real Grangers have only asked for themselves what is just. They are ready, and they have been at all times ready, to accord what is just to the railroads."

The following was set forth in the *Nation* about two years ago:

"The contest now going on in Illinois is one of the early skirmishes of the impending war which, unless we greatly err, is destined to produce industrial, social, and political changes in this country of the most startling description. The locomotive is coming in contact with the frame-work of our institutions. In this country of simple government, the most powerful centralizing force which civilization has yet produced, has within the next score of years yet to assume its relations to that political machinery which is to control and regulate it."

The Grangers of the West recognize the truth of this, and appreciate the magnitude and unscrupulousness of the power with which they have to deal in this contest far too well to place themselves in a false position by committing such an egregious folly as this we are accused of by "F. R. L.," and for which we are so unmercifully condemned by the *Nation*.

The leading railroad men of Wisconsin will not agree with "F. R. L." in this assault upon the Order, I am certain. But if *he* is deserving condemnation for a wrong done to a class, how much more must the *Nation* be deserving censure, when it proclaims to the world that investments are unsafe in Wisconsin, and that "the spirit at the bottom of the Granger legislation is, in fact, one of sheer and simple dishonesty"—thus condemning the P. of H. as a whole for the sins of men over whom they had no control, and for whose acts they cannot be held responsible, but for which they must suffer as much as the proprietors of railroads. I submit that instead of curses they should have the sympathy of the *Nation*.

A Granger.

Kenosha, Wis., March 27, 1875.

[This dispute about the responsibility of the Western attacks on the railroads has lasted now for two years, and we for our part are tired of it. The terms "Granger movement" and "Granger legislation" have been used by us and by the press of the whole country to designate in a general but sufficiently definite way the various modes in which the Western grain-growers have been seeking, since the summer of 1873, to put on the railroads the burden of carrying their produce to markets which, in the natural course of trade, they could not reach, including the utterance of violent attacks, like that of Mr. W. C. Flagg before the Social Science Association, on all dealers in money and all corporations as the deadly enemies of the agriculturist, whose profits Government ought to cut down. Whenever we have called attention to any particular display of this folly, we have received remonstrances like the above, assuring us either that the persons guilty of it were only pseudo-Grangers or obscure Grangers or parasites, and that we ought not to mind what they said, because the "Patrons of Husbandry," we suppose, had not formally commissioned them. But this is mere trifling. The fact is that the feeling and aims on which the Granger organization is based have produced an agitation and led to legislation as we believe of a mischievous character, which have to be denounced and exposed without waiting to find out whether any particular promoter of them was a good or a bad Granger, or was high in the order, or only known in his own lodge.

The *Nation* fully adheres to the sentiments expressed in the paragraph which our correspondent quotes. It has advocated in season and out of season such railroad reform as will deprive the corporations of their corrupting influence on legislation, and has, therefore, denounced strongly, in the interest of political morality, no less than of private rights, legislation like that of Wisconsin, which, if maintained, would furnish several powerful companies with motives of the strongest kind for buying up the legislature every winter, and furnish every rascal in the State with the chance of a small fortune, if he could only get elected to it. A legislature which fixes railroad rates is as sure to become corrupt as a hungry dog to carry off an unprotected beefsteak; or, in other words, to add the guilt of dishonesty to the guilt of incapacity. We have looked in vain for any attempt on the part of the Grangers to bring about serious and careful legislation in aid of railroad reform. If we could see anything of the kind we should heartily support it, none the less heartily even if it at first accomplished little. The "Potter law" is, in fact, a fair specimen—though the worst, we admit—of their contributions to the solution of this most difficult problem; that is, a frantic and reckless attack on the property of the stockholders and bondholders without enquiry, and in a passion, under the guidance of an ignorant farmer, who confessedly knows nothing about transportation, and whose only idea of reform was to cut down rates. We have warned persons against investing in Wisconsin for the following reasons, all of which still hold good, and which we still seriously commend to the attention of the prudent:

1. The security for money lent to a State or invested in a State does not consist, as negotiators of loans always try to make people believe, in the extent of its natural resources, but in the character of the people, as expressed in legislation and in the administration of justice. Hence some of the naturally richest countries in the world are the worst fields for the employment of capital.

2. Judged by this statement, Wisconsin stands to-day on a par with the semi-barbarous states of Asia or South America, because the people have permitted to be enacted or encouraged legislation affecting enormous amounts of capital belonging to foreigners, either under the influence of simple greed, or of passionate resentment against certain trustees of this property living in the State. It matters not which of these motives was the more powerful. The fact that such legislation is possible as against strangers, and that it has during the past two years greatly diminished the value of railroad securities—or, in other words, has inflicted serious loss on thousands of unoffending persons, and filled their lives with anxiety—is enough of itself to put careful people on their guard against Wisconsin investments. Against passionate legislation no pledges or promises in quiet times offer a sufficient guarantee. Nobody would trust a private person who had shown himself capable of cheating his creditors when he got into a rage.

3. Last, though not least, in addition to the legislative excesses in which the State has indulged, its Attorney-General has gone into the State courts, and laid down the doctrine that when the State granted a charter for commercial purposes it had either the right to seize the property invested in the State under the charter, and confiscate it, or to compel the holders of the charter to devote their capital to philanthropic or charitable, instead of commercial, purposes; that, in fact, the granting of the charter, or privilege of carrying on an industrial undertaking in a certain way, deprived its conductors of the common property-rights in the money they put into it. The doctrine was allowed by the State courts, and the Governor celebrated and proclaimed the decision, which was worthy of Ashantee Land, by firing cannon. Morally, it stood on the same level with the proposition that the Legislature might in its discretion authorize the Governor to call out the militia to truss travellers on the public highway.

We have been found fault with for saying these hard things, on the ground that they will exasperate the Grangers and their allies in Wisconsin, and prevent an amicable settlement. With that, we hold, we have nothing to do. If we saw a man cheating at cards, it would be our duty to warn both those who were playing with him and those who seemed likely to play with him, without regard to the effect on his temper, or to the probability that he would, if made angry, refuse to refund. If any conflict of duty arises in the matter, we think the press owes more to those who have lent no money to Wisconsin people than to those who have. The spoliation of last year is done, and cannot be undone; but future spoliation of those who are now looking around for investments can be prevented. Finally, the cause of public morality, which is the greatest cause of all, demands that States as well as individuals should be made to understand that honesty is the best policy.—Ed. Nation.]

## MORE LATIN PUNNING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Something good may come of even a bad pun, and the letter of "F. H.," in last week's *Nation* (p. 222), with the appended editorial note, made me more than content with the *Academy's* exposure of my lack of "prosodial accuracy." You have shown that the joke—a vile one, I confess—is at least entitled to the respect due to age. In the way of self-defence I have not a word to add, and it is only as matter of literary curiosity that I note a few other instances of the perpetration of this pun by writers not absolutely ignorant of prosody. Plautus liked it so well that he introduces it twice in a single play. You quote (from Amph. 721–724) one of these passages. The other is in the scene between Mercury and Amphitryon (1031–2):

"*Merc.* Prodigum te fuisse oportet olim in adulescentia.
*Amph.* Quidum?
*Merc.* Quia senecta aetate a me *mendicus malum*."

*Mendicare malum* may mean 'to beg an apple,' or 'to beg a *hap-ill*' (as, by a still worse pun, Thornton and H. T. Riley have translated it), *i.e., quaerere mălum*. It is worth noting that Amphitryon's sensitive ear was offended by Mercury's deficiency in prosodial accuracy, and he comes down on it with more than editorial severity in the next line:

"*Amph.* Cum cruciatu tuo *istuc* hodie, verna, *verba funditas*."

There is a neat play on mălum and mālum in one of the anonymous epigrams of the Latin Anthology, "de Judicio Paridis." You will find it in Burmann's edition ('Anthol. Vet. Lat. Epigramm.'), i. 94:

"Extat caussa *mali malum* cessisse Dionae
Cur ruerint Graja Pergama pulsa manu.
Dat Veneri *malum* formae pro munere pastor,
Cum Junone *malum* victa Minerva dedit."

To go from malum to pejus—Burmann, in a note to the above, quotes from the 'Menagiana' (iii. 133), the old Monkish-Latin verse on the fall of Adam, and its consequences:

"Mala mali malo ma'a contulit omnia mundo."

And this reminds me of the Latin catch which every school-boy knew forty years ago:

"Malo malo malo quam malo vivere."

I believe that both Ovid and Martial may be convicted on circumstantial evidence of having *conceived*, if not openly committed, the objectionable pun. Read Ovid's 'Epistle of Acontius to Cydippe' (Her. Ep. 20), and the reply. When Cydippe is made to complain of the fraud by which Acontius had entrapped her into a promise of marriage, she calls the apple which he threw at her feet

"volubile *malum*
Verba ferens doctis insidiosa notis" (209, 210).

He acknowledges his fault—"sit scriptum injuria nostrum"—but pleads love as his excuse, and promises that, after their marriage,

"Aurea ponetur *mali felicis* imago,"

on which shall be inscribed the lines (239, 240)—

"Effigie *pomi* testatur Acontius hujus,
Quae fuerint in eo scripta, fuisse rata."

Here the apple is *pomum*, and in line 9 it is merely "ab arbore foetus"; but Cydippe regards it as a 'rolling mischief,' and Acontius promises, if his trick succeeds, to consecrate a golden likeness of the 'lucky hap-ill.' That Ovid was equal to so wretched a pun, the next epistle (21,239) gives evidence in the play on the name of Acontius, with Greek ἀκόντιον.

"Mirabor quem tibi nomen *Acontius* esset;
Quod faciat longe vulnus, *acumen* habes."

So Martial (x. 94) plays on the edge of the pun without fairly venturing to make it, contrasting the "plumbea *mala*," which even thieves found too bad to steal from his farm at Nomentum, with the "cerea *poma*" he had bought in Rome, in the Suburra.

There is another epigram, the point of which turns on "grandia mala," meaning either "big apples" or "great penalties," but as the text is, in more than one sense, corrupt, I will not quote it here. Readers of Martial will know where to look for it.

I have already occupied too much space in your columns, but to show how much trouble "the apple of discord" has made in the world, I am tempted to add a word to recall Joh. Lang's famous translation of a passage in the 14th book of Nicephorus (Callistus) The ecclesiastical historian had used the hackneyed expression "τὸ μῆλον ἔριδος ἐς μέσον βάλλειν," which Lang rendered by "Contentionis *ovem*, vehementer *eam perstringens*, in medium protulit" It was Gilbert Cousin ("Cognatus"), I believe, who first pointed out this mistake. J. H. Trumbull.

Hartford, April 5.

# Notes.

MR. JOHN T. WOOD, whose excavations at Ephesus in behalf of the British Museum are well known, though less widely than those of Smith and Schliemann, has been lecturing very acceptably in Boston. He is prepared, we believe, to deliver single lectures or a course of lectures in any other city concerning his discoveries in and about the Temple of Diana, and we hope he will not lack invitations. His illustrations by means of drawings and stereoscopic views are very entertaining and instructive.——We are glad to observe that Mr. Edwin Simpson's pleasant little work entitled 'Dramatic Unities in the Present Day,' which we noticed briefly on page 175 of our last volume.

has reached a second edition (Trübner).——Estes & Lauriat are the American publishers of the very handy 'Globe Dictionary,' which offers a copious vocabulary, careful definitions, the pronunciation and etymology of each word, and a large number of woodcuts. Perhaps it is no drawback that some approved or confirmed Americanisms are omitted. *Bunkum* we find, and *switch* (railroad sense), and *monitor* (iron-clad), and *caucus*; but not *primary*, nor *Ring*, nor *town-meeting* (though *town-hall* and *town-house*), nor *freshet*, nor *boom* (in the lumber sense). Speaking, by the way, of Americanisms, the *Celestial Empire* (Shanghae) does us more and less than justice in saying, in an article on this subject: "We can hardly expect ready credence from our readers; but assure them nevertheless that a discussion is now going on in the leading paper of America—the *Nation*—as to the advisability of cutting 'philologist' down to 'phillog,' and 'utilitarianism' to 'uty.'" Our readers do not need to be informed that these monstrous forms were proposed by an eminent English "phillog," Mr. A. J. Ellis, and effectively combated in our columns by an American, Dr. Fitzedward Hall. ——And speaking of dictionaries, a correspondent complains of Masson's French Dictionary that under R it gives no title after *ruminer*, whereas the French Academy's Dictionary (5th ed.) gives 53 titles after that word, occupying a quarto page, besides 51 others in the supplement, and Littré gives 55; "nor are these titles rare or unimportant." One at least of these (*ruse*) is omitted in accordance with Masson's false economy of suppressing in the French-English portion every word which is spelt the same as in English. ——D. Lothrop & Co. have in press an English prize essay on 'The Temperance Reformation: Its Claims upon the Christian Church.'——In the *New-England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April there is an interesting sketch of Dr. Ezra Green, surgeon on board the *Ranger* under John Paul Jones, who lived to the great age of 101 years and 20 days. A steel portrait of him at 100 shows a bright and well-preserved old man. An article on the "Early Paper-Mills of New England" also deserves mention. ——Scribner & Co.'s *St. Nicholas* has absorbed the *Schoolday Magazine* of Philadelphia, and the *Little Corporal* of Chicago.——We learn with regret from the Hartford *Courant* that among the books destroyed by the burning of the *Churchman* office in that city last Thursday was the nearly completely printed third volume of the Collections of the Connecticut Historical Society. Its contents were: (I.) "Pierson's Indian Catechism," printed originally at Cambridge in 1658—the first book by a Connecticut author written and printed in this county. (II.) "Will and Doom; or, The Miseries of Connecticut under an Usurped and Arbitrary Government," written in 1692, by Rev. Gersham Bulkely, of Glastonbury. This very curious work, never before printed, was furnished with an introduction and notes by C. J. Hoodly. (III.) Extracts made by Dr. Benjamin Trumbull in 1772 from letters written between 1729 and 1736 to Rev. Thomas Prince, of Boston, by sundry members of Connecticut, giving historical accounts of some forty or fifty of the older towns in the State.

—Among recent Government publications on our table, the complex Interior Department naturally furnishes the greater number. A large volume of more than seven hundred pages is occupied by the annual report of the Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories under Dr. F. V. Hayden, for 1873. The seat of operations was in Colorado, and embraced the South and Middle Parks, the valley of the Arkansas River, and generally the district from Denver and Golden City to Cañon City. Maps, profiles, sections, outlines, and picturesque views of the extraordinary Rocky Mountain scenery are given in profusion. The reports on the palæontology and zoölogy of the Territory are also accompanied with plates. Of special value is the account of the rich mineral deposits, the mines of coal, galena, silver, and gold. Part IV., geography and topography, contains a very interesting discussion, by Mr. James T. Gardner, of the elevation of certain datum-points on the Great Lakes and rivers and in the Rocky Mountains. It has since been printed separately, with a map showing the railroad and canal lines used in determining elevations. "The elevation of the Great Lakes and surrounding country is found to be about 9 ft. more than previously reported by the State geologist of Ohio, and that of St. Louis [428.29 ft.] about 23 ft. higher than reported by Humphreys and Abbot. While Kansas City [763.52 ft.], and all the surrounding country for many hundred miles south and west, has heretofore been reported more than 100 ft. too low, Omaha [997.90 ft.] is raised about 31 ft., and Indianapolis [721.75 ft.] about 100 ft." A companion brochure to the foregoing is 'Lists of Elevations principally West of the Mississippi River' (3d ed.), by Mr. Henry Gannett, of the same Survey. This gives the heights of places and mountains; of some foreign mountains by way of comparison; of passes (the highest being the Argentine Pass in Colorado, 13,000 ft.); of plateaux (U. S. and foreign); of lakes; of the timber line (11,900 ft. in Colorado); of successive points at the water-level of rivers, etc. Railroad and barometric profiles are added. It is odd to find some of the American mountain heights ascribed to Petermann's *Mittheilungen*—first-rate authority, but hardly an independent source. A Catalogue of the publications of the Hayden Survey, and a Bulletin (No. 1 of Second Series) also deserve notice. Mr. W. H. Jackson, the photographer, narrates in the latter an excursion into Southwestern Colorado, among the cañons and mesas once occupied by an aboriginal race, whose lookouts and almost inaccessible dwellings are monuments of the insecurity of the times in which they were built. A few sketches illustrate this paper. Another bound volume issued by the Survey, and containing quite as much matter as the first of the above-named, is Dr. Elliott Coues's 'Birds of the Northwest,' a hand-book of the ornithology of the region drained by the Missouri River and its tributaries. Those who are familiar with the author's writings on his favorite subject do not need to be told that this work is as entertaining as it is authoritative. It is enlivened with many graphic descriptions of the circumstances under which a given species was first encountered. The index occupies more than fifty pages.

—From the Navy Department comes a translation of Dislere's 'Iron-Clad Ships of the World,' by Commander R. W. Meade, U. S. N. The comparative tables are well worth having and studying. Nos. 54 and 61 of the publications of the Hydrographic Office (Bureau of Navigation) are 'Deep-Sea Soundings in the North Pacific Ocean' and the 'Rio de la Plata.' The cruises of the U. S. steamer *Tuscarora*, Commander Geo. E. Belknap, in 1873 and 1874, are well known to have had for their object the determination of the ocean bed, with a view to the laying of a submarine cable between California and Japan. The present volume briefly sketches the routes pursued—viz., along the two coasts of the Pacific, and across *via* the Sandwich Islands; describes with figures the apparatus used in sounding; tabulates the soundings and temperatures; and shows in a number of profiles the ascertained bottom on the several lines, together with the isothermal strata. A general track and current chart completes the work. We should mention also that part of the soundings were on and off shore between Cape Flattery and San Francisco. The profiles thus obtained show a gradually shelving bottom for about thirty miles out, when a precipice is reached forming the side of a deep trough sloping upwards from south to north. It is a matter for sincere regret that Congress was unwilling or unable to appropriate the sum of $60,000 asked for by the Office to continue the examination of the Pacific Ocean; not by naval vessels in commission, but, as we believe the plan was, by two schooners cruising in company from east to west diagonally across belts of the ocean, so as to pass over or in plain sight of every part of the unexamined ground. There are in the Pacific many islands and other perils to navigators, whose positions are not known to within from ten to a hundred miles, if known at all. New harbors and advantageous coaling and repairing stations for our cruisers would not improbably be discovered by such a scouring of the Pacific seas.

—This failure on the part of Congress seems all the more regrettable because of the added scope that would have been given to a very useful and meritorious branch of the Bureau of Navigation. The Hydrographic Office is, we believe, but a little better than four years old. It is the proper complement of the Coast Survey, the latter being restricted by law to the coasts of the United States, and the former having to do with all foreign coasts. Thus far it has been obliged to content itself with obtaining from foreign sources the information which is so essential to navigation and trade. Thus we find among its publications as translations or compilations the following: 'General Examination of the Mediterranean Sea'; 'Winds, Currents, and Navigation of the Gulf of Cadiz'; 'Northwest and West Coast of Spain and Coast of Portugal'; 'General Examination of the Atlantic Ocean' (1870), and 'Navigation of the Atlantic Ocean' (1873); 'The Azores'; 'Madeira, the Salvages, and the Canary Islands'; 'The Coast of Brazil'; and, lastly, the 'Rio de la Plata.' The two last named are compilations by Lieut. Commander H. H. Gorringe. That on Brazil to some extent, but more remarkably the work on the River Plate, shows a departure from the common "sailing directions" of other marines. They contain, in addition to these directions, carefully-prepared general information about the countries and people to be visited—a sketch of their history, and the latest statistics of their population, commerce, and material progress. Of such matters the ship-master as well as the passengers are too often wholly ignorant, so that works like these will prove a welcome addition to the ship's library, and really stand some chance of being circulated and read. On the technical side, we believe that in no other single work is so much and so accurate information to be found concerning the important rivers which form the Plate estuary as in this of the Hydrographic Office. On the commercial side, it is full of suggestion of profitable ventures. We have little

doubt, for instance, from the statistics of trade with the United States here furnished (and not easily accessible elsewhere) that it would pay to run a monthly line of steamers from New York to Rosario, touching en route at Barbadoes, Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Montevideo, and Buenos Ayres. At all events, it is clear to us that merchants will consult their own interests by studying the publications of the Hydrographic Office, to which and to the Bureau of Navigation we wish a better appreciation and a heartier national support. To the intelligent and energetic chief of the Bureau, indeed, we owe the approaching solution of the problem of an interoceanic canal across the isthmus; and the patient and unassuming labors of our naval officers in this difficult and dangerous survey must ever be regarded as most honorable to our service and to the nation.

—The *Galaxy* for April has a "timely" article by an "Old New Yorker," giving the history of some property on Central Park, and its extraordinary rise in value during the past half-century, which ought to give a little better "tone" to the market and cheer the heart of the depressed speculator. Dr. T. M. Coan contributes an article of more general interest called "A New Country," the new country being the United States. Dr. Coan lifts up his voice to combat the notion that Americans may fairly find in the newness of the country the explanation of or apology for everything disagreeable, ugly, at loose ends, savage, barbarous, or wrong in it. This is, for instance, the familiar explanation of the deficiency in the United States of the fine arts. "Give us age, people say, and we shall create quite as much beauty as Europe has created." In reply to this, Dr. Coan declares that it is a new reproach to cast upon youth that it is deficient in the "creative energies," and suggests that while youth might excuse the faults of a nation in this direction, if the nation were one that had recently emerged from deep barbarism, we in the United States came from the bosom of a high civilization, and profess to have "an equal heritage in the Old World culture." The discussion of this question leads the writer of the article into a hostile excursion into the country of the Philistines, and particularly of the American branch of the tribe, one of whom, we regret to see, is doing editorial writing for *Appletons' Journal*. We fear that satire is a little too delicate a weapon for this gentleman, who denounces Dr. Coan as taking too much interest in the "big and useless buildings" of Europe, and too little in "the stirring and significant facts of the present," and the "living activities of a restless and conquering people"—a people, too, who were "the first to establish the broad principles of civil and religious liberty;" and we have no doubt he will take a savage delight in the shocking story of John Adams's reply to a French sculptor, who requested permission to take the ex-President's portrait in marble. The ex-President's answer was this: "The age of sculpture and painting has not yet arrived in this country, and I hope it will be long before it does so. I would not give a sixpence for a picture by Raphael or a statue by Phidias." The fact is, that the "new country" theory does not explain the absence of art in the United States; but it is not to be left out of the account either. For the development of art in any country the place must be at least old enough to admit of large accumulations of capital, and large numbers of wealthy people having sufficient leisure to give up a great deal of time and thought to matters of taste. This condition has not begun to exist in this country till within a few years, and even now the accumulation of capital steadily devoted to anything above industrial development is extremely small. But even if New York were the centre of exchange for the world, and the United States not a borrowing but a lending nation, there is no certainty that we should see a great artistic period dawn upon our gaze. There have been extremely few artistic periods in the history of the world, and the Anglo-Saxon race is anything but an æsthetic race. Though for that very reason there is every occasion for æsthetic reformers, still it will not do to expect too much from the *moment* or *milieu* alone, when they arrive.

—In a letter to Dr. A. von Frantzius, one of the editors of the *Archiv für Anthropologie*, Mr. C. Rau, of New York, gives the history of the Cardiff Giant ("der Onondaga-Riese"), reproducing the substance of the full exposure of that swindle which was first printed in the *Buffalo Courier*, March 14, 1870, and was very generally copied by American journals. From one of them Mr. Rau cut out the article and preserved it, "to have it at hand as a weapon for overcoming the giant when, some fine day, he should show himself in Europe." "That time is now come," Mr. Rau thinks, after reading, in the last preceding issue of the *Archiv*, Dr. Hartogh-Heys van Zoutwen's paper, in which the giant is recognized as a true "Phœnician Adonis." In proof of the statement that this humbug "did not excite the least interest in truly scientific circles," Mr. Rau gives an extract from a letter written to himself, December 17, 1869, by Professor Joseph Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution:

"It appears that the Cardiff hoax is at length fully exposed. I was unwilling to have the name of the Institution in any way connected with the affair, having had no faith in the antiquity of the statue from the first report of its discovery. Such deceptions ought to be subjected to a more severe condemnation than that which they usually receive in this country."

The article on "Tammuz and the Mound-Builders," in the *Galaxy* for July, 1872, is referred to as a literary curiosity, which may have been only intended as "ein Schurz—a mystification," since "the inscription on the right arm of the statue must have originated in the imagination of the writer."

—In a *Nachwort* to Mr. Rau's letter, Dr. von Frantzius complains that at the last meeting of the American Oriental Society Mr. J. H. Trumbull, as reported in the *Nation* (No. 489, p. 318), stated that "the editor of the *Archiv* supports" Dr. Hartogh's acceptance of the Cardiff giant as a genuine antique; and he asks the correction of a mistake which he justly regards as injurious to his own reputation and that of the *Archiv für Anthropologie* as the organ of a respectable society. Mr. Trumbull authorizes us to say that in this particular he was misunderstood. He attributed to Dr. Hartogh, and *not* to the editor of the *Archiv*, the remark to which the latter takes exception. No copy or abstract of Mr. Trumbull's communication was furnished by him for publication until its appearance in the official proceedings of the Society. He is there reported—and no doubt correctly—as having said that "to this [Dr. Hartogh's] paper Dr. A. von Frantzius, favorably known to American archæologists by his edition of 'Palacio,' appends some judicious remarks. He admits that the discovery of a Phœnician statue in America is very remarkable—if true; but, not being fully satisfied of this, he is not inclined to attribute so much importance as Dr. Hartogh does to the monument." Fully exonerating Dr. von Frantzius from the direct endorsement of this contemptible humbug, we are not the less surprised that a paper in which it figures as a genuine antique, and as trustworthy evidence of Phœnician colonization in America, was permitted to appear in the organ of a scientific association of so high reputation as the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, Ethnologie, und Urgeschichte.*

## JOHN COLERIDGE PATTESON.*

THESE two books deal with the history of an extremely interesting man. 'The Story of a Fellow-Soldier,' we may say parenthetically, is simply an abstract of the larger work, put into simple language for the use of children—a happy idea, for Bishop Patteson's career is one of which even infant minds may perceive the beauty and impressiveness. Miss Yonge's memoir is a voluminous but extremely careful and intelligent compilation, based almost exclusively upon Patteson's numerous letters. She has done her work with noticeable taste and discretion, and has modestly contented herself with being almost simply an editor. As an editor, she is most exemplary; and where, here and there (as in the first half of her first volume), she is obliged to be a narrator, she performs her task very agreeably. The charge to which her work is most obviously open is that it is written for a particular group of people—for a particular family, almost—and couched more or less in a vocabulary into which the general public (the general American public, at least) needs in some slight degree to be initiated. It is a product of highly conservative Anglicanism, and its tone is the tone of limited local culture rather than of general culture. But this we have not found an objection, and at any rate, if it is an objection, it is essential to the subject. If we are to be brought into connection with conservative Anglicanism—with a circle of people who date their letters on saints' days, and intersperse them largely with D.G. and D.V., who refer freely to the "Octave Services" and "Ember-Week"—we certainly cannot do so on easier and more comfortable terms than those offered us by Miss Yonge. "Dilettanteism," one may often say as one goes, but say it unresentfully, for we are dealing with people whose dilettanteism is highly human and conscientious, and who do a good part of the useful work of the world. John Coleridge Patteson was born and bred in this atmosphere; but he gathered up into his admirable character its most earnest and practical elements, and the career he embraced was such that his native energy and strength of purpose, applied to sordid and wearisome duties, as they often were, and yet combined with a lively and cultivated sense of what one may call the

* 'Life of John Coleridge Patteson, Missionary Bishop to the Melanesian Islands. By C. M. Yonge.' In two volumes. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.
'The Story of a Fellow-Soldier. By Francis Awdry.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

æsthetics of religion, make him an almost picturesque, an almost dramatic, hero. Add to this that he had the supreme good fortune of those who lose their lives in a chosen cause, and whose image, by this fact, is rounded off with a stroke more effective than any brilliant survival can bestow. His story is a singularly complete and touching one, and needs only to be toned down by time to acquire the holy charm of that of any saint of ecclesiastical legend. It is almost grandly simple; it seems to sweep in a single fine, unbroken curve from its beginning to its end. He was singularly happy in his birth, in his home, in his family ties and associations; in the circumstances of his education and the opportunities of his young manhood; in his early-felt and firmly-grasped vocation; in the sympathy, the hopes, and benedictions under which he embraced it; in the persistent ardor and unfailing faith with which he pursued it; in the visible benefit of his work, which so promptly blessed his labors; and, as we have said, in the honorable martyr-death which crowned them. But other men have had advantages and incitements, and yet have not become eminent. Bishop Patteson's distinction was in an elevation and purity of character so extreme that they remained of necessity in harmony with exalted confidence and liberal opportunity.

He was born in 1827, of an honorable stock on both sides. His mother's family (the Coleridges) has produced an exceptional number of distinguished members; his father, Sir John Patteson, was an eminent lawyer. Miss Yonge gives a very pleasant account of his early years, passed among those happy school-scenes and home-scenes with which English childhood is blessed, and of which Patteson, at Eton and amid his large family circle in Devonshire, had an abundant share. He went to Oxford and obtained a fellowship, he travelled abroad and worked at philology (for which he had an especial fancy) in Germany, then came home, entered the church, and took a living near his own family. He was of a deeply religious disposition, which early showed itself; and yet though a delightfully good boy, he had that rosy relish for sport and deeds of pluck which often so agreeably substantiates one's confidence in the virtuous British lad. His inclination to become a missionary was early developed, and was confirmed by the intimacy of his family with that robust representative of the colonial church, Bishop Selwyn of New Zealand. It was a genuine vocation, an ardent passion, in short, and in this way Patteson was a man of genius. His intellect (save as to the particular faculty of acquiring and retaining languages) was not remarkable, his letters are not brilliant, even his religious views (though evidently a part of the very essence of the man) are not especially comprehensive. His strong point was his character, his personal influence on simple natures, his extraordinary capacity for eliciting affection by extemporizing, as one may almost say, a perfectly sincere manifestation of affection. He was shaped in all respects for a missionary. His dogmatic convictions were simple and unflagging, his temper proof against the weariness of intercourse with childish and barbarous minds, and his skill in practical matters excellent and various. He could do anything in this line from navigating a ship to cooking a supper. He deplores his want of trained skill, but he had by nature all the typical Anglo-Saxon "handiness." All this was put to the test as fully as his largest aspirations demanded. In 1855 he went out to New Zealand with Bishop Selwyn, and remained there and in the tropics until his death in 1871. Those sixteen years were a period of really heroic activity. His field of operation was in the large cluster of the so-called Melanesian Islands, which lie in the Southern Pacific, just within the tropic of Capricorn and some thousand miles north of New Zealand. These islands are almost innumerable and are extremely various in size, in natural structure, and in the character, temper, and language of their populations. The headquarters of the Mission were at Auckland, in New Zealand, where there was a college, and the work was done by a system of annual or semi-annual voyages or rounds of visits from island to island, experimental and tentative in such degree as was necessary. The younger natives, in convenient numbers, were invited to go to Auckland, and were there instructed in the mysteries of the English language and the Anglican theology. Bishop Patteson had use for all his perseverance. The Melanesians, as a general thing, are of a gentle disposition, and extremely capable of clinging affection; so that danger to life in these overtures was not a constant possibility. But the patience, the zeal, the tact, expended in their behalf must have been something incalculable. The reader, indeed, not pledged to explicit sympathy with missionary enterprise can hardly defend himself from a certain feeling of melancholy before the picture of this elaborate machinery—material, intellectual, and moral—for converting unconscious barbarians into puzzled catechumens. He can hardly help regretting that so fine an instrument as Bishop Patteson's personal character and influence should not have been applied to some of the painful problems of our own civilization. This is really, however, a fanciful regret; for the man and the place were a perfect mutual fit, the work elicited the character as none other would have done, and the Melanesian mind, to whatever degree it may have apprehended the privilege of baptism, at least fully appreciated Patteson's intelligent tenderness.

From the moment he left home never to return, his life, his occupations, and his thoughts are copiously and minutely reflected in his letters to his family. Miss Yonge has apparently had an enormous correspondence to select from, and her selection has been comprehensive. It includes a mass of detail which will not interest the general reader, though he will not fail to notice the constant good sense and high feeling of everything that Patteson writes. He writes only, or almost only, about his daily labors, his pupils and proselytes, his multitudinous cruises, his landings (effected in primitive fashion by wading and swimming) upon islands where the appearance of perfect trustfulness had to go hand in hand with constant caution, and about those mild religious impulses which were the lining of all his thoughts. Naturally, Melanesia and his work there absorbed him every year more and more; they became his world; they filled his whole vision, and Europe grew dimmer and more distant. It is hard to imagine a more complete self-surrender to an accepted task. In 1861 his zeal was rewarded by the assent of the English Government to the establishment of a missionary episcopate, independent of the diocese of New Zealand, of which Patteson was consecrated first bishop. As none of the Melanesian Islands are British possessions, Bishop Patteson's spiritual sway was altogether unaccompanied by civil pressure of any kind, but (as he managed it) it was only the more efficacious. The seat of the diocese was fixed at Norfolk Island, half way between New Zealand and Melanesia. The years which followed were busy ones—busy often to extreme weariness. He gave much time to collecting the innumerable insular dialects, but he felt a constant regret that his other duties prevented his putting his great accumulation of material into some scientific order. As it was, he collected an enormous vocabulary, which he has bequeathed to future philologists. In a letter written in 1866 to Professor Max Müller, he gives a really amazing list of daily occupations. He was everything at once—Bishop, student, teacher, administrator, financier, governor, guide, philosopher, friend, and factotum. At this time the practice of kidnapping natives for work in the plantations of Fiji and Queensland obtained a footing, and led to armed resistance and attempted vengeance. Of such an attempt at vengeance, cruelly misdirected, Bishop Patteson was victim at the island of Nukapu in 1871. The white men being in bad odor, he was murdered as the most eminent white man. But he had given the world the full measure of himself, and his career was in a sense complete. As the picture of a character, Miss Yonge's volumes have an interest of a high order. Bishop Patteson was of the stuff of the old-time saints, with a great many virtues in addition that the saints often lacked. He offered an extraordinary combination of resolution and earnestness—of the invincible will and the loving spirit. He is a brilliant figure in the noble class of men whose genius has been a matter of the life itself—whose idea and effort have been a passionate personal example. For the Episcopal Church, of which Bishop Patteson was essentially a product, such a type, such an example, is a precious possession.

## GENTLEMAN FARMING.*

THIS is a tale of enthusiastic philanthropy, agricultural ambition, "inner consciousness," and failure. Mr. Lawson, aged twenty-five, ex-master and huntsman of his brother's fox-hounds, conceived a distaste for sport and an ambition for the advancement of the public good. He had been educated, to use his own expression, "to be happy and good rather than learned or great," and had the prospect of enough wealth to spare him the necessity of earning his own livelihood. Living in an agricultural neighborhood, his ambition turned towards farming, and on making a month's journey in the saddle from Cumberland to London, visiting Mr. Mechi on the way, and becoming infected, as so many others have been, with that vigorous gentleman's enthusiasm, he decided that the best channel for the accomplishment of his beneficent purposes lay in the direction of farming in its highest and most comprehensive form. In the book before us, he has given his experiences with a frankness and *naïveté* that are not often equalled.

He bought a farm of about four hundred acres near the village of Blennerhasset, in Cumberland, and set about the instant development of the most radical improvements. Crooked fences were made straight, small

*'Ten Years of Gentleman Farming at Blennerhasset, with Co-operative Objects. By William Lawson, Charles D. Hunter, F.C.S., and others.' London: Longmans, Green & Co.

fields were made large, old buildings were torn down and new ones put up, and the whole farm was underdrained (five feet deep at intervals of thirty feet) at lightning speed—so fast, indeed, that it afterward proved that in some cases the important item of tiles in the ditches had been omitted. Fully convinced of the superiority of mechanical over animal power, he bought a steam-ploughing apparatus during the early infancy of the steam-ploughing art. He copied Mr. Mechi's system of irrigating by means of iron pipes, hydrants, and gutta-percha hose, and laid down three-quarters of a mile of irrigation-pipes, supplied with liquid manure by pumps driven by a turbine wheel, put in at immense cost. Indeed, he introduced "all the modern improvements" with a vengeance. As a first step in his operations, he found it necessary to select a head man, and, realizing the importance of having a good man for the place, he finally engaged a very respectable person who had for twenty years been his father's coachman, and who had at one time kept a small grocer's shop. On this point he says: "I had not at that time read Stephen's 'Book of the Farm,' in which I now remember that in specifying the qualifications necessary for a shepherd, he shrewdly indicates that, while the shepherd's *honesty* is important, a *knowledge of the shepherd's business* is still more so." The general result of the whole enterprise is very well foreshadowed in this expression in the first chapter of the book: "How during several years I bought and fed animals and sold them at a loss; how I deceived myself and was deceived by others in various ways, can be sufficiently well imagined without being described."

Co-operation became very early one of Mr. Lawson's hobbies, and he rode it unflinchingly to the end with a true huntsman's pluck—taking every fence and ditch that lay in his way, straightening his hat and mounting again after every tumble, but only running his game to earth after all. It was co-operation of the most heroic sort; it was "heads you win, tails I lose." All persons employed on the estate were to receive their wages in any event, and full wages too. Out of the profits of any one year, Mr. Lawson was to reserve a modest 2½ per cent. on his capital; after that a certain percentage was to go to what was called the "public good" fund; and the next dividend was to be allotted not to capital but to the laborers in the form of bonus, in proportion to the wages they had earned. The people at Blennerhasset seemed not eager to avail themselves of the tempting offer. After full discussion in open meeting, the question was put to vote; the voting urns were two bottles, one labelled "co-operation" and the other "every man for himself." Eleven voted—ten for every man for himself, and one for co-operation. Nothing daunted, Mr. Lawson called another meeting, to which he invited not only those immediately interested, but the whole population of the village, male and female, old and young; and here he painted his lily so white, and presented it in such a winning way, that of 53 voters 47 voted for the plan. The success of this attempt at public discussion and decision was so great that it was determined to establish what was known as the Blennerhasset Parliament, where attendance and interest were stimulated by a standing offer of half-a-crown to any ordinary laborer who should produce a valuable idea. It was arranged that the Parliament should sit daily for half-an-hour after dinner; but the discussions were interesting, and a longer time was consumed, and a Saturday meeting from 3 to 6 P.M. was substituted. At these meetings, where every woman or child of the neighborhood might have a voice, the most important questions were discussed and acted upon. On one occasion the question was as to the fitness of the manager for his position; on another, the propriety of mortgaging Mr. Lawson's property for £5,000, in order to invest the proceeds in United States bonds, the decision being in favor of the investment, which was made accordingly. The following question discussed is suggestive: "Whether it is proper for any member of council to molest at any time another member of council in consequence of anything said in council." Of course, in due time, a reform bill was introduced, which contained among others the following clauses: (1.) That part of the horses, at any rate, be sold at once, and the rest put on half corn. (2.) That we let alone the eight cottages (that are as yet only on paper) until we see the other seven filled. (3.) That the farm-bailiff instead of a stick take some work-tool, and, like a man, say "Come" instead of "Go," and that his wages be, after next Friday, eighteen shillings per week. In a certain way the Parliament became an advantage to the community: private grievances, after being duly placarded in the village, were submitted to discussion, and time for reflection was thus afforded before the difficulty was ventilated in open session.

The foregoing, however, were but incidents. The business was carried on with a forethought which required careful estimates of receipts and expenditures to be made in advance, that all might know what could be depended upon as the result of the year's work. For example, the estimated profits for 1867 on the Prior Hall Farm—an estate bought as an addition to the original establishment—had as its chief features:

| | Acres. | Profit per acre. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cabbages | 26 | £18 0s. 6d. | £468 13s. 0d. |
| Onions | 7 | 59 17 6 | 419 2 6 |
| Leeks | 6 | 76 7 6 | 458 5 0 |
| Carrots | 4 | 28 18 4 | 115 13 4 |
| Profit on 95 acres remaining | | | 692 16 6 |
| Total profit on 136 acres | | | £2,154 10 4 |

The actual result of that year was a loss of rent, interest, and £252 cash.

If space allowed, we might amuse our readers with the story of the Christmas festivals, at which (Mr. Lawson and his adherents being vegetarians) cold oatmeal porridge and ill-served potatoes and rice were the chief diet, and at which entertaining lectures by phonographers, co-operators, phrenologists, and others supplemented Mr. Lawson's own addresses on America and other countries he had visited; with an account of the hundreds of failures of the original steam-apparatus, the moderate success of the costly double-engine set afterwards substituted for it, and the loss of money on cattle, so great as to impress the vegetarian Parliament with the fact that cattle-raising was a mistake, and induce them to sell out the whole stock at a loss, only to make often greater losses in the cultivation of vegetables on land unsuited for them and in a district where they found no market; with a description of the way in which the sale of milk in the distant city of Newcastle was entrusted to a "good" man, who had been engaged at Bell's Temperance Hotel, and who got drunk and left three days' milk to spoil at the station before the Prime Minister of Blennerhasset was informed of it. In fact, in one sense, it may be said that the whole enterprise from beginning to end was a failure; but in another sense it afforded entertainment to many visitors from far and near, some of whom, being practical men, could learn the value under proper management of many improvements which were there a failure, just as those who are led by its entertaining confessions to read Mr. Lawson's book will find in its supplementary chapters a fund of most valuable original information and suggestion concerning farm-cropping, crop balance-sheets, the effect of manure, the cost of labor, manuring of grasses, experiments with potatoes, etc. Moreover, no one can lay down the book without a feeling of cordial sympathy with Mr. Lawson in his generous and persistent though so often misguided efforts to benefit mankind, and admiration for the faithful, plucky way, in which, for the edification of mankind, he tells without reserve and with a modest good-humor the story of his remarkable experiment up to the time when the farms were sold and the whole account was closed with a loss of some £8,000. Nor can we avoid the suggestion that larger sums have sometimes been expended without producing a result equal to that shown by the permanent improvement of the condition of the working-people of Blennerhasset, and the never-ending good of the education they acquired under Mr. Lawson's ten years of enthusiastic instruction.

---

*Die Lage des homerischen Troja.* The Site of the Homeric Troy. By Dr. Gustavus von Eckenbrecher. With two maps and an illustration. (Düsseldorf: Julius Buddeus. 1875. Pp. 63.)—A flood of new books may be expected on the Troy question. The one named above is not new, but a second corrected and improved edition in book-form of a dissertation originally published in the *Rhenish Museum* in 1842. As the reader will guess, it owes its republication to the interest awakened by Schliemann. The author has, however, purposely disregarded the results of Schliemann's investigations; his aim was merely to state such conclusions as might legitimately be drawn from a study of the ground, and a comparison of Homer and the other ancient authors. It is a full exposition of the argument against the Burrabashi site, and in favor of Hissarlik. Of the two maps, the first represents the changes in the ground since the Trojan times, and the second the Plain of Troy. A view is given in lithograph of the heights of Hissarlik and Tschiblak. The conclusions of the author are not based entirely on passages in books; he has explored the site itself carefully in person.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Alexander (Mrs.), Ralph Wilton's Weird | (Henry Holt & Co.) $1 25 |
| Allen (Dr. H.), Analysis of the Life-form in Art, swd | (Philadelphia) |
| Belot (A.), The Woman of Fire: a Tale, swd | (W. F. Gill & Co.) 0 50 |
| Braun (A.), Glacial Epoch of Our Globe, swd | (Estes & Lauriat) 0 25 |
| Frown (H. S.), The Congress of 1774, swd | (Philadelphia) |
| Butts (I.), Protection and Free Trade | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25 |
| Cherbuliez (V.), Romance of an Honest Woman | (W. F. Gill & Co.) 1 50 |
| Feuillet (O.), Romance of a Poor Young Man | (James Miller) 1 50 |
| Fothergill (Dr. J. M.), The Maintenance of Health | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 00 |
| Gardner (Dr. J.), Longevity, 2d ed | (W. F. Gill & Co.) 1 50 |
| Globe Dictionary of the English Language | (Estes & Lauriat) 1 50 |

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 15, 1875.*

## The Week.

DURING the few days preceding the return of wintry weather on Tuesday, general trade was more active than at any time this year. Breadstuffs and provisions have been in demand both for export and speculative account. Cotton has been quiet, and the advance in the price caused by the light receipts and the prospect that the crop will not exceed 3,750,000 bales, has apparently reached its highest point. Planters are putting in the new crop, and the acreage planted is larger than last year. The business of the railroads is increasing, although the war between the trunk lines continues. It is now a matter of record that the principal lines earned more net in 1874 than ever before; their gross receipts were generally smaller, but the low cost of operating on account of the decline in wages and material made this result possible. Speculation at the Stock Exchange has been tame, although securities and shares have advanced. The Union Pacific speculation, which for weeks overshadowed all others, has been brought to a halt by the Panama Railroad managers, who demand a larger share of the increased receipts growing out of the advance in Pacific-bound freights than the Central and Union Pacific are willing to grant. Very little of this trade will go over the Panama Railroad; but nevertheless Mr. Trenor W. Park, who is the chief manager of the Panama line, wants enough to enable him to declare 4 per cent. quarterly dividends to the Panama stockholders. He threatens, if this is not given, to put on an opposition line to the Pacific Mail. The banks added about $5,000,000 gold to their reserves last week, and are gaining in legal-tender notes. Rates for all classes of loans have a downward tendency. Gold has advanced to 115⅝, and sterling bills are now held at rates which justify the export of gold coin. It seems inevitable that a large part of the gold to come out of the Treasury before midsummer will be exported.

---

The Governor's Canal Commission, consisting of Messrs. John Bigelow, Daniel Magone, J. D. Van Buren, and A. E. Orr, was appointed last week, and the legislative committee has begun its investigations. A bill is now before the legislature to enable the Governor to remove for misconduct in office any secretary of State, comptroller, treasurer, attorney-general, State engineer and surveyor, canal commissioner, or State prison inspector. These offices are now all elective, and the incumbents removable by the simple and familiar process of impeachment, besides being accountable in another way, of which we used to hear a good deal, *i.e.*, to the people. The theory of this sort of accountability is that when an elective officer, like a canal commissioner, misbehaves himself, lines his pockets with the public money, admits fraudulent bids, or indulges himself in any other kind of corruption, the news is brought at once to the people, and the people gather together in their primaries, and in their delegate conventions, and in their county conventions, and in their State conventions, and unanimously resolve that this bad man no longer commands their confidence, and that he, therefore, must retire to private life. As a matter of fact, however, the process is quite different, for no public notice of the bribery and corruption is given, the people never hear of it at all, and the only persons who know anything about it are really the contractors who do the bribing and fraudulent bidding, and the "high officers of State" who connive at it; and so, when the time for the primaries and conventions comes, the contractors and their friends assemble in great numbers, declare themselves to be the people, and very likely pass a series of resolutions recommending the officials for re-election on the ground that they have "faithfully served the interests of the people," and then, as the people, go to the polls and elect the ticket.

---

This system of accountability has been on trial in the State of New York for a long time, and for practical purposes seems to have had as little effect in keeping administration pure as impeachment itself. There can be little doubt that giving the Governor the power of removal would do much good, though, as the *Post* says, the measure does not go as far as it might. If we could have the appointment as well as removal of State officials put into the Governor's hands, we should create the most effective system of responsibility possible under the circumstances of the case. This, however, is impossible without a constitutional amendment, and a constitutional amendment is impossible without recourse to the people, which at present we emphatically protest against. The *Post* says:

"By creating a new instrument of removal and leaving the method of election untouched, it encourages discord and opposition instead of securing unity and harmony among the executive officers of the State. Under the suggested amendment, the Governor would be able to impress his own administrative policy upon the departments. Under the proposed bill he would be brought into conflict with officers having a different policy, representing another party, and elected, perhaps, at a time when there were before the people issues other than those on which he was elected. If the Governor should be clothed with power to remove a Secretary of State or a Comptroller thus politically at variance with himself, the temptation to a questionable exercise of the power might not always be resisted. At any rate, the effect would be to embarrass rather than simplify administration."

But this is just the dilemma we are always brought face to face with by the inflated elective system we have adopted. The people have made the judges or the canal commissioners or the State surveyor elective, only to find that they cannot keep the offices in good hands; then they helplessly ask the Governor to remove them for cause, and in a short time he begins to remove them for "politics." Nevertheless, we are inclined to support the present bill, and for the very reason, among others, that it does encourage "discord and opposition." "Unity and harmony" have been tried a good while, and the more united and harmonious the executive officers become, the more stealing there seems to be. As we write, the measure appears to be undergoing amendment looking towards suspension by the Governor prior to removal after trial.

---

Besides the canals, the great event of the week in local politics has been the pardon of Ingersoll by Mr. Tilden, on the understanding that he is to give evidence against Tweed sufficient to secure a verdict. A new suit has been brought against Tweed for some six millions' worth of real estate, which the old statesman conveyed to himself at the time of the Ring operations, and which has, it is said, since then been conveyed and reconveyed until it is difficult to say to whom it belongs. We fancy, however, that it belongs to the "old man" yet, or that he has some sort of a lien on it, though his lawyers are said to have consumed much of his substance in their efforts to get him out of prison, and to prevent his property from being injudiciously disposed of. It is a hard case, altogether, for no sooner do the lawyers succeed in getting a decision of the highest court of the State in their client's favor, than the Legislature immediately passes a law making it necessary to begin all over again. The Legislature has recently passed two or three bills which will, it is supposed, enable the suit now brought to be carried on to a verdict.

---

During the canvass in Connecticut Mr. Blaine made a speech which is just now serving a purpose very different from that which he put it to. With Colorado admitted to the Union, he said, the total electoral vote will be 369, of which 185 will be a majority. The

South, voting as a unit, can give 138 votes, leaving only 47 to be obtained out of the 231 that belong to the North. The three States of New York, Connecticut, and California can give these votes. "And if this design could succeed, it would only be history repeating itself. Against an overwhelming majority of the Free States, in 1856, a small fraction of them united with the South, and were enabled to fasten the Buchanan dynasty upon the country, with all the unnumbered evils that followed." Since the election in Connecticut, the Democrats have found great satisfaction in reproducing this speech. The united South is, of course, not yet accomplished; but it seems not far off, for South Carolina and Mississippi are the only thoroughly Republican States left in that part of the country, and Mississippi is very uncertain.

The St. Louis *Republican*, in discussing this, remarks that it is a very bad thing that the old sectional division between the North and South should be thus revived It has been plain enough, however, of late years that this was the conclusion to which the policy pursued by the Republicans was leading. The Republican extremists have made, if not the same mistake the Southern politicians did before the war, at least a mistake quite as bad. They are as determined to keep the negro question alive as their old enemies were to prevent its ever coming to the surface, the speeches made in Congress now by such men as Morton, Logan, and Conkling comparing very well for recklessness of statement and partisan fury with the old tirades of Jefferson Davis or Toombs; and the Southern States, as they throw off one by one the carpet-bag governments, go over to the Democratic party. There was a time, as the *Republican* says, when the country was divided between Whigs and Democrats, and not into North and South—when Kentucky, Maryland, Tennessee, Georgia, and Louisiana voted against the Democrats, and it is greatly to be hoped that the time may come again. But the Republicans have apparently determined that they don't want any Southern States on their side in 1876.

We have often pointed out in these columns that the general tendency of freight rates to diminish rather than to increase makes some of the complaints of the Grangers seem ridiculous. They have generally maintained that railroads, being "monopolies," and not subject to the law of demand and supply, could charge pretty much what they pleased. As a matter of fact, however, whenever we have looked into the freight returns of any road, we have been surprised to find that the reverse of this has taken place, and that instead of rates rising they have been steadily decreasing. The history of the Union Pacific for the years 1873 and 1874, recently published, is a striking illustration of this. The Union Pacific is a complete monopoly; that is, its business is free from competition to an extent equalled by few other lines in the world, as it is the only line connecting the Pacific with the Atlantic coast. In 1874, the road earned $616,322 more than in 1873; but, strange as it may seem, the average rate for carrying a ton of freight one mile was reduced from 2.40 cents in 1873 to 2.08 cents in 1874, or over 13 per cent. As the only competitor of the Union Pacific has now come under its control, it will be easy enough to see, by watching its future career, whether it can charge as much as it pleases. It ought not to be forgotten that the transportation tax, so-called, unlike those imposed by sovereign governments, is one which cannot be collected unless business is in such a state that it can be paid, and that therefore building up business by low rates is one of the first and ever-present selfish interests of even the most grasping monopolists.

Mr. Edward Atkinson has published a long review of Mr. Wendell Phillips's financial theories, as they are called, in which he conclusively shows, as has been shown many a time before, that Mr. Phillips is very scantily informed about the rudiments of either finance or political economy. Mr. Atkinson suggests to him that instead of the new kind of greenback which he and other inflationists propose, bearing the legend, "The United States—One dollar" (without any promise to pay), the Government should issue bills with the legend, "one turkey," "one horse," "one pig," or, for small change, "one newspaper"—making them, of course, convertible into 3.65 bonds. This would be an improvement on the present currency, for it would then show on its face, in a plain, straightforward way, that it was "based on the entire wealth of the country." This controversy between Mr. Atkinson and Mr. Phillips has now been going on for some time; but the latter seems still unconvinced. Indeed, we do not see why he should ever be convinced, for he believes that "our late war experience scattered half the cobweb theories that political economists had been spinning for a hundred years." We should advise Mr. Atkinson to end the controversy by refusing to furnish any more fuel to it, because he is really in danger of injuring his own reputation by allowing it to appear that he considers Mr. Phillips qualified to discuss the currency at all.

Mr. Charles Nordhoff has been sending some letters to the *Herald* about the present condition of Arkansas, which are written without any passion or excitement, and with apparent fairness. Mr. Nordhoff finds that with regard to the material condition of the State, it is as good as, if not better than, before the war; that the negroes show no indisposition to work, but generally hire the plantations of the owners in small pieces of land, the rent of which they pay in money or produce. They work better than under the slave-system, and are generally provided with churches and schools. In politics, it does not appear that they have been ostracized by the conservatives, for there are some three hundred colored office-holders of one kind and another scattered through the State, while the enrolling-clerk of the last Democratic House of Representatives was a negro, and the door-keeper of the same body was a *one-legged* negro who had been a Federal soldier (belonging to the class, that is, whom Democrats are supposed to spend their Sundays and holidays in murdering); and the Democrats even nominated a colored man to represent Little Rock in the Constitutional Convention, but his Republican friends "persuaded him," or, as we should say, intimidated him, out of the canvass. More than this, there is a State Civil-Rights Act in full operation which is so much stronger than that recently passed by Congress that Mr. Nordhoff says he was laughed at for asking whether the latter made any trouble. Such disclosures as these make us "realize" what "an age we live in," for it is only six weeks since the same State of Arkansas was on the eve of the most terrible convulsions, and it was generally believed by "leading men" that unless the writ of *habeas corpus* was suspended for at least two years the negroes were a doomed race.

On Saturday the *Tribune* took possession of the lofty new building on the site of its old one, and entered upon its thirty-fifth year. In this twofold event there is much to strike the imagination, and also much to gratify those who have no personal interest in the success of that paper. That the profits of publishing a newspaper are sometimes large enough to permit a heavy investment in building for its own purposes, has been more than once demonstrated in this country; and if there is anything peculiar in the *Tribune's* following, say, the example of the *Herald*, it is that, perhaps more than in the case of any other paper of its class, the commercial side of its business has been subordinated to its public aims. This was, no doubt, the great merit of Mr. Greeley's conduct of the paper, and it will be recognized as the logical outgrowth of his character, both as a man of hobbies, a strong partisan, and one personally above mercenary considerations. The *Tribune* has never made or sought to make money by recklessness or indifferentism in politics, and now that it has achieved an independence of party which its founder hardly dreamed of, we look to see it still preferring the rewards of discharging its duty to the public as a purveyor of news and a leader of opinion, to those which are often secured by sensational and unprincipled journalism. Its past and

present prosperity is proof that such a course is popular and profitable. Reserving itself for its thirty-fourth anniversary, the *Tribune* at last breaks silence about its daily circulation, and shows it to be in round numbers nearly or quite fifty thousand. Of the *Tribune* building it ought to be said that, if it is not handsome, it is imposing, and will be still more so when completed, and that its solid and honest construction throughout make it not only fire-proof in the best sense of that term, but an example of no slight moral value in this age of sham architecture and insurance frauds.

---

A great demonstration has come off in London in honor of "Sir Roger Tichborne," in support of a petition to Parliament for his release from jail, said to have been signed by "about 250,000 persons." An assemblage of people came together, organized under various associations, such as "Magna Charta associations" and "Tichborne relief societies," and forming such a mass as can hardly be got together even when an electoral reform movement is on foot. The procession was about a mile long, and with it were a great many brass bands and banners bearing all kinds of inscriptions, such as "Westminster will never rest till Tichborne is set free," "This is the People's reply to the Lord Chief-Justice," "Set the captive free." The procession was joined by Dr. Kenealy and Mr. Onslow, seated in a carriage drawn by four horses, with two postilions; but the people in the procession soon unharnessed the horses and drew the carriage along themselves. A speech, too, was made by Dr. Kenealy, in which he congratulated the multitude on the orderly character of their proceedings, and declared that he was quite sure that when the assemblage of "half a million" people in London on Easter-Monday, each one of them "as gentle as a child, but as earnest as a giant," was brought to the notice of Parliament, it could not but have some effect. The excitement about the case, whether real or not, does not seem to be on the wane at all, as may be inferred not merely from Dr. Kenealy's harangues, but also from a speech at a public dinner by Chief-Justice Cockburn, in which he referred to the supporters of Orton, not by name indeed, but in ferocious terms of denunciation.

---

A House of Commons Committee on Foreign Loans has been examining into one made by the Honduras Government in 1870, which shows in a most startling manner the ways and means taken by some impoverished governments to provide for their necessities, and also the method of "placing" loans of a doubtful character on the civilized market. The total amount of the loan was £2,500,000, and it was in aid of an unbuilt railway, which no one out of Honduras knew much about; and to float it the revenues of the Government, about which little was known, and that little not favorable, were hypothecated. The loan was supposed to be popular—that is, the whole amount was supposed to be placed on the market to be taken by the public at a fixed price—but an enquiry into the history of £1,000,000 of it shows that, as to this portion, only about £49,000 was really allotted to the public, the remainder being tied up in one way and another by means of all kinds of contracts. The £49,000 was sold at 80, and the remainder, at an average price of 70, produced about £665,000. Of this, financial agents absorbed £182,000, leaving £483,000 to go to the Government with which to complete the road in three years. The annual interest (at ten per cent.), with a sinking fund (at three per cent.) on say £951,000, would have been £123,000 a year. This in three years would have amounted to £369,000, with £114,000 left to build the railway, or, with the proceeds of the popular part of the loan, say £150,000. To obtain this the Government hypothecated its revenues, and undertook to pay £123,000 a year for seventeen years. And, to cap the climax, it now appears that just previous to this negotiation the Government had hypothecated its revenues already for the sum of £4,000.

---

There was no great novelty in these transactions, for in 1867 the Republic funded its part of the old Spanish-American debt by cutting down the principal, and "solemnly hypothecating all the revenues"; and by repeating this, or making equally good pledges at later dates, the debt of Honduras has mounted to the very respectable figure of over £5,000,000, with interest in arrears to the amount of £1,150,533. In Paris the Government seems to have met with some difficulties, for though they offered as usual to pledge the "general revenues of the State and the lands along the railway," the loan offered was "taken up," according to the report made to the Parliamentary committee by the Secretary of the Council of Foreign Bondholders, not by the public but by the police. The £951,000 referred to above were placed on the market by means of a secret contract with a "financial agent," he taking the money in instalments at constantly decreasing prices (thus showing an apparently general understanding of the worthlessness of the loan), and, meanwhile, he undertook to provide interest for the £49,000 in the hands of the public. Honduras credit is not good any longer, and bonds may be bought for 6 which in 1868 were worth 95.

---

In Italy the two chief events of importance of recent date have been the dedication of a monument in Venice to Daniel Manin, and the friendly meeting, in the same city, of Victor Emanuel and the Emperor of Austria. The monument to Manin is a bronze portrait-statue on a granite base, with a bronze winged lion (which is highly praised for its modelling) below. It was uncovered in the midst of an immense multitude on the 22d of March, the twenty-seventh anniversary of the Revolution of 1848. The Government was represented on this occasion by Prof. Bonghi, the Minister of Public Instruction, and M. Henri Martin was the spokesman of a French delegation. A son of the dictator was among the spectators of the honors paid to his father. A fortnight later, Francis Joseph came over from Trieste, and was cordially met by Victor Emanuel in person, and fêted for two days. A grand review formed part of his entertainment. At Rome, Garibaldi continues to be absorbed in his schemes for saving Rome from overflow and malaria, and reviving her commercial importance, and has put out a "feeler" for a loan of $20,000,000 with municipal and other non-state guarantees, for diverting the course of the Tiber and improving the port of Fiumicino. This loan is naturally looked upon with distrust, not only in itself considered, but because of the unsettled state of the whole question of the proper method of accomplishing what the general aims at.

---

The news from Spain is not encouraging. The Carlist defections, it is true, have been followed by Carlist reverses, but the war seems no nearer its end. It continues to keep a quarter of a million of men under arms, and to cost as many dollars per diem for its prosecution. New levies and new loans go hand in hand, and the annual deficit increases with the annual debt. The self-constituted Cabinet which Alfonso found on his arrival at Madrid has been vigorously enforcing reactionary measures after the good old Spanish fashion of bigotry and intolerance. They anticipated the King's arrival by publishing a decree obliging the Government to restore to the Church all its unalienated property then under state control. The civil-marriage bill has been modified, the marriages of apostate priests have been annulled, and the University professors have been forbidden to teach anything contrary to the dogmas of Holy Church. This last decree has led to many voluntary retirements, and caused much difficulty in procuring a president for the University, so that it is even reported that resignation on the part of Liberal professors is hereafter to be punished with exile. How long the ministry will be permitted to go on in this way, and how soon a clamor for the reassembling of the Cortes will make itself heard and respected, remains to be seen. Meanwhile, the industries of the country languish, the conscription goes lower and lower down, and, as the financial engagements and makeshifts of the Government are never published, it is impossible to say how near the brink of ruin and fresh revolution this wretched country stands. For the present, the priests are the masters of the situation, and beyond that nothing is certain.

## THE CONDITIONS OF RADICAL REFORM.

DURING the past four years there has been unquestionably a great unearthing of fraud and corruption, both in this State and in the country at large. A good deal of reformatory work has been done, beginning with the overthrow of the Ring in this city. The Treasury has been cleared of a band of informers and blackmailers, and the Secretary who connived at their performances has been compelled to resign. The Postmaster-General is now engaged in a laudable attempt to rid the Post-office of a band of "straw-bidders" and other impostors and cheats. Governor Tilden is just now occupied in exposing, with every prospect of success, one of the most extensive and well-arranged and most protracted frauds of which any civilized state has been the victim; and the hearty support he is receiving from men of all classes and parties is a very encouraging sign of the times. There is, too, very little doubt that the Democratic House of Representatives will next winter devote itself largely to the work of investigation, and there is just as little that its researches will be rewarded by the discovery of a great many unpleasant things. "The great party" will probably suffer, but the ends for which "the great party" exists will be thereby promoted.

But then, there is one question which we suppose every intelligent man who is watching the efforts in aid of reform is asking himself every day, and the pertinence and importance of which cannot be overrated. It is this: Supposing the city government, the State government, and the General Government, in all their departments, to be rid of their abuses to-morrow—the leaks stopped, and the peculators and the fraudulent contractors and auditors and inspectors and agents punished—shall we then have reached the end of the régime of corruption, and shall we have entered on an era of even tolerable purity and decency and economy? This question is, as we have said, highly important, because the efforts we are making to drive the knaves out of the public service are not worth making unless the result is to be in some degree permanent—unless, in short, we succeed not only in putting a stop to the corruption and particular species of fraud by a particular set of men, but bring about a state of things in which fraud will be less easy and less likely. It must be remembered that the abuses which we are now trying to deal with have been in existence and growing during the last ten years at least, and had reached monstrous proportions before they attracted much attention or roused public indignation; and that they are of such a nature that they cannot be kept down by merely spasmodic attacks on them. The honest citizen has other things to attend to besides the suppression of knavery in public life; the knave, on the other hand, has nothing to attend to except his knavery. Unless, therefore, we can create some better and more constant protection for the public funds than "popular risings," these risings will only act as palliatives, and, be it remembered, will, unless human nature should undergo some great change, speedily cease through weariness. Men, M. Thiers once happily remarked, will die for their country much more readily than they will make iron for it, and, he might have added, much more readily than they will neglect their business to pursue thieves or stand guard over the public treasury.

Now, it must be said in answer to this question that nothing which has been done, is now doing, or which is proposed in the way of reform, promises more than temporary relief. In this State, certainly, some steps have been taken towards permanent improvement, by recent legislation which provides more effectual means of pursuing persons guilty of official misconduct or embezzlement of public money; but then there is a very wide margin, both in State and Federal administration, between complete honesty and the degree of dishonesty which the law can reach even under the most favorable circumstances. Within this margin there can be absolutely no protection against malfeasance, except what comes from a complete change both in the mode of appointing officers and the mode of ensuring their good behavior. This is the only real, as it is the only radical, reform which has come before the public of late years. Its history in General Grant's hands has been so unfortunate as to make it somewhat ludicrous. Most people who speak of it now do so with a smile, and think of it mainly as furnishing a good joke against the Administration; and yet we shall have to come back to it as the only salvation that is offered us. Everything else is a makeshift. There is no use in pouring maledictions on the Canal Ring or the Indian Ring or the Post-office Ring, or any other ring, as long as the civil service is what it is. Rings are the natural products of a system which we have allowed to grow up within a comparatively recent period, the evils of which most of us see, but which we cannot get up courage or energy enough to abolish, and which is gradually undermining the Government. When any gross piece of corruption is exposed, we attack Ben Butler, or Bill King, or Casey, or Bill Tweed, or "Jarv." Lord, or work ourselves into a white heat over their iniquity, but these men are only the natural products of a state of things.

One striking result of the indifference on our part to the real source of our troubles is the failure of all our purely legal devices for the prevention of dishonesty. The civil service was broken down by Jackson for the avowed purpose of stimulating the activity of the "workers" of political parties, and this it undoubtedly does. The principle which he introduced into its management entirely disregards all the guaranties for honesty and efficiency which have their root in human nature, and of which every man avails himself in the transaction of his private affairs. The business of the world, in all fields of private activity, is conducted on the theory that you can only get faithful service by satisfying certain permanent and imperious wants of human nature, such as the desire for security, for comfort and social consideration. The Jackson revolution was accomplished, and its consequences are preserved by the politicians, on the theory that for the proper transaction of public business these wants need not be considered, and that substitutes for them can be found in an elaborate system of checking and inspection. As might have been expected, this notion has been refuted by experience. It has been proved to demonstration that a system of administration which makes no demand on a man's self-respect and love of approbation and domestic affections, and scorns personal honor and *esprit de corps*, is sure to become rotten before long, and to stay rotten until the motive-power is changed; and that the only result of an elaborate plan of checking and inspection in which character plays no part, is that the inspectors join the inspectees in the work of fraud. Wherever we look into the administrative machine, we find that combinations for public plunder are perfectly easy, and that the hindrances provided by law are apt simply to furnish the knaves with an easy exercise for their ingenuity. Anybody who will read the history of the Treasury exposure of a year ago, of the Canal exposure and Post-office exposure now pending, with this suggestion in his mind, will find plenty of illustration of it. In short, the burning question of American politics at this moment is, "Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?"

Another result of the present system, and one perhaps of greater gravity, is the habit of relying on individual men rather than on laws or public opinion for reforms and for protection against wrong-doing. No careful political observer can have failed to notice the growth of this tendency during the last few years. It has now become so marked a feature of politics that it attracts little, if any, general attention, and yet it is worthy of a great deal of attention, for it is the symptom of a subtle poison. The old gentleman who appeared in the Republican Convention in Connecticut the other day, and said that "he had come there to endorse General Grant, and wanted to know if that was what the convention was going to do, for if not he was going home," expressed in a plain, homely way the conception which an increasing number of persons have formed of their political duty. They have apparently abandoned all thought of reliance on the working of the laws under the supervision of a healthy public opinion, and confine their political activity to putting this man here or that man there into office, and then, if they have confidence in the goodness of his intentions, letting him do pretty much what he pleases. We find,

accordingly, wherever a perplexing state of things has to be dealt with, that public opinion is craving some kind of moderate Cæsar to come to our deliverance, and, if he presents himself, is prepared to honor him with truly Gallic trust and reverence, and shudders at the thought of his deposition. We are going through a curious experience of this sort in this city at this moment with regard to the Comptroller, Mr. Green, who was put into office in the midst of the Ring excitement four years ago. He is now supposed to be "standing guard over the treasury," and most good citizens have really ceased to look for any state of things in which he will not be a necessity. They give themselves no trouble about the provision of a government which can be carried on in ordinary times without special providences and by due process of law. They simply thank God for Green, and speculate as to the dreadful things that would happen if we should lose him; and the efforts of "the good men" at Albany are now mainly directed, not to the preparation of a permanent city charter, but to strengthening Green and extending his powers, while "the bad men" work just as assiduously to overthrow Green and oust him. In fact, Green enjoys, on a small scale, the rank and honors of a "saviour of society." General Grant has for some time occupied the same position in the eyes of a considerable portion of the Republican party. That he has been losing it lately is due to his own gross abuse of it. His supporters have indeed passed the last six years, not in trying to lay broad and deep over the whole Union a government of laws which shall be independent of the wisdom or folly of individual men and serve the needs of many generations, but in persuading themselves and persuading others that he was necessary to the national salvation. As a consequence of this doctrine, not only has rational, far-seeing legislation been neglected, but his errors of every kind have had, as a necessity of the case, to be justified, and even applauded, with infinite detriment to public opinion and infinite hindrance to healthy political life.

## THE STORY OF THE FREEDMAN'S BANK.

ON the 2d of March, 1865, in "the last days of the session" (so fruitful of national misfortune in this country), Mr. Sumner reported to the Senate an "Act to incorporate the Freedman's Savings and Trust Company." Mr. Sumner said in explanation that it was "an ordinary savings-bank charter," and that it contained "no extraordinary privileges." Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, who had considered it in committee, also said that the bill was "in proper form," that "the form was unobjectionable," and that the only question was whether Congress should charter a savings-bank to do business outside of the District of Columbia. Mr. Powell, of Kentucky, objected more strenuously to the bill upon this ground, and then Mr. Sumner, who characterized it as simply "a measure of philanthropy," replied: "Let it be limited to the District; let the amendment be made by inserting after the words 'body corporate' the words 'in the District of Columbia.'" Mr. Powell subsequently moved to amend the title of the bill by adding "in the District of Columbia," and then the bill passed.

On the 3d of March, 1865, the last day of the session, the bill was taken up in the House. Mr. Ganson, of New York, enquired where this savings-bank was to be located, and Mr. Eliot, of Massachusetts, who had the bill in charge, replied, "in Washington." Mr. Ganson said that it was not so stated in the bill, and Mr. Eliot thereupon moved to amend by adding after the words "body corporate" "in Washington City, in the District of Columbia." He also moved to add to the list of corporators the name of Salmon P. Chase, and both of these amendments were adopted. In the last days of the session, many things are done which were not supposed to be done, and, conversely, it would seem that some things are supposed to be done which were never in fact accomplished. The amendment of the title, which Mr. Powell moved in the Senate, and the addition of the late Chief-Justice to the list of corporators, which Mr. Eliot moved in the House, though carried with entire unanimity in each, seem never to have been acted upon by both Houses, nor to have been the subject of a conference, but in some mysterious way to have slipped out of the enrolled bill. What the Journal may show, we do not know, but the reports of the *Globe* shed no light on the missing items.

This "Act to Incorporate the Freedman's Savings and Trust Company" was, then, simply a charter to establish a savings-bank in the city of Washington. Nevertheless, there is this remarkable fact to be found at its threshold, that, while it was to be a savings-bank in the District of Columbia, none of the corporators named in the bill resided there. The list of their names would justify Mr. Sumner's assertion that the bill was simply a philanthropic measure. It contains the names of some of the most eminent citizens of New York—such names as Peter Cooper, William C. Bryant, A. A. Low, S. B. Chittenden, Charles H. Marshall, William A. Booth, Gerrit Smith, John Jay, Hiram Barney, Seth B. Hunt, etc., etc. The representation from Boston was equally creditable: John M. Forbes, William Claflin, S. G. Howe, George L. Stearns, Edward Atkinson, A. A. Lawrence, etc. The list also included citizens of Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, and these gentlemen from these five States and "their successors" were constituted a body corporate in the city of Washington.

Whether the names of any of these gentleman were inserted with their own knowledge and consent, whether they ever gave the guarantee of their good characters to the ignorant and trustful depositors who were to become the patrons of this institution, we do not know. A charter reported "in the last days of the session," and passed through both Houses in about forty-eight hours, has not much chance of being published *in extenso*, and of thereby being brought to the personal attention of everybody who may be honored by being named as an incorporator. It is not for a moment to be supposed that either Mr. Sumner or Mr. Buckalew ever lent himself to an unworthy operation connected with legislation, and they were really the chief sponsors of this measure. Yet the assertion of Mr. Buckalew that the bill was "in proper form," and that the form was "unobjectionable," hardly seems justified by what we now know of the institution. There was no personal liability on the part of the trustees provided for by the bill, and there was no provision for official reports by the trustees, and there were no means provided by which depositors in the city of Washington could reach, if need be, these foreign non-resident corporators; but it is also due to Mr. Buckalew to say that no great harm was likely to arise from the bill as it passed the Senate, for the only power given to the corporators after they had received deposits, was to invest "the same in stocks, bonds, Treasury notes, or other securities of the United States." That a savings-bank thus limited to securities which did not pay 6 per cent. could not promise its depositors a very large return for their money is apparent, though the securities, on the other hand, were excellent and always readily available.

Whether the eminent body of the corporators ever assembled at Washington we do not know. Some of them undoubtedly must have done so, if only to select their "successors." The charter provided that the persons named therein should be the first trustees of the corporation, and that all vacancies should be filled by ballot, and that at least ten votes should be necessary for the election of a trustee. Therefore, we may conclude that ten of these corporators really assembled to organize the Freedman's Savings Bank, to set the machinery in motion. But the charter also provided that the trustees should hold a regular meeting at least once in each month, and we may be allowed to doubt whether the corporators from Boston and Ohio travelled frequently to attend these meetings, and to infer that their "successors" very speedily came into the control and management of the institution.

Be this as it may, the Freedman's Bank lived, and, to a certain extent, succeeded. Its principal office was in Washington, but it established branches at thirty places in the Southern States. By what right it thus did business beyond the District of Columbia we do not know. Certainly the charter did not confer such a power, and certainly it never contemplated the transaction of business without power. Congress had not assumed to confer such authority

which might conflict with the statutory precautions of the several States, and we see no reason why South Carolina could not treat one of these branches like a foreign corporation coming within its borders. If, for instance, Congress should charter another savings-bank, and that institution, composed of foreign corporators and directors, should again walk into New York and attempt to fleece our poorer and more ignorant classes, we suppose no one would question the right of the State to interfere and exercise at least a scrutiny to the end that it might protect its own citizens. But in the prostrate South there was in fact no one to take any such measures of precaution; and this body corporate, appearing and soliciting deposits under a charter from Congress, really seemed to the fallen and to the ignorant classes there as if it were the embodied power of the National Government, and that calling it to account would be regarded at Washington as the inception of another rebellion.

But when the business of establishing branches and receiving deposits had gone on for five years, and a large amount of money had passed under the control of the "successors," the original charter was found too narrow for the successful investment of the deposits, and humanity required that the unfortunate freedmen should receive a higher rate of interest. In April, 1870, a short amendment to the charter was reported to the House by Mr. Cook of Illinois. It merely provided that the trustees might invest in mortgage securities, and might hold and improve the real estate owned by the bank in the city of Washington. The amendment passed the House without objection, without debate, and, it may be inferred, without consideration. In the Senate a single speech was made upon the subject, which we transcribe in full, both because it embraces in itself the entire debate upon the subject and because it has proved to be a remarkable prophecy of the fate of the Freedman's Bank:

"This amendment of the charter of this company I objected to some time ago. I think it will in the end probably destroy the institution. But the people concerned in this amendment, and those most interested, the colored people, have written to me remonstrating against my course, and if they want to be cheated I do not know that it is worth while for me to make much trouble about it. It is a principle which ought not to go into any banking institution at all. It is endangering the depositors of the funds, the small depositors especially. They are in the hands of persons entirely irresponsible, except the responsibility given by their character. They will be led probably into speculations, and if this money is once invested in real estate it will be very difficult to get it back. My experience has been that whenever institutions of this kind have invested their money in real estate they have gone to destruction."

It would probably puzzle our readers to tell from what Senator this single note of warning fell, and to save them the trouble we will add that it was about the last one that would be guessed—Mr. Simon Cameron. When the Amendatory Act finally came up no one said anything, and it passed. The "successors" were then practically, though not nominally, the same set of men who were getting all kinds of legislation for the District of Columbia, and very little was said in Congress against anything which they wanted.

The remainder of the story is very soon told. In 1873 a National-Bank examiner, under instructions from the Comptroller of the Currency, examined the books of the Freedman's Bank and reported its affairs to be unsatisfactory, and pointed out a number of irregularities which might well have been characterized first as last as so many robberies. In 1874 another examination was held, and the concern was pronounced insolvent. A feeble attempt at reorganization was made, and then the bank collapsed. In four years after the Amendatory Act passed, a beneficent and useful institution, which might have pursued a well-beaten business path, was ruined; its assets, intended to be the safest known to a business community, practically worthless; and several millions of money taken from the savings of the poor hopelessly squandered. And in little less than a year from the time that the insolvency of the bank became known—such was the involved and atrocious condition of its affairs—none of its wronged and needy depositors has received a cent. Finally, no one responsible for the iniquity has been hung by the mob nor prosecuted by the officers of the Government. The leniency of the former occasions some astonishment; the inaction of the latter awakens no surprise. The President's district-attorneys in Washington would no more think of indicting the trustees who lent freedmen's money to members of the ring on Seneca Stone stock, than they would think of indicting Governor Shepherd or the President, or of indicting themselves.

In looking over the schedule of the assets of the bank, one cannot but be struck with the very audacity of the lawlessness which characterized the management. Instead of United States securities and "first-class" real-estate mortgages we find chattel mortgages on furniture (and in one case a loan of $50,000 on such a mortgage), chattel mortgages on paintings, on jewellery, on groceries, etc. etc. Seneca Stone Co. stock takes the place of land in an item of $75,000. One young gentleman, a protégé of the late Cashier Huntingdon, obtained several thousand dollars on the stock of a Metropolitan Paving Company, an American Seal-Lock Company, and the Capital Publishing Company. The real-estate loans are, in part, on country property, on plantations, on lands in the South which cannot find a purchaser and had no "cash value," and on a "forest tract." Of the "bonds, Treasury notes, and other securities of the United States," supposed to be the chief basis of investment, we find only four hundred dollars. Any description of "wild-cat" collateral seems to have been satisfactory security for the unfortunate freedmen's savings.

If it had been in the power of the Government to pay these poor wronged creatures, on the morning after the Freedman's Bank failed, it would have been national economy so to do—not because of the private injustice and individual suffering which the failure caused, but because of the widespread demoralization which went with it, and the blighting of so much good seed which had been providently sown. It was not the case of one of a dozen saving-banks failing in a great city, occasioning loss to a small fraction of the community, but of a single institution which had spread itself over a vast region of country, and acquired the solitary confidence of an entire race. The evil, however, is done and cannot be undone now; and it consisted not in the loss of money, but in the destruction of confidence. At the close of the war we had on our hands a new acquisition of several millions of people, poor, ignorant, and inexperienced, who desired to rise, and who gratefully looked up to the Government in absolute trust for protection and guidance. We told them that they must study and work and save as white men do; that "if a man saves ten cents a day for ten years, and keeps it at six per cent. interest in the Freedman's Bank, he will have $489 31," and that this "benevolent institution is under the charter of Congress, and received," so said the bank-books, "the commendation and countenance of President Lincoln." After allowing this to go on several years we leave them with the practical conclusion in their minds—the women, that it will be the part of wisdom hereafter to keep their savings without interest in an old stocking; the men, that it will be philosophical to take their savings and get drunk on them.

It seems to have been the fate of the Republican party since the end of the war to legislate nothing for the South but trouble and misfortune; to set up State governments and hand them over to outlaws and robbers; to create a "benevolent institution" and turn it into an instrumentality for transferring black men's money into white men's pockets. Yet, nevertheless, such is the dangerous simplicity of ignorant, unintelligent voters, that it is now possible that this very class of cheated and neglected depositors will vote solidly, in the next Republican convention, to break down the barrier of common consent which has restrained all parties for the last seventy years, and force the issue of a third term upon the country.

## THE FUTURE SENATE IN FRANCE.

PARIS, March 26, 1875.

WE have been led out of a provisional Republic into a provisionally Conservative Republic. It would be idle to say that a permanent government has been formed, but the constitutional work is ended, and I

should like to-day to analyze its features, which in some respects are very original. First of all, it must be borne in mind that the Constitution, as it is, is subject to a continual revision, and this revision is not subject, as it is in America, to conditions which are difficult to realize. A mere majority of one in the Lower House, and a majority of one in the Upper House, can provoke the revision of the whole Constitution ; and it was said with much emphasis at the tribune by the framers and reporters of the new laws that this revision had no limits—that it did not mean simply revision in a more republican sense, that it included a change in the form of government, and did not exclude a return to a monarchical form of government. The elasticity of the revision clause and the facility of the revision, which is made simply dependent on a parliamentary majority of one day, give to the new Constitution one of its peculiar characteristics. Hitherto, all our framers of constitutions have worked for eternity ; they have all exclaimed, "Exegi monumentum ære perennius." Our new Sieyès have been more modest, partly because without this revision clause they never could have obtained the votes of the wavering Monarchists of the Chamber, and also because they have less intrinsic faith in the virtue of words and parchments.

But to me the most original feature of the Constitution appears to be the Senate. The creation and nomination of an Upper House have always been one of the great difficulties of parliamentary government. It is fortunate for England that its House of Lords represents something which speaks very vividly to the imagination of the people ; it is the senate of a great landed aristocracy, and is full of names, each of which is connected with the greatness and glory of Great Britain. In America the Senate represents the independent existence of the States—it is a Congress of ambassadors ; and I remember when, in Washington, I was looking over a little book on the etiquette of your political capital, how much I was struck by the care the original framers of these rules of etiquette took to establish, as it were, the diplomatic dignity of the Senators. All our attempts to form an independent and active Senate in France have been failures. There was much dignity in our Senates—they were Houses of what we call *illustrations ;* but as these *illustrations* were the nominees of the sovereign, under Napoleon III., as well as under Louis Philippe, they had no political independence. There was no young blood in them ; it is difficult to become an "*illustration*" before old age arrives, with its accompaniment of fatigue, of disillusions, and of gout. An old admiral is not worth much on the benches of a senate, though he may still hold his place on the quarter-deck. Old generals are notoriously given to sleep or to diffuse and profuse eloquence. Sainte-Beuve never felt quite at home in the Imperial Senate. On the famous day which marked the downfall of the Second Empire, the Senate met as usual in its quiet palace of the Luxembourg. The Senators were very grandiloquent, and prepared to die on their curule-chairs, like the old Senators of Rome when the Gauls entered the city. The Gauls never came ; the Senate was as well forgotten by the Revolution as if it had never existed. On the 5th September the Senate was no more, and the Senators were still alive.

The Lower House represents in principle the population, the number, the living passions of the time. What will our Senate represent ? It was thought at first that a good plan would be to represent the departments, and to give two Senators to each, which would have made in all about 190 Senators. The Department is an artificial creation of the Revolution, it is not founded upon old traditions, old charters ; it does not take into account the geological character of the natural regions of France ; it has not a feudal and material origin, like the old *province.* Nevertheless, it has now existed for nearly eighty years and it has assumed some reality. What has more than anything contributed to give vitality to the department is the financial question. You cannot deny the existence of a man who has debts, and our departments are plunging into debt as much as the State will allow them, in order to make railroads and improvements of all sorts. The budget of a department has become something rather respectable, and the Councils-General are allowed to discuss this budget yearly. Why not, therefore, represent in the Senate those divisions of France which have assumed life and reality ? It would give importance to the great landowners, as they are the class which fills the Councils-General. This mode of representation was the one which I preferred, and which I have always advocated. I doubt whether it would have excluded many of our "*illustrations,*" as most of them are members of the Councils-General in their departments. The plan which has been adopted does not exclude the Councils-General from the nomination of the Senators, only they will find themselves completely swamped by the great number of Senatorial electors. And who are those electors to be ? Each *commune* (township or village) will name a delegate, and these delegates will meet with the Councillors-General and the Councillors of each arrondissement (the arrondissement is a subdivision of the department) to name the Senators of the department by secret ballot. The number of the councillors of arrondissement is just the same as the number of the Councillors-General, as each canton names one councillor of each sort (the canton is a subdivision of the arrondissement). The number of electors who will vote in virtue of this title of councillors will be to the number of the communal delegates as one to thirty, forty, or fifty, according to the distribution of the population in the villages.

There is much obscurity as to the character of the future communal delegates. The work of centralization has been such in France, and the pressure of the Administration on the communal districts is so powerful, that in all the rural and conservative districts the communal delegates will in all probability be the indirect nominees of the prefects. These functionaries will practically have the nomination of the Senators in their hands. It will be quite the reverse in the manufacturing districts. The revolutionary spirit will there be felt in the election of the communal delegates as well as in all elections. But the feature on which I must insist is this : thus far all governments, whether republican or monarchical, have made it their special object to exclude politics from the quiet field of administration. Even the Councils-General, though they resemble somewhat a small parliament, are only allowed to discuss questions of finance and administration ; they can pass resolutions on matters connected with political economy, and yet they cannot express a political wish. The prefect, who is always present during the discussions, uses his power of veto as soon as a member transgresses these rules. The boundaries of discussions are even more narrow in the municipal Councils ; even in Paris the municipal Council, though it is almost entirely composed of very advanced republicans, is obliged to limit its sphere of action to administrative questions. The new Senate law is a movement in an opposite direction : it goes against the oldest and most inveterate traditions of the French policy, and it converts the 36,000 municipal Councils into small political arenas, for these Councils will now have a right to take a part in the nomination of the legislators. It is quite clear also that in consequence of this law the elections for the municipal and general Councils will become political elections, which they have never been, except by accident and in the largest towns in France. The electors will make their choice in view of the nomination of the Senatorial delegates and of the Senators ; each councillor will be named with the understanding that he will vote for such or such a Senator.

The consequences of this revolution—the word is perhaps not too strong—will, of course, only be felt in time. Whether they will be good or bad, it is difficult to say. One thing must strike the student of French history since the Revolution : it is the comparative quietness, the constant prosperity of the country under the most opposite, and sometimes the most adverse circumstances. Much may be said against centralization and its effects on the character of the nation; it can hardly be denied that there are few countries where the machine of administration runs more smoothly, where there are fewer abuses, where the citizens are better protected in their interests and in their rights. Paris may be turbulent, its palaces may be burning, the mob may rule in the Tuileries—the machinery of government goes on in the provinces. The prefects are the agents of tradition, of routine if you like ; but this routine is such that no small municipal corporations can oppress or overtax a population, can squander the communal property, can make dangerous leases. The Councils of the departments and of the cities are as quiet as the law-courts. The instinctive desire of most Frenchmen is not to meddle with politics ; to lead under the protection of good laws a genial and laborious life. They are very jealous of equality, but life does not appear to them as a perpetual struggle between conflicting parties. The Senate law will therefore introduce a new disturbing element in the smallest villages ; it will be so at least if the law is at work for a number of years, and if the Senate becomes as active a body as the Lower House. But then comes the question : Will this new Senate named in this fashion really have more vitality than the other Senates we have known ? What will it represent ?—for real strength must be a transmission of motive power. I confess that I cannot answer this question. I seek in vain a meaning in a representation of the 36,000 communes of France, great and small. Why is the representative of a State in America an important personage ? Because a State is an important force in itself. What force is there in the typical Commune, a church, a school, a burial-ground, a few houses, a collection of poor laborers, working from sunrise to sunset? To represent Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, Marseilles, means something ; to represent a village means nothing if you do not take the atomic view of society which was taken by the revolutionary *Commune.* The Communist's ideal was to make every Commune sovereign, to destroy all hierarchy in society ; they adopted in politics the Congregationalist principle—at least if there was any meaning in their theories. Take a

number of people collected by chance round a few trees or inside some walls, and say to them : "You are a nation, a state, a community. Frame your own laws ; be your own army and defend your independence. Let no voice come from the outside and dictate orders "—this is the *Commune ;* but this molecular view of society hardly deserves to find encouragement ; and I am afraid that our Communal Senate is an unconscious sacrifice to it.

"Quos vult perdere, Jupiter dementat." There is not much political wisdom in our poor, tired Assembly. A man sprang out of the great abyss of things unknown ; he had written long and tedious books on history, and had not much understood history. He said to the distressed Chamber, "I have a plan," just as Trochu told the Parisians during the siege that he had a plan. And the Chamber adopted the Wallon plan before it fairly understood it. The psychological moment had come ; there was but one word in everybody's mouth : Something must be done. Well ! something has been done. Time will show how the new Communal electoral body will work and understand the interests of the country. There is a general belief that the new Senate must be conservative, and that it will be a useful check on the Lower Chamber. But I have talked with several prefects on the question, and I have not yet found one who could tell me with any degree of probability how the Communal electors will combine their action and how they will vote.

## SWISS AND AMERICAN POLITICS—A PARALLEL.

GENEVA, March 1.

I FIND the very reasonable feeling prevailing among thoughtful and studious Swiss politicians that there is no department of foreign history so important to them as the political history of the United States. If a like interest prevails in America in the study of Swiss political history, there is henceforth no difficulty in satisfying it. The long course by which the Swiss Republic has progressed (do we say *progressed* in the *Nation ?*) "from feudal to federal," and one or two steps beyond federal, is fully described in the work of M. Antoine Morin, of Geneva,* which is just completed down to the adoption of the Constitution of 1874. The venerable author is well known in his own country as a political writer, and especially as one of the earliest proposers and advocates of proportional representation. But in this work he restricts himself with great simplicity to the office of annalist and compiler. The result is a straight, plain story, attractive to any one interested in the subject, and, with its great array of *pièces justificatives,* very convenient for reference.

It is impossible to read this story without being struck again and again with the closeness of the parallel between Swiss and American political history. The scale of time is greater in the Swiss story, and the dimensions of space are greater in the American. Of course, these are not the most important differences, but really they are the most obvious. In both cases the confederation of the several republics was generated by the exigencies of common defence against foreign force. And in both cases, by a singular paradox, the confederation which originated in common interests has been consolidated and centralized in consequence of mutual alienation and civil war. In fact, it was not until after the war of the Sonderbund—so curiously similar, in some of its features, to our war of Secession—that Switzerland passed from the condition of a federation of States into that of a federal State. There can hardly be a more mortifying contrast for an American student than that between the war and reconstruction policy carried through to success in 1847, by the grand old Genevese soldier, General Dufour, and our recent and present miseries. But in both cases a great and increasing momentum towards centralization seems to have been the manifest and necessary consequence even of a civil war carried on in the most fraternal spirit.

Here, as well as at home, the decline of "the brave days of old" is dated, by men of this generation, from about the peace of 1815. The reminiscences of elderly people looking back to the fine old silver-gray party that used to elect and re-elect its candidates unquestioned, and their complaints of the Catholic vote and of too much universal suffrage, remind one irresistibly of old Connecticut. And that curious phenomenon, observable in all latitudes and longitudes, under the most diverse circumstances—the attraction of cohesion between the Roman Catholic clergy and the representatives of red radicalism—has had quite as interesting a part to play here as in America. It has given the control of politics, now these many years, into the hands of the "radical-liberal" party ; and when, two or three years ago, the coalition dissolved in a quarrel, and the confederate factions attempted to pull asunder, it was found that political ties were stronger than ecclesiastical ; for the Catholic party, in coming off, left more than half its voting force behind it in the radical ranks.

Of course the progress of these changes has given happy opportunity for the development of the "statesman." Geneva has had her Tweed and Wood combined in the person of James Fazy, tribune of the people, and hero of some bloody barricades and street-fights nearly thirty years ago. It must be confessed that the Geneva "statesman" (he still survives—*vivit ! etiam in Senatum venit !*—and is pointed out to strangers from the gallery of the *Grand Conseil*) is of a less gross and vulgar type than our own indigenous Tweeds. He is a doctrinaire, and addicted to political economy ; and while friendly to a large scale of public expenditure, involving the dispensing of contracts to men of the right style of patriotism, he has a hearty and intelligent interest in advancing the system of public education. In fact, it is curious to see how large a function in the art of politics is fulfilled in this little republic by the public-school system, which is in many respects so admirable. It has been discovered that the corps of public schoolmasters and the reigning political party are able to exchange very valuable reciprocal services. The number of teachers and professors in high political positions is such as to make the Opposition denounce the existing *régime* as a tyranny of schoolmasters. Perhaps it is better that this relation to the art of government should be occupied by the public-school system than, for instance, by the retail whiskey trade—and perhaps not ; it is a delicate question.

Americans will do well to ponder the fact that in this confederation, in which the principle of States' Rights has been asserted and maintained for centuries with the utmost jealousy, the advanced party of constitutional revisionists are now openly contending for the complete consolidation of the States under one central government. It is the natural result of too much States' Rights. In the long run a small amount of practical inconvenience and constantly recurring annoyance will tire out the liveliest of historic feelings and the staunchest of theoretical arguments out of De Tocqueville. It has been the pestering variations of commercial law, the ecclesiastico-legal hindrances to marriage and burial, the restrictions on the liberty of worship, the limitations on the right of citizens of one canton to settle in another, that have pushed the Swiss people so far along in the way towards consolidation—a way in which they have certainly not yet come to a full halt.

The religious question is now assuming its most trying and painful phase—for it has touched upon the tenure of real estate. Those who prognosticate a conflict with the Roman Catholic Church in America may save themselves any anxiety as to the emergence of any such real-estate difficulty there. For (as the author of the articles on "Our Established Church" showed ten years ago in *Putnam's Magazine*) all possibility of division within the Church, or between the Church and the state, as to the control of the magnificent estates of the Church-property, is prevented by making these the private property of the person acting for the time being as bishop, and by making him absolutely dependent on the Pope—*amovibilis ad nutum.* The local governments of Geneva and Berne, in their gifts for the benefit of Catholic church-edifices, have shown a less generous confidence than we in America, and provided that the churches built on their land, or with the help of their money, should be con rolled, not by the hierarchy, but by the Catholic citizens. In both these cities the Catholics have elected liberal boards of trustees for the two splendid churches lately built ; and these trustees say that, at hours when the buildings are not needed by the present occupants, they may be used by the Old Catholic clergy and people. This is spoliation and desecration. Accordingly, Curé Perroulaz, at Berne, declares to the Government that it is impossible to celebrate the holy mysteries in a building desecrated by schismatic priests ; and, with beautiful consistency, says his Mass henceforth in a public ball and concert room, while waiting for permission to share with his Calvinist fellow-citizens in the accommodations of a Protestant meeting-house. This is a mild type of martyrdom. But it will be made the most of. Before this letter reaches you a moan of lamentation will have come to you by telegraph over the spoliation of the Geneva Catholics and the desecration of Notre Dame. The new trustees have invited the Ultramontane clergy to continue in charge of the church, only allowing the Old Catholics to use it, when needed, for baptisms, marriages, and funerals—an invitation which will undoubtedly be declined, if it is so fortunate as to get any answer at all.

It is impossible for a calm outsider to work himself up to anything like an anguish of sympathy in this case. Even the Conservatives, whose constant duty it is to object to all the proceedings of the Administration, shake their silver-gray locks with mitigated reprobation, remembering the time

* 'Précis de l'Histoire politique de la Suisse depuis l'Origine de la Confédération jusqu' à nos jours. Par Antoine Morin.' 5 vols. 12mo. Paris : Sandoz & Fischbacher.

when the Radical party was first built up by the Catholic vote, and remark that it was the Ultramontanes themselves who cut and trimmed the switches with which they are now getting so soundly flogged.

# Correspondence.

## AN INFRINGEMENT OF COPYRIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your journal of the 8th inst. is a notice of the 'Globe Dictionary' issued by William Collins & Sons, London and Glasgow, Estes & Lauriat, Boston, American publishers. Please do us the justice to state that this volume is a direct violation of American copyright law, being taken bodily from Webster's 'National Pictorial Dictionary,' prepared for us by the late William A. Wheeler six or eight years since, and at our demand its sale on this side has been instantly suppressed.

G. & C. Merriam,
Publishers 'Webster's Dictionary.'

Springfield, Mass., April 12, 1875.

## HOW PICTURES SHOULD BE FRAMED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The means of communication between the two continents are swift and varied, but they are as yet inadequate to an interchange of thought on less than vital questions. I have just read an art criticism in the *Nation* of the 4th of February, and my apparently tardy answer may seem to your readers singularly inappropriate. Permit me, for the sake of intelligibility and for the benefit of those who may not have seen the article in question, to make the following extract:

"We have never understood why the coast-scene of Hoguet, say, or Kuwasseg, when executed in oil, must be thrown back in a very deep frame, with the look, if it is small, of being seen at the end of a sort of golden tunnel; while the same scene, if we suppose it copied in water-color with exactly the like chiaroscuro and value, must be thrown up to an entirely different focus, surrounded with the flattest of slats, and blind-haltered with a blazing space of raw white all around it, somewhat suggesting in the whole arrangement the iris of a near-sighted eye."

Artists are not so arbitrary as the critic fancies in the framing of their pictures. Everything has its reason, as has likewise the gold relief, or the flat passe-partout. Our critic in somewhat violent and unintelligible terms asks us why we must frame our water-colors on white grounds. I will try to enlighten him. The first object of a frame is to separate the picture from surrounding objects; the second is to enhance the drawing and color; the third is ornamental. Now, a white passe-partout will separate a water-color from surrounding objects as well if not better than anything else, and the critic himself in another part of his article confesses that it is very ornamental. The question of its effect upon drawing has not been broached, so that it only remains for me to discuss its effect upon color.

Color must be considered with reference to both its value and intensity. By value I mean its relative lightness or darkness; by intensity, its relative purity. As the great charm of an aquarelle resides in its transparency, which is only acquired by a thin wash or washes, in order to avoid an appearance of weakness, our chief aim in the selection of a frame must be to give it strength, or, in other words, to raise its value. What will most strengthen it? White, of course. Now, as to intensity. Should any one color predominate, or should the picture be of a decided tone, it might be advantageous to tint the frame with the complementary of that tone or color whose intensity would thereby be augmented; but in so doing we must always bear in mind that the lighter the tint, the less its intensity-raising power, and the darker the tint, the less its value-raising power. It is a well-established fact that white, in a high degree, almost as much as a complementary, is favorable to a color, and white alone is favorable to all colors; as Chevreul truly says, it has a remarkable influence "in raising the tone (*i.e.*, value) and augmenting the intensity of the color adjacent to it." The respective merits of the white and the tinted frames may be briefly summed up as follows:

*All* white frames raise in the highest degree the value of *all* enclosed colors, and in a high degree their intensity, though less than a tinted frame under certain conditions.

*Some* lightly tinted frames raise in a higher degree than white the intensity of *some* enclosed colors, and in a less degree their value.

*Some* strongly tinted frames, though they may raise in the highest degree the intensity of *some* enclosed colors, are so prejudicial to their values that they cannot be taken into account.

For this reason, too, gold frames without an intervening light border are prejudicial to aquarelles. Any one who has ever seen an exhibition of water-colors where want of space has vetoed the interior margin instead of limiting the number of pictures, cannot fail to have noticed the disastrous effect of such a short-sighted policy. Assuming for an instant, what I shall shortly endeavor to establish, that the flat passe-partout is the most advantageous to water-colors, the limited range of colored cardboard would in the majority of cases prove a serious obstacle to the selection of the complementary required.

Oil pictures do not look well in white frames. Strength being one of their characteristics, they need no violent contrasts to render them more vigorous. Such, too, is the nature of the materials and the mode of applying them that the brilliancy of the white causes the contiguous colors to appear dirty—an appearance which can be counteracted to the greatest possible extent by surrounding them with black. As a general rule, however, gold frames are the most favorable. The reflecting power of their metallic surfaces creates a subtle harmony betwixt them and the picture.

The critic says that he does not understand why the coast-scene of Hoguet, when executed in oil, must be thrown back in a very deep frame, while the same, if we suppose it copied in water-color with exactly the like chiaroscuro and value, must be surrounded with a flat, white passe-partout. I will preface my answer by saying that there is a class of paintings called decorative paintings, and for these, when executed in flat tints, a flat frame is most appropriate. For economy's sake, likewise, or for modesty's sake, artists sometimes select the low frame for their sketches. With these exceptions, the deep frame is almost invariably preferred, and not without reason. We have just seen that the reflective power of gold is a wonderful harmonizer. Now, the deeper the frame, the more broken it is by ornament, which increases the number of reflections, and, if in good taste, certainly adds to its decorative effect. In such a frame, therefore, the coast-scene of Hoguet would show to advantage when executed in oil. If, together with the oil, the water-color were copied directly from *nature*, it would *not* be exactly like the oil, were it a good water-color. To say that a water-color resembles an oil is to pay it a sorry compliment. If, together with the oil, the water-color were copied from *the same picture*, they might be almost exactly alike, and in that case might be placed in the same deep frame, with this prejudice to the water-color: that the final varnish of the oil would always make the latter appear the stronger of the two, even should the former be varnished with gum-arabic or other medium—a most dubious process. Moreover, the deep, broken frame would be in better keeping with the comparatively rugged surface of the oil, unobtainable in the aquarelle, save by the use of body-color, the last resource of the artist.

Finally, why not a water-color in a deep, white, or lightly-tinted frame? First, because they would be ugly. Secondly, because the shadows and reflections necessarily cast would cancel the chief merits of either. The white, no more a white, would be a gray; the tint would cease to be a complementary.

I am well aware that I have laid down but a few general principles which often conflict with each other. In the choice of a frame, we must, of course, consult that quality of a picture to which we wish to give prominence—the object of the picture and its destination. It is an impossible feat to condense the laws of the contrasts of color into the columns of a journal.

F. Crowninshield.

Rome, Italy, February 26, 1875.

[Our article took up the subject where our correspondent leaves it—at "the object of a picture and its destination." After expressing submission, if needs must be, to the uniformity in framing demanded by the exhibitions, we proceeded to comment on the uninventive way of surrounding a picture seen in most people's parlors. Our correspondent, whose remarks strike us as having the interest of a man's talk about his own profession, seems to us to show the artistic limitation in more than one respect. 1. His vision of a picture is not carried beyond the studio; and his mind stops at the state of trimming and relief that may suit it there. 2. He seems to view exhibitions in an awe-struck way, not only as fatal powers that either "veto margins" (and of right ought to veto them) or else dictate margins, and uniform ones, but as authorities having a forward-reaching influence, taking away from these decorations the

principle of improvement. There is nothing to show that his mind has confronted the possibility of such change. 3. His contemplation of water-color art is a contracted one, apparently considering but one school, and that the feeblest in technic; for him an oil-picture, with its varnish, "always appears stronger than a water-color," and is a work of "ruggeder surface." But as an artist, he can hardly help knowing that in a large oil-painting the saliency of its roughness is infinitely less in proportion to area than in a cartoon; that whole classes of oil-paintings are literally smooth, and that they are not framed in deep relief on that account at all; and that his talk is therefore misleading in the extreme.

To harmonize the matter, the public might profitably learn to look at the pictures of the exhibitions as the books "in stitched editions" of a European book-store are looked at. Their uniformity may furnish the shop well, but they are to be taken home and bound according to the style of the library. We cannot see the question of framing properly until the picture has been pursued away from the studio-light in which it has satisfied the artist, to a certain destination among certain surroundings. Aquarelles, seldom being gallery-pictures, are the natural illustration for this question of art-millinery. Once hung, the necessity for good taste is manifest; the passe-partout selected from "the limited range of colored pasteboard," while it may have enhanced the colors in the studio, may go to stultify them or itself when contrasted with a given panel; again, the depth, boldness, and pattern of frames should be entirely different, according as the pictures are in a heavily moulded Gothic library or in a white-and-gold Louis XVI. saloon. Our correspondent possibly has not observed the fine effects which have been struck out by some of the surest heads in the profession, through simply studying the choice of frames, by adopting what he, echoing an expression of our own, calls complementary frames. A late picture by Fortuny in oil (in Mr. Gibson's collection) was put by the artist in a broad, black, perfectly flat frame. Many a coast-scene of high tone, though in oil, looks best framed in bas-relief, as the most eminent artists have discovered. But the converse, that aquarelles may look better in deep frames, is also admitted by men whose authority makes contradiction difficult. If Fortuny was the unimpeachable master of technic in water-color, we suppose Villegas may be admitted to be prominent among those who divide his empire; and he with his compeers, as well as a slightly inferior class of vigorous artists, of whom Vibert is a specimen, show their works frequently in the deep gold recesses of alto-relief frames, without spandrels, where they succeed in holding their own, though deprived of a "varnish of gum-arabic." But it is arbitrariness, not the frequent use of paper mats, that we object to. Detaille's broad sketches in gouache are found to bear a deep frame as well as oil-pictures by Meissonier; the pretty cartoon, with a frieze-arrangement of figures along a cottage wall, by E. K. Johnson, was lately seen in an exhibition, looking very well in a mere cleat; not that this picture, interesting rather intellectually than as an example of method, would not have looked all the better in a frame properly studied for its wants. We repeat, however, that the enemy our strictures have excited is arbitrary dictation—by no means the paper spandrel or mat in its place. This matter of uniformity attains now the fixed-habit stage, to a degree that will make it, like all devices of the fixed-habit class, inevitably go down; and philosophers of the future will presently be arguing its barbarism and the inherent permanence of their own contemporary inventions. As a good lesson for American readers, we may point out the great "Niagara" by Church; it happens to have been chromo-lithographed, in a style by no means vulgar; and it is curious to see the constancy with which the broad, white margin attends it in parlors of a certain class, while the original naturally is framed without a margin. And, for a last word, we may yield the floor to Charles Blanc, that especially prudent and conservative critic, whose protest against the fashionable mode of framing will be found in another column. Though directed especially to the case of etchings and prints, it applies also to aquarelles so far as they come under the question of values.—Ed. Nation.]

# Notes.

THE allied firms of Scribner, Armstrong & Co., Scribner, Welford & Armstrong, and Scribner & Co., obeying the up-town tendency of the book-trade, have removed to quarters specially adapted to their needs at Nos. 743 and 745 Broadway, fronting Astor Place, where they find themselves in line with Hurd & Houghton, John Wiley & Son, Macmillan & Co., D. G. Francis, etc., etc. The new store is remarkable for its size and handsome appointments—a peculiar feature being a gallery, by means of which, as in a library, books are made accessible from floor to ceiling to those who wish to examine them.——D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Memoirs of Gen. W. T. Sherman,' in two volumes; and the following scientific works: 'Nature and Life,' by Ferdinand Papillon; 'Outline of the Evolution Philosophy,' from the French of Dr. E. Cazelle, by Rev. O. B. Frothingham; and 'Biology for Boys and Girls,' by Mrs. Sarah H. Stevenson.——Harper & Bros. have in press a work on Mexico by Bishop Haven—'Our Next-Door Neighbor'; 'Nooks and Corners of the New England Coast,' by Samuel Adams Drake; 'Mohammed and Mohammedanism,' by R. Bosworth Smith.——Henry Holt & Co. will publish 'Autobiography and Musical Grotesques,' by H. Berlioz; 'Art Life and Theories,' by Richard Wagner; Taine's 'Notes on Paris'; and Campbell's Austin's 'Jurisprudence.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons are to publish a series on the descriptive anatomy of typical animals, beginning with the 'Anatomy of the Domestic Cat,' by Henry S. Williams. The same firm have taken charge of the publications of the books and sermons of the Rev. O. B. Frothingham.——A 'History of Palestine and the Holy Land,' by John Tillotson; and 'Natural History of South and Southeast Africa,' from the journals of the Hon. W. H. Drummond, are illustrated works announced by R. H. Worthington & Co.——A book of poems by Paul H. Hayne, 'The Mountain of the Lovers,' will be published by E. J. Hale & Son.——F. B. Patterson announces 'Steamship Notes,' by "Norval."——J. R. Osgood & Co.'s list of forthcoming works includes the second volume of Lewes's 'Problems of Life and Mind'; Greg's 'Rocks Ahead'; 'Sex in Industry,' by Dr. Azel Ames, jr.; 'Birds in Season,' by Wilson Flagg; 'Whip and Spur,' by Col. George E. Waring, jr.; 'Illustrated Homes,' by E. C. Gardner; and two tolerably expensive works illustrated by heliotypes—'Narrative of Le Moyne,' a French artist, who accompanied Laudonnière's expedition to Florida in 1564; and J. K. Colling's 'Examples of English Mediæval Foliage and Colored Decoration.'——Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, announce 'Journey in Honduras, and Jottings by the Way,' by R. G. Huston, C.E.——'Norse Mythology, or the Religion of Our Forefathers,' by Professor R. B. Anderson, of the University of Wisconsin, will be published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.——The old controversy between Lexington and Concord, as to the part taken by each in the battle of April 19, 1775, both in shedding British blood and in having blood shed, has led to the reprint of Lexington's account of the affair, intended to silence all detractors, which was prepared by Elias Phinney, and published at the expense of the town in 1825. The pamphlet is obtainable of Noyes, Holmes & Co., Boston. There will be rival celebrations of the centenary next week.——The 'Harvard Triennial' this year is to be the last of the series. The catalogue will hereafter be issued once in five years. We learn from the Boston papers that Professor Lane, of Harvard, spoke before the Massachusetts Association of Classical and High School Teachers, on the rise, history, and prospects of the new Latin pronunciation, in Boston on Friday last. A count being afterwards taken, to see what proportion of the teachers present had adopted the reformed pronunciation, it was found that more than one-third used the new pronunciation, while the rest adhered to the old. This looks like a decided gain in favor of the new pronunciation.

—The *Portfolio* (whose American publisher is Mr. Bouton) contains among the criticisms in its April number a singular suggestion as to the Platonism of Michael Angelo. In the "Creation of Adam," where the Deity evokes the form of man out of the clay of the hill-side, a group of genii is represented as supporting the divine personage. Among these attendants one is shown rising in a singular manner from under the left arm of God, in such a position as separates the figure at once from the accompanying cherubim. An examination of Braun's large photograph shows that this figure is feminine in character; and the writer, Mr. Scott, is convinced that it is a representation of Eve, existing unborn in the personality of God. An inspection of the fresco itself left the same impression, which was confirmed by the facial expression and developed bosom seen in a contemporary woodcut preserved in the British Museum. The Eve, if

Eve it be, looks intently toward Adam as he rises at the contact of the creative finger. This prophetical existence of Eve, says Mr. Scott, "is expressed incidentally by the genius of Michael Angelo, veiled a little perhaps for fear of heresy or imputed paganism, and it has remained unremarked till now, as far as we know." The rest of the number is comparatively unimportant, and is illustrated with less originality than usual.

—We are glad to announce that Mr. John T. Wood, the discoverer of the Temple of Diana at Ephesus, will give two lectures in this city next week concerning his explorations. The place and dates will be duly advertised in the daily papers, and we hazard nothing in saying that the public will be certain to find entertainment in listening to Mr. Wood. In Boston he gave four lectures to crowded houses, and was obliged to give a fifth as a summary supplement, to gratify those who could not obtain admission to the preceding. Here as there he will illustrate his lectures by means of diagrams and the stereopticon.

—The following extract is from the *Academy* (London) of January 9. We reproduce it by way of answer to Mr. Crowninshield's letter printed above :

"M. Charles Blanc, the art critic of the *Temps*, the commentator on Rembrandt's etchings, and author of numberless contributions to art criticisms, makes, in the course of a recent article on French engravings, some remarks on how to frame the prints with which most people's walls are more or less adorned. M. Blanc cannot say too much against the modern fashion of exposing to view an immense margin of white cardboard all round the picture. He reminds us that old-fashioned amateurs used to frame their Nanteuils, their Callots, their Rembrandts quite closely, like a painting. He does not quite recommend this, however. But it is very well to mention, what every observant person knows and sometimes forgets, that the white light of a broad, white margin kills the high lights of the print itself. This is so in England ; still more, of course, in France, for what is gray here looks brilliant there, and whoever would frame prints to look well in a French room must mount them with mounts very low in tone. In England the faintest rough gray paper or faintest rough buff paper, such as Whatman's, is the best. A fairly broad mount is then not only allowable but advisable, though the modern fashion errs on the side of excess. As to frames, the golden rule is surely to choose the frame which will least of all attract the eye. Black wooden frames are of course at once sober and decorative in their general effect, but if placed close to the picture they are perhaps too apt to catch the eye. The thin frame of plain oak, unpolished, is of all the least obtrusive. No one who has noticed how by an inappropriate frame you may make a good print look almost a bad one, and, by an appropriate, a tolerable print look almost a very good one, will begrudge a few minutes given to this subject of framing."

—The last report of St. John's Guild, a charitable association in this city, which is displaying great activity and administering a considerable amount of money, contains the following, as the experience of some of the visitors :

"Half-grown children of those who had until recently moved in the highest circles of society were discovered sitting at their studies in a fireless room, with nothing to hide their nakedness save old fragments of coffee-sacks, which were tied around their loins with twine. Ladies, old and young, who had been bred in affluence, were found with merely a coarse piece of cotton cloth wrapped about them to conceal their nudity. None but eye-witnesses can fully realize these fearful extremities of destitution." That the children of persons who had *recently* "moved in the highest circles of society" should be found sitting in fireless rooms, with nothing to hide their nakedness but pieces of old coffee-sacks tied around their loins with twine, is startling enough, but that they should be found "pursuing their studies" under these circumstances is something which almost passes belief. It indicates, in fact, if true, an ardor for knowledge of the like of which we have never read. That they should sell their entire clothing, and fall back on old coffee-sacks and twine sooner than part with their books, is by itself a most extraordinary fact. It is indeed so extraordinary as to suggest enquiries as to the accuracy and sober-mindedness of the person who wrote the report ; and we may add that anybody conducting the operations of a society which dispenses charity on so lavish a scale as this one, ought to be, above all things, accurate and sober-minded.

—Now that Capt. Eads has obtained authority from Congress to attempt the application of jetties to the mouth of the Mississippi River, there is nothing to be done but await the result of his experiment. The controversy between himself and the Department of Engineers, U.S.A., is therefore a matter of record rather than of present interest. Nevertheless, in a recent memorandum (No. 3) the Department offers one more dispassionate contribution to the argument on its side. This was elicited by a statement of congressman Stanard, of St. Louis, that he was not aware that the U. S. Government or private corporations in this country had ever constructed jetties. The memorandum shows, on the contrary, that "the Government has for nearly fifty years past constructed jetties at the mouths of rivers emptying into the Great Lakes, and has, in fact, created some forty harbors on our lakes by jetties aided by dredging, and is now annually applying that system." The usefulness of jetties, therefore, is distinctly recognized ; but, the memorandum affirms, the proper occasion for employing them is "where the bar is formed by the action of the waves in accumulating the loose drifting material of the shore at the mouth of a river." "The case of a delta-river is different ; there the bar is formed by the earthy matter brought by the river to the sea, and dropped at its mouth, and the bar is constantly moving into the sea, the shore following it." Under such conditions a bar may grow enormously ; as, for instance, "the bar of the S. W. Pass of the Mississippi River is more than seven miles long ; that of the South Pass is two and a half miles long." The jetties must be of corresponding length, and the memorandum holds that our knowledge of the Mississippi bar warrants the belief "that, with jetties, the rate of annual extension of the bar will be largely increased, because the width of the bar will be very much diminished, while the quantity of earthy matter added to the bar annually will be the same as before." This view is sustained by the experience with jetties in improving the entrance to the Rhone ; and is not affected by the success of jetties at the Sulina mouth of the Danube, since this has a drift-bar and not a delta-bar. The whole question of canal versus jetties is fully discussed, with the aid of numerous charts, in Appendix R of the annual report of the Chief of Engineers for 1874.

—The Engineer Department also sends us Appendix FF of the annual report of its chief for 1874, being Lieut. Geo. M. Wheeler's annual report on the geographical explorations and surveys under his command west of the hundredth meridian. It is a summary account of the work performed, and is chiefly occupied with records of astronomical observations for determining latitude, and telegraphic signalling to determine difference of time, etc. The usual map accompanies it. More readable is Lieut. Wheeler's progress report for 1872, transmitted to General Humphreys in January, and printed in quarto form. A skeleton map, somewhat different from the foregoing, is given, together with some striking views of the scenery in the cañons of the Colorado. It is mentioned that the photographer of the originals from which these are copied used the dry-plate process with encouraging success, and the hope is expressed that, "by the application of skilled labor and the refinement of instruments," we may some day "be able to give a value to the horizontal and vertical measurements upon a photographic picture." In any case, the organization of a photographic establishment in connection with the War Department is recommended. There are some interesting remarks on timber-lands in the area covered by the survey (chiefly in Utah), on irrigation, and on routes. Lieut. Wheeler believes that "comparatively few points will be found where [artesian] wells can be successfully sunk." Irrigation by canals has some chance east of the Rocky Mountains, but under very different conditions from those of similar works in Italy and India. As for the wagon-roads, in the construction of which the old corps of topographical engineers used to be engaged, Lieut. Wheeler says : "It would, in my opinion, be wise economy on the part of the Government to inaugurate anew the surveys and estimates for the construction of more accessible routes between the several military establishments of the interior, governed by necessities for their supply, possibility of the movement of troops in the change of stations, or in operations against the Indians, or in placing of the military force with celerity at points where they may be called upon to sustain the civil law." The annual report of the Chief of Ordnance for 1874 is mainly taken up with trials of the Gatling gun, and with reports on the merits, after experience, of novelties in cavalry and artillery equipments, the adoption of which appears to depend on the majority vote of officers in actual service. A very valuable work, prepared under the authority of the Treasury Department, by Major Geo. H. Elliot, of the Engineers, is his 'Report of a Tour of Inspection of European Lighthouse Establishments made in 1873.' It abounds in statistics, plans, maps, and illustrations.

—From the Interior Department we have two pamphlets issued by the Bureau of Education, and a report on the Mission Indians of Southern California, by Charles A. Wetmore, Special U. S. Commissioner. The history of this once prosperous but now hopelessly degraded people, as given by Mr. Wetmore, makes sad reading. The inroads of Mexican and of American adventurers had broken up their agricultural settlements, stripped them of their land, and forced them to seek a precarious living in the employ of the rancheros. A worse condition was in store for them. The cattle interest, which contended for mastery with the farming interest, was defeated by the passage not long ago of the 'no-fence laws," and this defeat meant quitting the field. The Indians have now no title to lands of their own, and are largely given over to vagrancy and mendicancy and the cultivation of the worst vices. Mr. Wetmore's plan of reclaiming them has much to

commend it, but, strange to say, he is opposed to giving them the ballot. Dr. Alex. Shiras's official account of the history, work, and limitations of the Bureau of Education states that the library which it has amassed, at small cost, is "of almost unexampled richness in its special line," and that, "for purposes of practical investigation," it is "superior to any in existence, except, perhaps, one at Vienna." The Bureau's 'Statement of the Theory of Education in the U. S., as approved by many leading Educators,' was designed for use at the Vienna Exposition, but has suffered delay. It seems to us capable of a more perspicuous presentation. We are glad to notice the reserve with which it is mentioned that "Declamation of oratorical selections is a favorite exercise, and *is supposed* to fit the youth for public and political life."

—The vitality of the material of the mediæval romances is astonishing, and the history of the various transformations undergone by the Arthurian and Carlovingian legends could not fail to be interesting and instructive. The latter has always been the more popular cycle, and its development extends from the ninth to the nineteenth century, from Eginhard's scanty notice among the heroes fallen at Roncevaux, "et Hruodlandus Britannici limitis præfectus," to M. Henri de Bornier's 'La Fille de Roland,' lately brought out with great success at the Théâtre Français, and which has all at once made its author one of the celebrities of the day. The plot of the play is briefly this: The traitor, Ganelon, who caused the disaster of Roncevaux, is supposed to escape the punishment prepared for him, and to live under the assumed name of Count Amaury, in his castle on the Rhine, where he brings up his son Gérald, who is ignorant of his father's past life, in the practice of all knightly virtues. Roland, the hero of Roncevaux, is also supposed to leave a daughter, Bertha, who, after her father's death, is adopted by her uncle, the Emperor Charlemagne. Gérald by chance rescues Bertha from the Saxons, and falls in love with her, his father in vain commanding him to renounce his passion. Gérald determines to set out in the usual adventurous manner of the times, and merit by his exploits the hand of Charlemagne's niece. The third act opens at Aix-la-Chapelle, at the emperor's court, where a Moorish prince, who possesses Roland's famous sword Durandal, comes to challenge the French knights to single combat. He has already overcome thirty adversaries, and the old emperor himself is about to enter the lists, when Gérald arrives, and accepts the Moor's defiance. Charlemagne lends his own sword Joyeuse to Gérald, who, animated by the presence of Bertha, is victorious, and is rewarded by her hand. Count Amaury is obliged to visit the court in order to be present at the wedding, and is recognized by the emperor, who, touched by his repentance, allows him to seek an honorable death in Palestine. Unhappily, others recognize the unfortunate Ganelon, who reveals himself to his son in a touching scene. Gérald is overwhelmed, but does not curse his father. The case, after the fashion of the day, is submitted to a tribunal of honor composed of the survivors of Roncevaux and the descendants of those killed there. They all declare that Gérald has atoned for his father's crime, and there is nothing to prevent his marriage with Bertha. Gérald refuses, and Bertha allows him to depart to fight against the infidels, armed with Roland's sword Durandal, which the emperor has placed in his hands.

—The author has, it will be seen, treated the legend quite freely. Roland was not married, but only betrothed, to Oliver's sister the Lady Alda, and Ganelon, it is needless to say, was rewarded for his treason by a terrible death. Several of the characters, among them Ganelon, are feebly drawn; Charlemagne, in particular, is only a weak old man, which, however, is his usual rôle in the Italian Carlovingian epics. The success of the piece is due largely to the patriotic element, of which the following lines will give a sample. The first is from Charlemagne's prediction of the future glory of France:

"Ta gloire! oh! puisse-t-elle aux époques prochaines,
Croître en s'affermissant, comment croissent les chênes,
Offrir l'abri superbe et l'ombre de ton front,
Nation maternelle, aux peuples qui naîtront,
Afin qu'on dise un jour selon mon espérance,
Tout homme a deux pays; le sien et puis la France."

The following is from a *chanson* celebrating Durandal and Joyeuse, which Gérald recites at a banquet:

"Durandal des païens fut captive là-bas,
Elle est captive encore, et la France la pleure:
Mais le sort différent laisse l'honneur égal."

The author, M. le Vicomte de Bornier, was born in 1827, at Montpellier, and is one of the custodians of the library of the Arsenal. He was but little known before his last success, although he had previously published a volume of poems for the anniversaries of Corneille, Molière, and Racine, which were recited at the Théâtre Français, where was also represented in 1868, with moderate success, a tragedy of his entitled 'Agamemnon.' His next dramatic venture, it is said, will be another tragedy, on the subject of Mahomet.

## SIR ROBERT PEEL.*

PEEL lives in English popular recollection as the statesman who emancipated the Catholics and gave the people cheap bread. The dubious credit of having carried measures of which he was for the greater part of his career the strenuous opponent has extended his temporary fame, but has injured his permanent reputation. It has fixed attention rather on the exceptional crises than on the general tenor of his life, and thus has at once withdrawn observation from the essential features of his genius, and placed the crises of his policy in a false light. The merit of Lord Dalling's sketch is, that it presents Peel's career as a whole, and proves that it was marked, if by inconsistencies of policy, yet by a rare unity and consistency of character. Sir Robert Peel was, from the beginning to the end of his political life, the ablest man of business who ever influenced the policy of England. Every critic, hostile or friendly, was sure to notice the "business-like" turn of his genius. The bitter sarcasms aimed at him week by week by Fonblanque, of the *Examiner*, almost constantly turn on the assumption that Sir Robert applied to politics the rules of trade. One day he is the great political carrier, the rival of Pickford: "Peel is but Pickford on a grander scale. The Pickford theorem was this: given a road made and goods ready at your hand, to carry the greatest quantity in the shortest time. The Peel theory was like it: given the labor and the work of others, to do more in a shorter time than other men." On another occasion he is painted as a horse-dealer: "It is thoughtlessly said that Sir Robert Peel is a man of no principles; as well might it be said that a horse-dealer is a man of no horses. The horse-dealer, it is true, has no particular attachment to his horses. He takes them only to part with them for a profit; and so it is with Sir Robert Peel and principles. He is a man of all principles, or an all-principled man. He has had all in turn, and made his profit of changing them as opportunity has offered." Disraeli seized exactly the same point at which to aim his invectives, and dubbed the object of his slander "the great Parliamentary middleman." The direct object of the satire is in each case, of course, Peel's supposed want of principle; but the form which the satire takes arises from the censor's keen perception of the business-like side of Peel's genius.

This is the very trait which Lord Dalling brings, as a friendly critic, into deserved prominence. Peel was (on his view), both from the force of inherited family aptitudes, and even more from the effect of training, led almost from a boy to turn his mind, not only towards politics, but towards the practical works of government. "It was to power that the boy who was to be the politician was taught to aspire; and as the impressions we acquire in early life settle so deeply into our minds as to become akin to instincts, so politics became connected from childhood in the mind of the future statesman with office; and he got into the habit of looking at all questions in the point of view in which they are seen from an official position. The efficient transaction of business became, so to speak, his passion." His devotion to public affairs was unremitting and unaffected. They furnished not only his sole employment, but constituted his sole amusement. His greatness as an administrator is attested by the confidence with which he inspired a writer like Carlyle—the last person who might be expected to admire a statesman whose fame was gained in the Parliamentary arena. His business skill was further the main cause which first acquired for him the trust of the nation. The Whigs had gained what seemed unbounded popularity by the Reform Bill. Their leaders were men of far more than average talent, but inexperience in the practice of government made them utterly inefficient in the work of administration. When their management of the Exchequer produced deficits in the midst of national wealth, the public felt that the time had come to call to office a minister who could administer public affairs on sound business principles. From whatever side Peel's policy be examined, it will be found that the great successes which were really his own, were the result of talent for business. As a party leader, his great triumph was the transformation of impracticable Toryism into sensible Conservatism. Prejudice and bigotry had lost the Tories the immense fund of prestige accruing to them from the conduct of the war. They were, as a party, tending to bankruptcy. Peel took their affairs in hand, wound up the old Tory concern, and set the party going again as Conservatives, with a large share of popular credit. As a statesman, he performed the same duty for the nation which he performed as a politician for his party. He did not voluntarily take part in violent reforms, but he gradually and cau-

* 'Sir Robert Peel: An Historical Sketch by Lord Dalling and Bulwer.' London: R. Bentley & Sons.

tiously improved every part of the administration. The return to specie payments, the formation of the Irish constabulary, the rearrangement of the finances, the creation of the London police, and other great administrative reforms, are the characteristic achievements of a statesman who brought to the service of the state the zeal and capacity which are generally devoted to the acquisition of private fortune.

The peculiar bias of Peel's mind is what places him at the head of the modern school of English statesmen. The politics of his family, his early political connections, and the circumstances of the time at which he entered public life seem at first sight to place him among the followers of Castlereagh and Eldon. His strenuous and honest opposition to Parliamentary reform, and the distrust which he probably to the end entertained towards the policy of which the Catholic Emancipation Act was the expression, appear still more decidedly to fix his place among the school of statesmen who ruled England before the reform of Parliament. But in truth, Peel's talents and disposition were far better suited for a system of government under which the trading and mercantile classes possess a predominant influence, than for the aristocratic constitution which he in vain attempted to preserve. Canning, the last of the great rhetoricians, and Lord Russell, the last of the Whigs, each belonged in spirit to the time of Pitt, of Fox, and of Burke. Neither of them possessed marked capacity for business; neither of them showed any genius for administrative improvements; neither of them sympathized with either the merits or defects of the class who came into power after the passing of the Reform Bill. Peel, though he opposed reform, was really a middle-class minister. He did not rise to power through oratorical brilliancy. He did not keep himself in power by the aid of a great aristocratic connection. Unconsciously, but none the less certainly, he instituted the modern policy of England. If he did not proclaim non-intervention he practically favored it, and if he for a time upheld protection, he entered upon a course of financial reform which almost inevitably led up to the abolition of the Corn Laws. Above all, he turned his own attention and that of the nation to exactly that kind of administrative improvement which the time required, and which Tories and Whigs alike had been too prone to overlook while occupied in the exciting and aristocratic game of politics.

That Sir Robert Peel's true claim to fame is his greatness as an administrator would be more readily acknowledged if the ordinary world were able to realize how great and, still more, how rare are the gifts required for successful administration. Industry is no doubt essential, but of itself it goes a very little way. George the Third worked as hard as a clerk, and like a mere clerk he plodded industriously on till he brought his own affairs and those of the nation into hopeless confusion. The talents really needed besides industry are determination, clear-sightedness, and resource, and these gifts are as rare as any which can be given to man. Two at least of them—clear-sightedness and resource—were Peel's in their highest perfection. His view of Catholic Emancipation is an example of his capacity for looking facts in the face. His policy was no doubt mistaken, for it was as impossible as it was unjust permanently to keep the mass of Irishmen outside the Constitution; but when he maintained that to grant emancipation was to sign the death warrant of Protestant supremacy, he certainly showed far greater insight than the advocates of emancipation, who supported a just cause by the delusive argument that when Catholics had gained equal political rights, they would be content with the maintenance of a system based on the assumption that Catholics were not the equals of Protestants. His resource appears at every turn of his career. When he did away with inconvertible paper-money, when he founded Maynooth, when he reformed the London police, he exhibited exactly that marvellous power of dealing effectively with the particular matter in hand which is often wanting to great orators and even to great reformers, but is the sure mark of a skilful administrator or a first-rate man of business.

Gratitude for public services and admiration for rare talents ought not to conceal from candid judges that Peel suffered from the defects which naturally accompany his cast of mind. He was, it has been well said, rather "clear-sighted than far-sighted." His treatment of the Catholic question and opposition to the anti-Corn-Law movement cannot be explained without assuming (in the face of the clearest proof to the contrary) that he was the most profligate of politicians, or admitting that with all his talents he did not see as far ahead as many men who were in general ability immeasurably his inferiors. His attitude towards reform of Parliament is a further proof of his want of prophetic insight. Lord Dalling, who was a member when the Reform Bill was introduced, is a first-rate witness with reference to the state of public opinion at the time. "'Mr. John Smith, an ardent reformer, said that the Government measure went so far beyond his expectations that it took away his breath. . . . Mr. Hunt, the famous radical, said before the introduction of the bill, that, if it gave members to a few of the great towns and disfranchised with compensation a few close boroughs, the public would rest content. . . . The Government plan was received with profound astonishment. Lord John continued his explanations amid cheers and laughter." Peel showed blindness throughout the whole contest. He did not understand that reform was inevitable; he did not know how to deal with the sudden enthusiasm in favor of the bill, and, for once, blundered just as a capable official does blunder when placed in a position where administrative experience is useless. He showed on this occasion not only want of foresight, but also a lack of that capacity for sudden action on the spur of the moment which Lord Russell, though in all other points inferior to Peel, has more than once exhibited on critical occasions. This want of foresight, and incapacity for dealing with unforeseen emergencies, are both characteristic of the official habit of mind, and are traceable in part to Peel's undeviating adherence to the principle of always dealing with the immediate matter in hand, and never occupying his mind with problems not ready for practical solution. This principle is a perfectly sound rule for the conduct of business. It is not without its defects when employed for the guidance of statesmanship. It fosters the tendency to delay taking up difficult questions till it is almost too late to deal with them at all. It facilitates concentration of mind, but it is a hindrance to prudent foresight.

Peel's practice of concentrating all his powers on subjects which could immediately be dealt with, accounts for the fact that, though he promoted the success of several great reforms, he never originated any great movement. He was even unwilling to follow out his own ideas beyond the point at which they could be immediately put in practice. His endowment of Maynooth foreshadowed a policy which, whatever his intentions, he never followed out to its legitimate consequences. The officialism of his mind must always be recollected when the question of his honesty is debated. Peel's great achievements ought not to conceal the fact that at some crises of his career he exhibited a kind of political shiftiness which is not compatible with the highest conceivable statesmanlike morality. But a good deal of what is sometimes considered dishonesty was merely the effect of his habit of delaying the consideration of speculative questions until they became of immediate practical importance. He believed in a paper currency till he had to consider as a practical statesman whether cash payments ought not to be restored. Further, he was, it must be admitted, in the earlier part of his career anxious for office. But the anxiety was merely a form of that most legitimate kind of ambition which consists in the desire to obtain for one's self a field where great talents may be exercised for public advantage; and it is palpable that the moral character of Peel's ambition rose as he advanced in power. In his contest with Canning he was apparently influenced quite as much by personal considerations as by his view of the public interest. When he repealed the Corn Laws he obviously sacrificed every private consideration to the good of the nation. His lasting historical reputation will, it may be suspected, be something like that of Walpole. He will live as the administrator whose great sagacity guided the British nation through a perilous stage of its development. But there is, after all, a rough justice in the popular misconception which attributes to him the whole merit of two great reforms, of which he was for the greater part of his life the opponent. Catholic emancipation and the repeal of the Corn Laws are not the characteristic triumphs of Peel's statesmanship, but they are the measures which prove him not only a great minister but also a great patriot.

## SAINTE-BEUVE'S ENGLISH PORTRAITS.*

IT may be said that if it is of no particular profit to translate Sainte-Beuve into English, it at least does no harm. Those who care to read him will be sure to be able, and to prefer, to read him in his own tongue, and those who do not will let him alone, as before. To this may be answered, we think, that a performance like the present volume sins in being a spurious rather than a real service to culture; that Sainte-Beuve, of all men, was devoted to culture in its purest and most incorruptible forms; and that it is therefore paying him a poor compliment to present him in a fashion based on a compromise with sound taste. Sainte-Beuve's was not in the least an English mind, in spite of his partially English ancestry; he was a Frenchman to his finger-tips; and his intellect, his erudition, his taste, his tone, his style, were of a deeply national stamp. It cannot be said that he spoke without authority on any subject whatever; but his authority in speaking of foreign writers was diminished by half. He spoke of them rarely; he *happened*, so to say, at wide intervals to have touched upon

* 'English Portraits. By C. A. Sainte-Beuve. Edited and translated from the 'Causeries du Lundi.' With an Introductory Chapter on Sainte-Beuve's Life and Writings.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1875.

Franklin, Chesterfield, Gibbon, Cowper, and Pope. The articles are charming, but even in the original they are not among his best; and in the present translation (which is yet extremely good) they offer an almost painfully dim and ineffective image of the brilliant qualities familiar to those who greatly admire him. The part of culture—the part of that penetrating and initiated taste of which Sainte-Beuve was so eminent a representative—is to say: "You are not really reading the great critic in this form; you are only half reading him; you are seeing him through a glass, very darkly; you are not doing him justice." The part of the translator of these essays, on the other hand, of the compiler of the volume for which circulation and popularity are sought, is to say, naturally: "You *are* doing him justice; the glass is a glass, but it is very clear; what you lose is, after all, not the essential." And this is why to serve up half-a-dozen of Sainte-Beuve's second-best *Causeries* as an English book is to be at odds with the very spirit of Sainte-Beuve. We may be thought rather cynically fastidious; but we may affirm that if there is a touch of ill-humor in our restrictions we are not without an excuse for it. If the voluminous introductory essay prefixed to the present volume had been a strikingly felicitous performance—had offered us any new information or any especially suggestive reflections—we do not think that we should have been less disposed to hold the translator to an account. But the essay strikes us as having little value. It is both meagre and clumsy—extremely diffuse in manner and yet very chary of real characterization, of that finer, subtler characterization of which one strikes the note in the simple mention of Sainte-Beuve's name. The author alludes to a great many books and writers, and institutes a vast number of laborious, commonplace comparisons and *rapprochements*, but we honestly think that a reader whose sole knowledge of the great critic should be derived from these pages would carry away an extremely vague and formless image. And why should the translator utter a judgment so unaccountable as the following? "Though it is hardly doubtful that Sainte-Beuve's 'Causeries du Lundi' will gratify and inform future generations of Frenchmen, yet the universality and endurance of his renown might have been still better assured had he produced one work, of moderate compass, supplying a complete impression of his power." If the 'Causeries' do not supply a complete impression of his powers, these are even larger than our large estimate of them, and if through "one work of moderate compass" he would have become more easily the intellectual companion, the ever-present, suggestive, inspiring friend of those who love letters, surely the admirably consistent, available, unimportunate form of the 'Causeries' is ingenuity sadly wasted. We are grateful to the author, however, for his quotation from Taine, which, in its admirable definiteness, stands out in high relief in the midst of his own vague portraiture.

If M. Taine has succeeded in portraying Sainte-Beuve, it is not that the task was an easy one. He himself was more complex than any figure he ever drew, and he could only have been adequately painted in colors from his own palette. There are so many things to say about him that one hardly knows where to begin, and whatever we say, we feel that we have omitted something essential. The truly essential thing, we take it, is that he worked, as Taine happily says, "for lettered and delicate men." These are Sainte-Beuve's real public—the public which would find something indelicate in Sainte-Beuve Anglicized. But even this is true only if taken in a certain cautious sense. The great critic had as much of what is called human nature as of erudition, and the proof of his genius was the fashion in which he made them go hand-in-hand. He was a man of books, and yet in perception, in divination, in sympathy, in taste, he was consummately a man of the world. It is a marvel to see the way in which he effects this subtle interfusion of science and experience. He appeals to the cultured man, to the highly civilized and finished social unit, but he appeals to him in behalf of something which demands no sacrifice of points of contact with the world, but an increase and a higher sensibility in each. Most erudition beside Sainte-Beuve's seems sterile and egoistic; none was ever turned to such infinite account, so put to use, so applied, so controlled by life. These are his general characteristics, and the portrait would be only more interesting in going down into detail. Then would appear his patience, his religious exactitude, his marvellous memory, his exquisite fancy—all the accomplishments and virtues and graces of the literary passion. On the other hand, we should touch in a dozen different directions his limitations and his defects, and these perhaps would be most interesting of all. They would be limitations of temper, of morality, of generosity, and they would also now and then be limitations of taste. This it takes some courage to say; but readers who have really suffered in a tender part of their mental organism from certain baser moments, as they may call them, in the great critic, will feel as if they had paid for the right to be positive. We allude here to the vices of temper, to his two volumes on Châteaubriand, to such an episode, for instance, as the long, interpolated diatribe against poor Gustave Planche—against his personal habits, his ugliness, his poverty—in the series of papers (in the *Nouveaux Lundis*) on Horace Vernet; as well as to many a thrust and scratch, quite out of the rules of the game, in the author's innumerable foot-notes. We should fancy that among the people of the day, within range of Sainte-Beuve's reference, there must have been a certain special, well-known physical sensation associated with a glimpse of their names in these terrible notes. There was no knowing what was coming: he never spoke save by book; what documents had he got hold of now? Sainte-Beuve's faults of taste were those of omission, not of commission. Anything he admired was in some degree admirable; but there were also things to which he was constitutionally unable to do justice. He flourished side by side with Balzac, whom he detested, without ever suspecting, apparently, the colossal proportions of the great novelist's genius. It is true that what we all dislike in Balzac Sainte-Beuve disliked with an acuteness, with a power to measure the extent of its aberration, which few of us possess. He liked Pope and Cowper, as the present volume shows, more than the mind of the "period" just now finds easy. It would be most interesting to follow through his writings the vein of old French conservatism of taste—to see it wind and twist and double, making occasionally a startling deflection into dangerous places, taking a plunge into turbid waters, but never altogether, as simple *taste*, losing a certain remote family likeness to Philistinism. Sainte-Beuve, as a whole, is the least of a Philistine conceivable; but to the end of his life, in spite of passing fancies and sudden enthusiasms, in spite of his immense and constant intellectual hospitality and flexibility, what he most relished was temperance, perfect taste, measure. This fact of necessity makes him a partial and inadequate witness to English literature. All these points will be elucidated, harmonized, balanced against each other, when a really conclusive and adequate portrait is produced—a better portrait than that which M. d'Haussonville has lately been contributing to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* with so much pretended, and so little real, liberality. M. d'Haussonville's last word is that Victor Cousin once said to him, as the conclusion of a comparison they had been making together (they might have been better employed!) of Sainte-Beuve and Mérimée: "Mérimée is a *gentilhomme*, and Sainte-Beuve is not: that is why Mérimée is superior to Sainte-Beuve." This is as valueless as the majority of epigrams. Carlyle says of Mirabeau that he had swallowed all formulas; and we may say of Sainte-Beuve that he had swallowed all *gentilshommes*—M. Cousin, certainly, *quâ* gentilhomme, included. Sainte-Beuve's defects, we think, are not to be analyzed in that line, but on an even deeper and subtler one. The best essays in the present volume are those upon Franklin and Gibbon. It is also very well to see what an acute Frenchman can say on behalf of Chesterfield, who has been too long the victim of the pure Johnsonian view. The article on Mary Stuart is, in the present state of learning, rather antiquated. That on Taine's English literature is chiefly a sympathetic disquisition upon Pope. Even if Sainte-Beuve were, at the worst, twice the Philistine he escapes being, it would still be delightful to see a conservative opinion uttered with such happy tact as this:

"But apropos of Boileau, can I then accept this strange judgment of a clever man, this opinion which M. Taine assumes, and does not fear to take on his shoulders as he goes? 'There are two sorts of verses in Boileau: the most numerous, which seem by a good sophomore; the least numerous, which seem by a good senior.' The clever man who so speaks (M. Guillaume Guizot) does not feel Boileau as a poet, and I will go further and say that he does not feel any poet as a poet. I quite understand that you should not make all poetry lie in the *métier*, but I do not at all understand that when you are treating of an art you should take no account of the art itself, and should depreciate to this point the perfect workmen who excel in it. Suppress at a stroke all poetry in verse—that would be more expeditious; otherwise speak with esteem of those who have possessed its secrets. Boileau was of the small number of these; Pope equally."

## GALTON'S ENGLISH MEN OF SCIENCE.*

MR. GALTON'S ideas in regard to hereditary genius have, we think, been somewhat misunderstood. Superficial readers constantly ask, in refutation of his theory that genius is hereditary, who and what was the father of Shakspere, of Newton, of Napoleon? But Mr. Galton's thesis is not that illustrious men all have illustrious fathers, brothers, and sons, or that even a majority of their immediate relations are illustrious—although there are such exceptional cases, as for instance the two Pitts—but that eminent men have *more* eminent relatives than non-eminent men. In other

* 'English Men of Science: Their Nature and Nurture. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., author of 'Hereditary Genius,' etc.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

words, one hundred eminent men, selected at random, have about nine fathers, eight brothers, and thirteen sons who are also eminent (in certain families these numbers are nearly four times as great); whereas one hundred non-eminent men have but a small fraction of one eminent man among their immediate relatives. From this Mr. Galton fairly concludes that eminence (or ability) is not, as a rule, a phenomenal occurrence, but follows certain laws, and is transmitted in greater or less degree and for longer or shorter periods in certain families; that it is increased or diminished by marriages, judicious or injudicious as regards ability; and that it would be possible, by proper selection in marriage, to breed a race of men of commanding ability in any particular department, just as it is possible to breed a race of horses remarkable for speed, or of dogs remarkable for keenness of scent.

In his work on 'Hereditary Genius,' from which the above postulates were derived, Mr. Galton carried his examination into the families of eminent men of all descriptions—judges, statesmen, commanders, divines, etc. The present work is a pursuit of the same line of enquiry in a special department, viz., men of science in England at the present day. Not limiting himself now to the trait of ability in general, he proposes to determine, with reference to one hundred and eighty foremost men of science, 1st, their antecedents; 2d, their qualities, both of mind and body, and those of their parents; 3d, the origin of their taste for science; and 4th, their education. In short, he desires to discover everything relating to their "nature and nurture," or, as he well puts it, "to supply what may be termed their natural history." The one hundred and eighty men were selected from the Fellows of the Royal Society by applying certain tests of eminence. The total number of men of "the same general scientific status" as these in the United Kingdom is estimated at three hundred; but he considered his list of one hundred and eighty sufficiently large for his purposes, the value of his results depending of course not so much on the number of cases treated as on the accuracy and completeness of the data in each case. These three hundred men bear the ratio to the male population of the same ages of one hundred in a million; hence the "man of science" is a more remarkable specimen than the "eminent man" (250 in a million) treated of in 'Hereditary Genius.'

To each of these one hundred and eighty men was sent a long list of printed questions, designed to elicit the information required. The total number of returns received is not stated, but ninety-six complete ones were used. Here we must note a weak point in the whole investigation: it rests upon each man's personal estimate of himself, and this must necessarily be, in many cases, erroneous. Still, there is no fixed standard for ability, and the estimate of other men would also be more or less wrong; so that the method used is probably as accurate as any that could be devised. Moreover, it is probable that these self-analyses would be more free from error in the case of scientific men than of any other class; they are all trained and accustomed to methods of strict analysis, and there can be no motive for falsifying, were they capable of it, for no names nor clues to names are published. It is a strictly impersonal investigation, just as much so as if the subjects under treatment were birds or fishes.

The question of heredity appears incidentally in the chapter on "Qualities," and gives about the same result as to number of eminent relatives as was found in "Hereditary Genius," although the men considered are different. The number of eminent sons of men of science was previously found to be much larger than the number of eminent fathers—in other words, the breed of scientific men is improving. This would seem to be the natural result of certain facts stated in the chapter on "Antecedents," where we find that the marriages were well selected, the parents being generally in harmony as regards temperament and physical peculiarities, and their ages, at the birth of seventy-five per cent. of their children, being between twenty-five and forty years for the fathers, and twenty and thirty-five for the mothers—the most suitable age for both. The diminution in number of eminent relatives as the relationship becomes remote, is also found to be much less rapid than in other classes of eminent men. Summing up the returns given under the head of qualities, we find that in the character of a successful scientific man are generally combined energy, health, steady pursuit of purpose, business habits, independence of views, and a strong innate taste for science. The first four might have been expected, being elements of success in any occupation. The last, we might infer, would be found in this particular profession, but the taste is "decidedly innate" in only six cases out of ten; in the others, it is due to circumstances of situation, and occasionally to mere accident. As for independence of views, it is asserted almost universally in the returns; but we suspect that a few of the subjects have mistaken in themselves a simple craving to be unfashionable and odd for true independence. This independence does not extend to religious views, for we find that a strong religious bias proves no obstacle to scientific enquiry—a fact which Dr. Draper would do well to investigate. The great majority express strong religious feelings, but free from dogmatism; and only three returns profess absolute disbelief in religious creeds of all kinds. Among the minor traits of a scientific man, natural mechanical aptitude is generally found; but good memory does not seem to be essential, as only one in four possesses it, and one in fourteen is quite deficient. The education of Mr. Galton's correspondents appears to have been about equally divided, for good and for bad; one-half received an education conducive to habits of observation, and the other half one which was restrictive. This chapter is an exceedingly instructive one, and concludes with some valuable suggestions as to the course of education best adapted to develop scientific men.

Such, then, is the natural history of the men of science in England today, affording an approximate solution to the problem, "What are the conditions of success in the field of science?" The chief defects of this interesting work are an absence of the valuable numerical tables, reduced to a per centum, which abound in 'Hereditary Genius,' and the failure to give a complete summary of the returns instead of a selected portion of them at length. For instance, forty-two returns are given in regard to energy, forty cases possessing energy above the average, and two below it. No statement is made of the nature of the other returns. If a less number had been given in full, and a tabular statement given at the end showing the total number of each kind received, the conclusion would have been much more convincing. There also appears to be a lack of uniformity in treating the different subjects; the chapter on "Origin of Taste for Science" is well summarized and discussed at the end, but that on "Qualities" is merely a selected portion of the replies, grouped according to their nature, but not analyzed or discussed at all. The number of these replies constantly varies with the different traits, and we are not told what relation this number bears to the total number received; so that it is impossible to determine, for example, how many scientific men in a hundred have natural mechanical aptitude, and how many have not. It seems a pity that, with so much material on hand, the author should not have arranged and discussed it more completely, and at least have given us strict statistical tables so arranged that they could be readily compared. This is all the more unfortunate because this very same kind of work was executed with marked ability in the 'Hereditary Genius.' But in spite of these defects, and although it advances no startling theory, the book will well repay careful reading and study.

---

*Africa.* The History of Exploration and Adventure, as given in the leading authorities from Herodotus to Livingstone. By Charles H. Jones. With map and illustrations. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 8vo., pp. 496.)—It is no dispraise of the industry displayed in this meritorious compilation to say that the sub-title implies more than the actual scope of the work. To describe in five hundred even more closely printed pages than these the whole course and results of African exploration (let alone adventure) would be possible only to a mind saturated with geographical lore, and gifted with remarkable powers of expression and condensation. Mr. Jones has not attempted this. He finds a small part of two pages room enough for all the discoveries prior to the eighteenth century; his real task—that of abridging the narratives produced in the last forty years—begins with Barth, Overweg, and Richardson. The preceding chapters are entitled "Topographical and General," "Madagascar," and "Notices of Earlier African Travellers," leading off with Bruce. Following Barth and his associates, we have the essence of the published works of Livingstone, Andersson, Magyar, Du Chaillu, Serval, Burton and Speke, Speke and Grant, Baker, and Schweinfurth; and chapters on Christian missions in Africa complete the scheme. As nearly as may be, Livingstone occupies a third of the entire work, and another third is divided among Du Chaillu, Baker, and Schweinfurth. Baker's 'Nile Tributaries of Abyssinia' is dismissed in a single paragraph, which states the result of his observations on the annual freshets of the Atbara and Blue Nile. Scientifically speaking, this is of course the gist of the book, which in the main is the journal of an African sportsman, and as such might properly have been excluded as Gordon Cumming has been. Baker's excursion into the Soudan, however, was not only preliminary to the expedition which terminated at the Albert Nyanza, but to the later one which he conducted under the auspices of the Khedive, as it begot in him those dreams of irrigation and colonization and empire which he vainly endeavored afterwards to carry into effect. Among the South African adventurers Chapman might have furnished the compiler with some agreeable pages. Coming down to the latest dates, we have

accounts of the Ashantee war, of Sir Bartle Frere's mission to Zanzibar, and of Lieut. Cameron's discovery of an outlet to Lake Tanganyika. In the chapter on Madagascar, Ellis is relied upon, and no mention is made of the valuable additions made to our knowledge of that island by Grandidier. But we must not look to Mr. Jones for summaries of explorations by foreigners which have either not been published in book form or not translated into English. Even Rohlfs, who has been translated, does not appear, nor Mauch, nor Mohr, nor Nachtigal, nor Bastian. On the map of Africa accompanying the volume the routes of British explorers chiefly are indicated, and these not always the ones to whom most consideration is given in the text. There is something of haphazard in the illustrations also, which are not directly referred to the text, so that we see, for example, the Hamran Arabs slashing at elephants, while not a word is said, as we have just pointed out, of Baker's sporting among them.

With these explanations, Mr. Jones's work commends itself as a welcome substitute for a bulky library of African literature. It is handsomely printed and bound.

---

*Animal Mechanism:* A Treatise on Terrestrial and Aerial Locomotion. By E. J. Marey, Professor at the College of France. International Scientific Series. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874. Pp. 283.)—To scientists Prof. Marey has for several years been known as a most ardent and successful investigator of animal locomotion. The public has hitherto had only glimpses of the nature and results of his researches, but the present volume gives a very complete and, in most respects, simple account of the methods employed in bringing this branch of physiological physics to a condition not far from that of an exact science; for the analysis of movement is here not merely qualitative, it is quantitative. The number, variety, and complexity of registering apparatus employed by Marey and his pupils are simply wonderful. Most of them are figured and described so that the reader may see how far there lurks within them a chance of error. So far as we are aware, none of his conclusions have been disproved. But there are few men and few institutions possessing the means and the skill required for the construction of such apparatus as to enable them to repeat Marey's observations. The author seems to avoid controversy, and refers to others almost always with approval. This lends additional weight to the remark (page 211), that the theory of Dr. Pettigrew respecting the movement of the bird's wing needs no refutation; while in describing the wing as having its lower surface directed downward and backward in its descent, he does not even allude to the strange idea of Pettigrew that it looks downward and forward. Bipedal locomotion is illustrated by that of man, and quadrupedal by that of the horse. The author shows how the artist and the teamster may profit by these apparently abstract studies, the one for the true representation of the animal in motion, and the other for the better adjustment of the collar for the draught-horse. The book closes with a hopeful prophecy as to the imitation of aerial locomotion, and the assurance that the author and his pupils are far from regarding their studies of animal locomotion as completed.

Of the first part of the work our commendation can hardly be so unqualified as of the last. The sketch of evolution offers little that is new, and the discussion of the correlation and conservation of forces is not full enough to be satisfactory as such, while it occupies space that might well have been given to further details of the author's original work. There are a few anatomical inaccuracies, but the reader must not hold the author responsible for the extraordinary rendering of *péronéal* upon pages 75 and 88, or for the not infrequent obscurity of the translation. Since the volumes of this series are largely read by students and others who wish to refer to the authors cited, we suggest to the publishers the plan for reference now employed by Haeckel and others: a list of works is given at the close of the volume, and these are referred to by number with the number of the page. This latter may be in italics.

---

*Health:* A Handbook for Households and Schools. By Edw. Smith, M.D., F.R.S. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875. 12mo, pp. 198.)—In this volume the author has brought into a form adapted to the use of schools a large amount of valuable information on the subject of health. The object of the work being not discussion, but instruction in a concise manner, many categorical statements are made which can only be accepted with considerable reserve, *e. g.*, the account in the beginning of the first chapter, based on the theory of Liebig, of the action of different sorts of food. Looked at from a scientific point of view, the book is open to a good deal of the same sort of criticism which the author's work on Foods received. There is much of the same carelessness of statement, and ignorance of the results of recent investigations, which were noticeable in the earlier work. Thus, the description of the eye, with its anomalies of refraction, might as well have been written before Donders and Helmholtz had given to the world the results of their studies in physiological optics. Beaumont's tables, derived from observations on Alexis St. Martin, are given as if nothing farther were needed to determine the relative digestibility of various articles of food. By the statements made as to the nutritive value of fish, the impression is left on the mind of the reader that the salmon alone amongst fishes has red blood. The alcohol question is treated briefly, and from a total-abstinence point of view. This is, perhaps, judicious in a work intended for a text-book, but a child who sees wine in daily use upon his father's table can scarcely be expected to "be a missionary to endeavor to reclaim others from the practice of this folly."

In spite of faults like the above the book may, in the hands of a teacher who does not derive his whole knowledge of the subject from the book itself, be safely employed to impart to school-children a knowledge of the principles of hygiene, which cannot fail to be useful to them in after-life.

# Fine Arts.

## FIFTIETH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

I.

IN its half century of public displays the Academy has not often shown a better collection, so far as average excellence goes, than the present. The works, it is true, are nearly all cabinet or other easel-pictures of limited size and modest standard, but they are conscientious, and reveal the ardor of study and an improved refinement of technic. It should be remembered by those disposed to complain of the lack of lofty art at our exhibitions, that the conditions of painting with us are hostile to whatever is grandiose in design and conception. Our patronage is distinctly unpatriotic; the richest buyers believe that they prove their taste, rather than put it to shame, in preferring foreign to native art. Thus the careful, toilful canvases, devoted to history or the ideal, are wanting; they can only be fostered by a patronage that has faith in the national ability. Again, paintings are ordered in this country neither by churches nor the state, mural art is unknown, and the only commands for decoration in fresco go to humble workmen of Italian or German origin when a new theatre is to be hurried up. What is rather strange, our sculpture is far in advance of our pictorial art in this kind of success; there is even a rage for monumental statuary, and the plastic artist finds it possible to keep his body and soul together by means of his profession, at a time when the historical painter is completely without encouragement. We point to this primordial state of American painting chiefly because the present exhibition is not absolutely without experiments in the line of academic art. Mr. Henry Peters Gray has painted an ideal figure of Liberty, which, after many excursions among clubs and leagues and art-receptions, has settled with its eagle on the walls of the Academy at last. We think the figure is good enough to be treated with marked respect; it is a conscientious, studious, rich-looking work, full of the secrets of color, bathed in atmosphere, and showing trained ability in every part; at the same time, Mr. Gray's Freedom is not Freedom at all, to our thinking; the motive is voluptuous rather than epical, and there is that in the conception, as the budding girl exchanges confidential glances with her aquiline attendant, which is sure to provoke the smile of the scornful. But still it ought to be felt among us that our art will rise above the art of the illustrated-newspaper sort only by the studies, the aspirations, the conflict and the success of which this picture is no mean product.

Another thing, and a praiseworthy thing, which makes the exhibition this year rather elevated than exciting, is that scarcely any sensational foreign pictures are present. There is not even an enormous cattle-piece by Schenck in the middle of the great room. Mr. Bierstadt, it is true, appears to be resuming his vocation of painting western mountains the size of nature, but he is not exactly a foreigner; and our native topographical artist, Mr. Thomas Moran, has been merciful, and contracted his spangled Utah scenery into measurable limits. Nor do the works of landscapists, whether foreign or home-bred, attract that unreasoning concentration of attention which is brought to bear on the huge Cabanel, or Merle, or Regnault just bought and placed by its proud owner in the American art-school. The only important French picture this year has been contributed by a well-known patron of the Academy, who hangs up Bouguereau's smooth-looking portrait of a child belonging to his family. It is delightful to be able to say

that this learned *académie* of Bouguereau's is surrounded by American pictures which do not lose, but rather gain, in obvious strength by the comparison. The Elizabethan head by Mr. Neal, with its laced ruff striking positive silver sparks against the black ground-work, and its sumptuously-modelled features, is a rude effort in the Piloty style, that would look strong even in an exhibition of Rubenses. The vigorous three-quarter face, by Mr. Brush, set against a light background and positive as a bronze, is a happy prophecy of the future of American portraiture. The figure of a large, fresh, frank-looking girl, by Mrs. Loop, is as sculptural, as intelligent, as thorough as any portrait we have lately seen. The likeness of Mrs. Greatorex, by Mr. Toby Rosenthal, has something rounded, rich-looking, and shadowy about it that gives it the charm of an ideal work. Mr. Chase, of St. Louis, sends "The Dowager," a really superb Rembrandtesque study, completely harmonious in the character of painting it represents, and so instructive and serviceable as a model that it was bought on varnishing-day by a prominent artist. Among these powerful portraits—and portrait, it is well to remind the reader, is the only form in which an American painter is now allowed to do life-sized work—we would point to an exceptional specimen, whose justification is rather delicacy than robustness; we refer to the lady's bust-picture by Mr. Eastman Johnson, a piquant model absolutely saturated with expression, and brushed with a very thin mantle of color that in this instance seems absolutely right.

The ideal world of the American school has about the smallest showing in the exhibition that any *genre* could possibly have and exist at all; but Mr. La Farge happily contributes his epithalamium-picture of Eros leading Psyche. It is fortunately hung between one of Mr. Homer's real and daylight effects and a robust kitchen subject; and in this kind of neighborhood it seems to be hushed up in the veiled light of dreams. The tenderness of the attitudes, the poetic slightness of the work, the curtained stillness of the group, and the softness with which the feet of the figures rest upon the earth, are all treated in a very sonnet-like and polished kind of condensation. But the painting, like most of Mr. La Farge's painting, is obviously tentative; it is a record left by one of the tribe of seekers. This artist has been now so many years indulging us with a sight of his beautiful experiments that we wonder when he will give us something clear and specific, showing delicacy of execution instead of delicacy of aim. Another of Mr. La Farge's subtlest subjects is drawn on wood, and shows an enchantress touching her lover with a wand, at which the victim changes to a rolling snake, with a long glance of despair from the eyes about to sink into metamorphosis. His exquisite title-page for the book called 'Lotos-Leaves' and the lily-born nymph from the 'Old Dramatists' are exhibited also, in proofs of the unapproachable engravings of Mr. Marsh.

We hasten, before closing this curt preliminary notice, to signalize the development of a very different talent—the manly, open-air, sincere art of Mr. Homer. Since his war-pictures he has not done himself so much justice. He always brings us something quaint, uncopied, and freshly-viewed; and this year he puts forward several novelties of effect that strike the eye like revelations. Another artist, for instance, would hardly think of making a motive out of the horizontal stripes of a fence, relieved against a ground of very slightly differing value, so as to make the group at the fence appear like a decoration wrought upon a barred ribbon; yet that is the problem very effectively wrought out in his milking-picture. Where he is Mr. La Farge's neighbor, Mr. Homer seems to have tasked himself to supply the most stimulating contrast imaginable. The Psyche of the former is set side by side with one of Homer's blowsiest New England girls, who chews a straw as an expression of contrariness, while she leans against a bank of stubble, thereby teasing a practical-looking lover, who is not going to put up with her airs much longer. The finish is for once carried to an expressive and satisfactory point, and nothing can be more plainly set down than Mr. Homer's idyl of ill-temper, wherein we can see the acme of endurance accurately reached, and almost hear the rough Hosea-Bigelow patois as these immobile domestic Memnons clasp their knees in the sunshine. Another of the artist's pictures is less praiseworthy—indeed, shows Mr. Homer with all his originality and all his vices: it seems to be the memorandum of some effect wherein the artistic eye was caught with the sunny flash of pigeons and other white creature studded about a farm-shed; but the silvery patches have attained a distressing regularity, and the picture, dismissed at the point of the very rudest sketching, seems to have been hung with some satirical intention precisely where it is most compromising and conspicuous.


JUST PUBLISHED.

## *Sainte-Beuve.*

English Portraits. By C. A. Sainte-Beuve, of the French Academy. With an Introductory Chapter on his Life and Writings. 12mo, cloth, $2.

"Will probably excite more attention among the reading public here than any of M. Taine's books have done."—*London Correspondent Boston Advertiser.*

"Of course, Sainte-Beuve could not put his hand to any task, congenial or not, without producing something highly polished, artistic, delicate, or subtile. . . . His criticisms, more than anybody else's, are difficult to shut out."—*Boston Transcript.*

"The introductory chapter on Sainte-Beuve's life and writings supplies, with an excellent biographical study, one of the best prefatory chapters of the kind that we remember."—*Appletons' Journal.*

## *Mrs. Alexander.*

Ralph Wilson's Wierd. A Novel. By Mrs. Alexander, author of 'The Wooing O't' and 'Which Shall It Be?' 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

Maine's History of Early Institutions. $3.
Jones's Africa. $5.
Mill's Three Essays on Religion. $2 50.

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES OF THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

Price $1 25 each.

Tytler, C. C. Fraser—Mistress Judith.
Alcestis, A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About the Nose of a Notary.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't.
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall It Be?
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).
Walford, L. B.—Mr. Smith (nearly ready).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

## *Fysshe and Fysshynge.*

From the 'Boke of St. Albans,' A.D. 1496.

By DAME JULIANA BERNERS.

A copy of the English Edition of 1827 costs $82 to import.
Price of the American Edition, 1875, heavy tinted paper, 12mo, cloth, $1 50.
The charming old work, reproduced in all its quaintness. Edited by a member of the New York bar.

Sent on receipt of price by

HENRY K. VAN SICLEN, Bibliopole,
No. 133 Nassau Street, New York.

## *The American Educational Cyclopædia.*

A Reference Book for all matters of Education in the United States and in the World

It is valuable for Teachers, School Officers, Clergymen, Lawyers, Editors, Politicians, and Parents with children to educate. It is endorsed by the highest authorities in the land, among which are forty-seven out of the forty-eight State and Territorial Superintendents. It contains 300 pp. bound in cloth, $2; in manila covers, $1 50.

J. W. SCHERMERHORN & CO., Publishers,
14 Bond Street, New York.

## *Art-work in Silver*

### *The Gorham Company*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

## *North American Review.*

FOR APRIL, 1875.

ART. I. *COMTISM.* E. Gryzanowski.
" II. *THE RECENT REVOLUTIONS IN JAPAN.* Prof. W. E. Griffis (Imperial College, Tokio).
" III. *PAUPERISM.* Charles L. Brace.
" IV. *SPENSER.* James Russell Lowell.
" V. *THE GRANGER MOVEMENT.* C. F. Adams, Jr.
" VI. *CRITICAL NOTICES* of the latest Works of Bancroft, Maine, Mill, Higginson, Whitney, and others.

Single number, $1 50. Yearly subscription, $6.

*** *For sale by booksellers and newsdealers. Sent postpaid, on receipt of price, by the Publishers,*

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

*A SHORT HISTORY OF Greece, Sermons of an American-English Vicar, and the Story of a Scotch Marriage, engage Macmillan's "Reader" on next page.*

# *The Reader.*

GREECE "IN NUCE," A MODEL SHORT HISTORY—SERMONS OF A SCHOLAR AND A WORKER—GOOD RECENT FICTION.

Lucid and compact, the little 'History of Greece,' by C. A. Fyffe, M.A., is one of the masterpieces of the "Primer Series," edited with so much compressive skill by Mr. J. R. Green. Himself a historian of very rare powers of condensation, he seems to have communicated this faculty to his collaborator in the present instance. In the course of a small tract of 127 pages, Mr. Fyffe reviews the story of Greece from Theseus to the fall of Corinth, giving unity to the relations of its mosaic of states; explaining the religious origin of all the schemes for concerted action known to the Greeks; the abolition of regal rule, attributed to Theseus; the codification of existing laws by Draco; the triumph of wealth over caste in the time of Solon; the gradual rise of the Thersites of the period from his inconsiderable position to a more regarded one; and so on to the check given at Marathon to Asiatic conquest and the gradual refinement of power by means of amenity as seen in Perikles, Nikias, and Alkibiades. With this class of cultured leaders the author contrasts the Macedonian barbarism of Alexander: "If he is to be treated as a Greek, some of his acts can only be compared to those of the very worst tyrants." The gradual emancipation of society and representation of the people, limited and unsatisfactory in degree as it is in Greek history, engages Mr. Fyffe's attention whenever possible; the suppressed classes are the continual objects of his interest and curiosity. "In reading the history of Greece," he remarks, "we must bear in mind that we are reading the history of the masters only, not of the slaves; there was another part—the slave population—whose history, if it existed, would perhaps be too full of misery and suffering for us to bear to read it." In another part of the Primer we have Socrates fulfilling his mission of unbelief, dying for it, and introducing the idea of ethical skepticism carried to the point of martyrdom. "He taught that the gods wished men to honor them, not by beliefs," but by goodness, and thus gave birth to the Emersonian opinion that the gods "are the doubter and the doubt." The whole treatise is redolent of originality and acumen, while it is written in language that is plain to any child. It will be a just grievance on the part of readers of mature age if they are crowded out from access to this book by the young people, for whom it is principally intended.

The sermons of the late Rev. George Collyer Harris, the American-born vicar of a church in Torquay, are published by Macmillan & Co., with one of Miss Charlotte M. Yonge's agreeable memoirs for an introduction. Mr. Harris was the type of the well-read, intelligent, energetic pastor who dedicates his life in service amongst his flock. His sermons are sterling, and readable, and vital. In an "occasional" address delivered after a storm, he demands charity for the shipwrecked boatmen with an eloquence rarely heard, tempered with this exquisite piece of urbanity: "I plead for the poor young widow, . . . for the brave men too, . . . and I plead lastly—oh! pardon me, dear brethren, for my importunity—I plead for your own souls." Surely Whitefield, unbuttoning the pockets of Franklin, was not more successful than must have been this master of persuasion and grace.

After several recent Scotch novels of coast-life which have been exciting literary attention, the delicate little sketch of 'Elsie,' by "A. C. M.," has a different, a stiller, and a tenderer bouquet. It is a simple story of a pseudo Scotch marriage—the equivalent of a seduction—and the sweet behavior of the victim in her deserted after-life. It has no more plot than Lamb's tale of 'Rosamund Gray,' but it breathes the violet-incense of purity, and attracts by its graciousness and repose of style.


# MACMILLAN & Co.'s PUBLICATIONS.

NOW READY.

## *MACMILLAN'S MAGAZINE.*

No. 186, for APRIL.

CONTENTS: 1. Natural Religion. Part II.—2. Castle Daly: the story of an Irish Home Thirty Years Ago. Chaps. 33–35.—3. Roman Diggings. By Edward A. Freeman.—4. The Tercentenary Festival at Leyden. By J. P. Mahaffy.—5. The French Theatre under Louis XIV. By Henry M. Trollope.—6. "Recent Latin Verse" again. By H. A. J. Munro.—7. Alkamah's Cave: a Story of Nejd. By W. G. Palgrave. Part II.—8 Keble's Estimate of Milton. By Principal Shairp, St. Andrews.—9. Arthur Helps. By John Hullah.

*** Annual subscription, $4; single numbers, 40 cents.

## *A NEW SERIES OF HISTORY*

and Literature Primers. Edited by J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford, author of 'A Short History of the English People.'

*HISTORY OF GREECE.* By C. A. Fyffe, M.A., Fellow and late Tutor of University College, Oxford. With Maps. 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper covers, 30 cents. [*On Saturday.*

*ENGLISH GRAMMAR.* By the Rev. R. Morris, M.A., LL.D., President of the Philological Society of London, author of 'Historical Outlines of English Accidence,' 'Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar,' 18mo, cloth, 40 cents; paper covers, 30 cents.

"Both the historical and grammatical relations of the language are exhibited in a manner which leaves nothing to be desired in a book of practical reference. The younger pupil will find here everything essential to his progress ready prepared at his hand, while it will serve the more advanced student as a valuable refreshment and aid to his memory."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

*** Other volumes will follow.

*MACREADY'S REMINISCENCES* and Selections from his Diaries and Letters. Edited by Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart., one of his executors. With Four Portraits Engraved by Jeens. 12mo, $2 50.

"The whole forms one of the most interesting and, in many respects, valuable records of artistic and social life, as well as of the personal inward man. There is nothing omitted that a reader has a right to look for in such a record, as regards the history of the stage and the home life of the actor. With respect to the inward man Macready is even sterner with himself and his faults than he ever was with his fellow-actors and their offences. The book will raise him in the estimation of every reader."—*Athenæum.*

"This interesting work. . . . The eminent tragedian's early life is vividly told, and his associations with the stage narrated. Of many of his friends, also, Mr. Macready relates piquant anecdotes which are worth preserving."—*London Daily Telegraph.*

*WILLIAM, EARL OF SHELburne*, afterwards First Marquess of Lansdowne, The Life of. With Extracts from his papers and correspondence. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. Vol. I., 1737–1766. 8vo, $4.

"This is a volume of extraordinary interest and value. 'One of the suppressed characters of English history' is restored to us, and we marvel only that Lord Shelburne's autobiography should have waited to be edited by his great-grandson instead of having been published early in the present century by his son, unless, as we hear, its existence was really unknown till last year. Good as it is, to our great wonder it is better as a book of gossip than as a book of history. The characters of leading statesmen are gems, and epigrams which will dwell in the memory abound."—*Athenæum.*

*A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGlish People.* By J. R. Green, M.A., Examiner in the School of Modern History at Oxford. Crown 8vo, with Colored Maps, Genealogical Tables, and Chronological Annals. $2.

"We know of no record of the whole drama of English history to be compared with it. We know of none that is so distinctly a work of genius."—*Pall Mall Gazette.*

"It stands alone as the one general history of the country, for the sake of which all others, if young and old are wise, will be speedily and surely set aside."—*Academy.*

*THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK* for 1875. A Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Hand-book for Politicians and Merchants. By F. Martin. (Twelfth Annual Publication.) Revised after Official Returns. Crown 8vo, $3 50.

"Bears the marks of conscientious revision since its last issue, and with its chronicle of events, its comparative tables (considerably renewed), and its political and statistical account of the civilized states of the world, continues to be a most useful manual for study and reference."—*The Nation.*

"An exceedingly handy work for reference, which may be commended without qualification."—*Financier.*

*LEOPOLD VON RANKE'S HIStory of England*, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated from the German. 6 vols. 8vo, $24.

"The title but imperfectly represents the scope of the work, which really embraces the entire period of English history, beginning with the conquest by Cæsar, and ending at the accession of George the Third. The portion relating to the seventeenth century is treated in greater detail than the others. The historian examines it in the light of documents and information which he either discovered, consulted, or obtained for the first time. All the other sections are dealt with in a fresh and independent fashion, and are the more useful on account of the way in which the art of condensation has been applied to them. . . . He takes nothing for granted; he investigates every mooted point; and he is unwearied in consulting and comparing his authorities."—*London Daily News.*

*THE METHODS OF ETHICS.* By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo, $4.

"We have in the attempt to supplement this critical examination of ethical thought by a meagre outline of what we hold to be its true basis, been unable adequately to express our admiration for the work reviewed itself. If we spoke our whole mind we should accuse Mr. Sidgwick of sympathy with that disintegrating tendency of modern thought which seems to us the guidepost away from the true theory of morals, but the candor, largeness, and accuracy of his intellectual vision make his review a fitting prelude to any conclusion, for almost all the facts on which a moral hypothesis must be based are touched on in it."—*Spectator* (*London*).

*SELECTIONS FROM BERKELEY.* With Introduction and Notes. For the Use of Students in the Universities. By A. C. Fraser, LL.D., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo, $3.

"For an admirable selection from Berkeley's writings, including 'The Principles of Human Knowledge' and the 'Essay Toward a New Theory of Vision,' we are indebted to the accomplished editor of his complete works. Dr. Fraser has enhanced the value of this selection by the addition of explanatory and critical notes, with introductory and supplementary comments."—*Westminster Review.*

*THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF* Bishop Patteson. By C. M. Yonge, author of 'The Heir of Redclyffe.' With two Portraits on Steel. 2 vols. crown 8vo, $5.

"Miss Yonge's book is in one respect a model biography. It is made up almost entirely of Patteson's own letters. Aware that he had left his home for once and for all, his correspondence took the shape of a diary, and as we read on we come to know the man, and to love him almost as if we had seen him."—*Athenæum* (*London*).

"As the picture of a character, Miss Yonge's volumes have an interest of a high order. Bishop Patteson was of the stuff of the old-time saints, with a great many virtues in addition that the saints often lacked. He offered an extraordinary combination of resolution and earnestness, of the invincible will and the loving spirit. He is a brilliant figure in the noble class of men whose genius has been a matter of the life itself; whose idea and effort have been a passionate personal example. For the Episcopal Church, of which Bishop Patteson was essentially a product, such a type, such an example, is a precious possession."—*The Nation.*

*THE STORY OF A FELLOW-*Soldier. An Account of the Life and Missionary Labors of the Rt. Rev. John Coleridge Patteson, Bishop of the Melanesian Islands. By Frances Awdry. Extra fcap. 8vo, with six Illustrations, $1 50.

"This is the life of that brave, single-minded, and untiring Christian soldier, Bishop Patteson, written for the young. It is simply and pleasantly written, and presents a lively picture of the labors, hardships, troubles, and pleasures of earnest missionary work among the Polynesian Islands."—*Standard.*

"An abstract from the larger work put into simple language for children—a happy idea, for Bishop Patteson's career is one of which even infant minds may perceive the beauty and impressiveness."—*Nation.*

## NEW NOVELS.

*ELSIE:* A Lowland Sketch. By A. C. M. 12mo, paper, $1. [*Just published.*

*THE HARBOUR BAR.* A Tale of Scottish Life. 12mo, paper, $1.

"Bright, picturesque, and true to life. . . . The story is readable and pleasant from first to last, growing in interest as it proceeds, and everywhere showing that the author is really at home in all the vivid scenes which she describes."—*The Standard* (*London*).

"Upon the working out of Elsie's character the author has expended the more labor, and with good results, too, for rarely in fiction is there to be met with a more perfectly finished picture of a true-hearted, unselfish woman. . . . The description of the terrible catastrophe of the storm on the Harbour Bar is perfect in its graphic vigor and intensity."—*Morning Post* (*London*).

*FOR THE KING'S DUES.* By Agnes Macdonnell. 12mo, paper, $1.

"A book with simple scenes, unvarying in interest to the close."—*N. Y. World.*

*GOVINDA SAMANTA;* or, The History of a Bengal Raiyat. By the Rev. Lal Behari Day. 12mo, paper, $1.

"The work before us is not only excellently conceived and well-written, but it deals with topics which, if familiar to Indian administrators, are to the English reader as novel as the incidents in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'"—*Saturday Review.*

"Besides writing a novel of a perfectly original character, one which even the most blasé frequenter of the circulating library must acknowledge to be out of the common, he has contrived to give us an immense amount of information concerning the peasantry of India."—*London Morning Post.*

*** Macmillan & Co.'s Complete Classified Catalogue, by mail, for 6 cents.

MACMILLAN & CO., 21 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 22, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE Massachusetts Centennials at Concord and Lexington, in spite of the extraordinary weather, have been celebrated very happily, and their success will no doubt give a renewed stimulus to Centennial activity in Philadelphia. The rivalry between Concord and Lexington seems only to have had the effect of making the celebrations more perfect, and of bringing out more oratory and poetry than otherwise. It would probably be difficult to find any part of the country in which poetry and speaking so good as that of Lowell, Whittier, Dana, Curtis, and Emerson could be got for such an occasion. In looking over the speeches it is striking to observe how little of the old bombastic and flowery rhetoric of the ante-war period they contain, how much more like grown men every one behaved than probably would have been the case if the centennial had taken place, let us say, about the year 1859. The speech of Governor Chamberlain, of South Carolina, at Lexington was a vigorous appeal for a return to the old cordial and fraternal feelings which existed between the two States at the time of the Revolution, quoting very happily from Burke: "Magnanimity is not seldom the truest wisdom; and a great empire and little minds go ill together."

We see from the newspapers that it was popularly supposed that General Grant would take the occasion offered by these Centennials to do one of two things, either to resign his office on the ground that he felt himself incompetent any longer to perform its duties, or else to repudiate explicitly the "third term," and announce that nothing would induce him to depart from the precedent set by Washington. The licentious sheets which put this story in circulation felt, probably, that there was a want of absolute certainty about it; but they have now discovered something which the President's party actually did do on the way to the Centennial, which more than makes up to them for the painful silence of the President as to his "third-term" aspirations and his resignation. In a suit brought by a stockholder against the New York and New Haven Railroad Company, an injunction was recently issued by the Superior Court of Connecticut restraining that road from the giving of any free passes to legislators, or any State officers, or officers of the General Government. Curiously enough, the first public officials travelling on free passes who attempted to go over the road after the injunction were President Grant and his party, en route to Lexington and Concord. Governor Gaston's Secretary, who was escorting the President, indignantly protested against the outrage of stopping so distinguished a party, and loudly talked of insults, etc., but all without avail. The gate-keeper was inflexible, and the entire party were obliged to wait until tickets could be bought and punched before they were allowed to take the train. The incident was certainly an awkward one; for the system of granting free passes has been carried to such an extent of recent years that all our most prominent public men have come to look on transportation as a perquisite attached to their offices, and the Chief Magistrate is no doubt just as much entitled to his free pass as "Bosses" or statesmen of inferior grades. But it is very remarkable, whenever any reform is set on foot which cuts into perquisites, how bad the motive of the reformer always turns out to be; and so, in this case, the public-spirited stockholder who sued out the injunction has received a scathing rebuke from the president of the road, who, in his published order to enforce the injunction, declares that he cannot imagine what the stockholder's motive can be, unless it is to get himself talked about.

On Wednesday week a Philadelphia anti-slavery society, with an old-fashioned length of title, celebrated its hundredth anniversary. Vice-President Wilson occupied the chair, and Dr. Furness, Frederick Douglass, and Mrs. Lucretia Mott were also among the notables who took part in the proceedings. The good feeling and the absence of passion which one would naturally look for on such an occasion were generally observable in the speeches; but there are abolitionists and abolitionists, and Mrs. Stephen Foster saw fit in her historical retrospect to single out President Lincoln for denunciations which would still seem obsolete even if applied to Jefferson Davis. Mr. Wilson promptly vindicated the memory of the dead against this wild attack of an "irreconcilable," but the proprieties of the celebration had been violated beyond repair. Of Dr. Elder's oration we have as yet seen no report. The Pennsylvania Society represents the earliest organization of the anti-slavery sentiment of the country, and would, but for its having had funds to administer, have died a natural death at the close of the war, as did the societies which grew out of the later anti-slavery (or more properly pro-slavery) agitation in the second quarter of the present century. It was at first designed to prevent the kidnapping and enslavement of free negroes—a practice which we may suppose to have become flagrant in 1775, and to have been suspended almost immediately thereafter by the Revolution. The kidnappers and the Quaker philanthropists had other things to think of for the next few years, and when the Society was reorganized in 1787, with Franklin at its head, the discussion of human rights in the meantime made a broadening of its scope both logical and safe. It was now the Pennsylvania Society for promoting the abolition of slavery, the relief of free negroes unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the condition of the African race. Similar organizations sprang up in Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and even in Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. John Jay and Alexander Hamilton were presidents of the New York Society. Benjamin Rush, Ezra Stiles, Theodore Dwight, and Samuel Hopkins were other distinguished leaders in this movement, which held conventions, sent memorials to Congress praying for the abolition of slavery, and then melted away before Whitney and his cotton-gin and the increasing rigor of the laws against manumission in the Slave States.

The past week has been notable for cold and unseasonable weather. Of course general trade has been more or less injured, and to an extent not yet ascertained the crops have been damaged. The lateness of the season has prevented the trees from blooming, so that north of Virginia the fruit-crop will be saved. Cotton may have to be replanted, but this is not an alarming matter, as last year and the year before the same thing had to be done a week later in the season. All through the West the cold weather has prevented the settling of the earth roads; accordingly, railroad freights have been light. The war between the trunk roads is going on with vigor, and rates between the Atlantic cities and St. Louis and Chicago are lower than ever, with no prospect of an advance. The export trade of the country has been exceptionally light, both because prices here had been carried in all instances so near to the foreign markets that, with the advance in ocean freights, there was little or no profit in shipments, and because in some cases prices here had been absolutely advanced above the foreign markets. For the last few days breadstuffs and provisions have been heavy. Cotton has also declined, but is yet above Liverpool; the home demand is small, and the labor troubles in Eastern mills have their influence. The stock of cotton at our own ports and at Liverpool is larger than at the corresponding time last year, New York alone having about 50,000 bales more. In Wall Street, the week has been very quiet. The banks have added about $1,750,000 to their reserve, and raised their surplus reserve to about $10,000,000. Loans, both demand and on time, are more easily obtained and at

lower rates. Investment securities have advanced. Stock speculation has been very tame, and prices changed but little until it became known that the managers of the Panama Railroad had come to an understanding with the Pacific Railroad managers, when all the stocks in interest began to rise, Panama going up twenty per cent. in a single day. Damage from freshets on the Pacific railroads interfered with the rise in their securities. Gold has been very quiet but firm, the rates for sterling bills being still quoted at figures which justify coin exports; these, apparently, are only awaiting the importers' demand for remittances. In London money is easier; the Bank of England is gaining bullion, and its minimum rate for discounts is fully one-half above that of the outside discount banks.

---

The Louisiana difficulties have at last come to an end. The "Wheeler Compromise," so-called, has been accepted by all parties, and the legislature has actually organized and gone to work. By this compromise the members who were so summarily unseated by United States troops are restored to their places, thus making the House Democratic, but leaving the Senate Republican. On the other hand, Kellogg is to remain governor until January, 1877, and is not to be impeached for past offences. The compromise was adopted by a very large majority of the members of both political parties, and appears to be even better received than is usually the case with compromises. Governor Kellogg in his message talked about forgetting the past, and advised all parties to unite in the good work of restoring the credit and prosperity of the State. As regards the future, the feeling, both in and out of the State, seems to be a hopeful one, and, apparently, all concerned intend to try to keep good-natured.

---

One incident which took place toward the close of the happy adjustment of the above difficulties seems to us to demand the serious attention of every earnest friend of the present Administration. A colored member of the House, one of those who had been made a member by force of arms, and who was therefore unseated by the adoption of the compromise, made a little speech as he was about to retire, in which he not only expressed his acquiescence in the compromise arrangement (as did, by the way, most of the retiring members), but actually went so far as to add that he derived great satisfaction in giving up his seat from the fact that it would now be occupied by his old master, who had always been just and kind to him, and he considered himself honored thereby after a fashion which did not occur every day. Certainly Mr. Poindexter of Assumption, this colored ex-member of the House, should receive a severe reprimand from the active friends of his race throughout the North. If Southern freedmen are to be allowed to talk in this way, and to have their speeches publicly reported, the anguish in which the Civil Rights Bill was begotten will have been all in vain; it will be impossible to feign the necessary excuses for calling out the military in cases of political emergency, and the war of races, now almost the sole reliance for firing the Northern heart, will come to an untimely end.

---

Another "great philanthropist," it is reported, is soon to arise in Indiana, in the form of a gentleman who intends to give one million dollars for the establishment of a college to be devoted exclusively to the education of poor students—board, clothing, and tuition to be free. If the report is correct, therefore, we shall probably soon have another weak school, with underpaid teachers and an insufficient library, struggling along in some Western town, the inhabitants of which will point proudly to their "college" and learn to talk about "students" and "professors." We have the utmost respect for the feeling which prompts the giving of so large a sum of money, but we wish, as we have often wished before in like cases, that the generous impulse might have been accompanied by some exact knowledge of what is necessary to the attainment of the end proposed. To the self-made man (so often the donor of these large sums), who began life with twelve cents in his pocket, one million of dollars seems doubtless a sum of money sufficiently large to establish almost anything. Having, as a rule, no adequate understanding of the meaning and nature of a college, he does not know how little one million dollars can do towards establishing a real college, or how much good the same amount of money might do if put to use in connection with some college already *established*. If two or three hundred weak colleges, now living at a poor dying rate, could be rolled into two or three, or even into one, the cause of genuine education would take a much longer stride forward than it now is likely to take for a very long time to come. We respectfully submit to this last "great philanthropist" and his advisory friends, if it be not too late, that if his one million dollars should be expended in devising some expedient for successfully carrying out this last suggestion, more good would be done to American youth, rich and poor, than could possibly be done by very many millions expended in the way now proposed.

---

The answers of the defendants in the Emma Mine suit are getting published, but, as far as they have appeared, throw no new light on the swindle. The story told by Park and his friends is a plain, straightforward tale, which appears to clear them entirely. They were out in Utah, when, one morning, they heard of the Emma Mine as a valuable property, saw the owners, named their price, and took the mine. Then they went across to England, and offered to sell the mine. Messrs. Coates & Hankey said they thought it was just the sort of property they would like, and agreed to take it provided it were reported on favorably by some competent authority. Mr. Park and his friends at once said, "Whom would you like to have examine the mine?" to which Messrs. Coates & Hankey at once replied: "There is no one in the world so well fitted for the task, by education, ability, and character, as Professor Silliman of New Haven." In this way Mr. Silliman was engaged, not by Mr. Park at all, but by the persons to whom the mine had been sold, and it was on Mr. Silliman's report that they took it. More than this, they expressed themselves satisfied with the purchase, and later, when doubts had arisen as to the value of the property, the stockholders sent over a committee of their own to report, and the report of this committee was favorable also. Our readers know very well what is thought of this defence in the English courts.

---

According to the *Tribune's* Washington correspondence, the Secretary of the Interior has been requested by the President to resign. Facts, it is said, have been brought to his notice "so powerful, so convincing, and so threatening" that the President has been bound to notice them. The "simple fact," according to the *Tribune's* informant, is that "corruption has at last been traced within the bosom of the Secretary's family," or, in less metaphorical language, Mr. John Delano, the son of the Secretary, is implicated in improper transactions—though what they are is not stated, except that they relate to the Indian Department. It would be an excellent thing to have a searching investigation of the Indian Department, and the President could probably not do a more popular thing than begin at once to "trace corruption," even if it leads him to "the bosom of the Secretary's family"; but in case of such enquiries we beg to call his attention to one or two matters in advance. If it should turn out that Secretary Delano has been a corrupt man, and has been the cause of corruption in others; if his son has made large profits out of fraudulent contracts with the Indians, and he has connived at it, his removal will be undoubtedly welcomed by the public at large as a new proof of the hearty desire of the President to reform the civil service; but if, after the exposure, should there be one, Delano is given a new office, and his son John immediately secured in a new Government berth, we fear very much that there will be a good many ribald jeers in the newspapers about "civil-service reform," and that all attempts made by the President's friends to explain his conduct by reporting that privately he was very much opposed to re-

appointing them, but that the pressure brought by the politicians was really too much for him, will be received with incredulity.

---

The trial of the Guikwar of Baroda for an attempt to poison the Resident at his court, Col. Phayre, has ended in a disagreement of the commission. The case was conducted for the defendant by Serjeant Ballantine, brought out from England at a fabulous expense, and altogether was remarkable in more ways than one. The commission which tried it consisted half of English and half of Indian officials, and the examination of the witnesses brought before the judges all the curious details of life at an Eastern court. One of the witnesses was the supposed preparer of the poison, who maintained a perfectly self-satisfied air throughout the proceedings; and there was also his accomplice, who seems to have been generally disbelieved, and yet was so strongly moved by remorse or some other feeling that he attempted to take his life by throwing himself into a well. One of the difficulties of the case for the prosecution was that the Guikwar did not seem to have a sufficient motive for desiring to take the life of the Resident. He was displeased, indeed, with Col. Phayre, but he had applied to the Indian Viceroy, Lord Northbrook, to recall him, and, at the time of the poisoning, had every reason to believe his request would be granted, as shortly afterwards it was. The English press express much regret at the result of the trial, which certainly places the Viceroy in an extremely awkward position. To try a native prince on a charge of poisoning, and to have the trial end in a disagreement procured by the astuteness of an English barrister, will, it is feared, not have a good effect upon the native mind. Instead of being regarded by them as a proof of the impartiality of the administration of Anglo-Saxon justice, the natives may look upon it merely as a proof of weakness and vacillation.

---

The latest incident in French politics has been the appearance of a circular issued by the Minister of Justice, and addressed to the *procureurs-généraux* throughout France. The circular first saw the light in the columns of the London *Times*, the French correspondent of that paper having got possession of it in some way, greatly to the astonishment and chagrin of the French press. As published in the *Times*, the Minister (who is looked upon as a representative of liberal opinion) called the attention of the *procureurs* to the establishment of a republican government, and requested from them information as to the progress being made "towards perfectly established social order." He wished to know whether the jury bill passed in 1872 had aroused the hopes of the friends of order; whether, if the jury has proved sufficient for offences against the common law, it has equally protected society "against crimes and offences committed by means of the press, or all other ways of publicity"; whether, and in what cases, it had been found necessary to suppress, suspend, and prohibit the sale of papers in the streets. He then calls the *procureurs'* attention to "another kind of infraction of the law," less grave in itself than those which come before juries, but which by repetition with impunity would end "by resuscitating all the uneasiness which the constitutional laws should dissipate." This infraction of the law has consisted of "an unwonted deluge of photographs, drawings, emblems, and of publications, in which historical truth is not less belied than patriotism and good sense." He thinks the *procureurs* must have seen "whether this vast colportage was authorized," and must have deplored being obliged to punish subordinates "while those who sent them forth, who furnished them by thousands with the instruments of their misdemeanor, escaped by a defect in the penal laws from all responsibility." He also added: "The law which is wanting must be framed. You will give me your opinion on the form which it ought to take." This circular, which was directed at "all the parties," was kept back for a day or two, and then, after having appeared in London, and come back and gone all over France, was officially published, with one or two modifications—the passage referring to the suspension and suppression of newspapers being omitted, and the suggestion about the necessity of framing a new law being put in a hypothetical way. But the modifications are not serious, and the only thing the circular can be said to show is the determination of the Government to use all the means at its disposal to suppress discontent.

---

M. Wallon, to whom we owe the present constitution of the French Government—what has been called the Wallonate—seems well-fitted for the rôle of a saviour of society. As the Minister of Public Worship, he has infused new life into the languishing and almost despairing Liberal wing of the French Protestants, whose troubles have been frequently related in these columns. This he has done by a simple manifestation of his desire that they should obtain justice and be protected from persecution. The fatal gift of a Synod, procured of the Thiers Government through the influence of M. Guizot, produced a schism which was aggravated by the late ministry of MacMahon. Anti-Orthodox elections, conducted in disregard of a sort of iron-clad oath imposed by the Synod, were set aside as null, and great confusion was thus caused in churches where the Liberal Protestants were decidedly in the majority. Further troubles were obviously in store for them, but their anxiety is now over. A delegation which they sent up to Versailles had an interview with M. Wallon, and demanded equal treatment from the Government for themselves and their Orthodox brethren. They denied the right of the Government to expel so considerable a fraction from the Reformed Churches of France, and to erect it into a new sect to be dealt with specially. Separation, with retention of their own property, they would agree to, but they would not surrender their title to an unbroken descent from the Huguenots. M. Wallon replied that he was disposed to regard the differences in the Protestant Church not as a question of faith but as one of good or bad judgment in contention. He preferred, however, that the issue should first go before the Council of State for decision. There is little doubt that the solution proposed by the delegation will be reached. A year ago the Liberals were reluctant to entertain it, but what has happened meantime has convinced them they had better part company altogether with the Orthodox. and save their church property while they may. To this the Orthodox can hardly offer a serious resistance.

---

The Italian army numbered last autumn 840,000 men. About five-eighths of these constituted the standing army, and one-third of these again were under arms. The levy of the class born in 1853 was responded to by 296,113 young men, less 10,574 (called *renitenti*, or contumacious, for not putting in an appearance). The percentage of the absentees was thus 3.86 of those enrolled on the list; the year previous it had been only 3.71, showing an increase in the emigration to America. In certain provinces the percentage was very serious, as in Genoa (23.38), Naples (16.68), or Palermo (15.78). The army nevertheless continues to grow, and if it is the main cause of the annual deficit of the kingdom, it is also a powerful instrument of national regeneration. Instruction has been made obligatory in the army, and the number of illiterate soldiers at the end of the three years' service is steadily diminishing. The classes of 1845, 1846, 1847, with whom instruction was optional, went out of service with 43.51, 40.41, and 34.95 per cent. of their number still illiterate. On the other hand, the classes of 1848, 1849, 1850, retired with only 14.6, 8.89, and 7.45 per cent. illiterate. The machine of course works slowly. More than half the net product (for the standing army) of the levy of 1873 belonged in the category of the *analfabeti;* 41,829 could both read and write, 3,127 could write only, the rest (54.24 per cent.) neither. This is better than was the case with the class of 1849, called into service with 56.99 per cent. of *analfabeti;* but the class of 1850 embraced at the outset only 53.78 per cent. Satisfactory progress in the regimental schools is now made a condition of dismissal. Two-thirds of the recruits come from the ranks of farm-laborers, shepherds, drovers, and mechanics, and the value to them of their military schooling is incalculable.

## THE WHEELER COMPROMISE AND THE "BANDITTI."

THE adoption by the Louisiana Legislature of the "Wheeler Compromise" gives the House of Representatives to the Conservatives and the governorship to Kellogg for the remainder of his term of office, and at the same time guarantees him against impeachment for past offences. This probably ends the political turmoil which has been going on in the State since the election of 1872 in the only way it could have been settled, and will give a much-needed opportunity for the restoration of confidence and the revival of industry. It is hardly likely that between now and December there will be any renewed disturbances, and the thorough frightening the Republicans have received in the past few months by the Democratic victories has probably awakened the Republican leaders to the importance of letting the South alone for the summer at any rate. Indeed, within the past week we have met in an Administration organ with the most amusing elicitations on the orderly and peaceful condition of Arkansas, attributable, we are told, to the wise moderation of the last Congress.

From more than one point of view, we must say that we look upon the Wheeler Compromise with profound satisfaction. It is not merely that it pacifies an important State, and relieves the entire public of the anxiety which has filled every mind with regard to it for the last year or two, but it throws a great deal of light on the question of the general sobriety, intelligence, and capacity for self-government of the Southerners, and completely upsets the wild theories with regard to their habits and disposition which the politicians have invented within the last few years. Down to the time of the war, though there were wide differences of political opinion between Whigs and Democrats, and between both and the Free-soilers, the general theory of politics on which they all acted was that differences were to be settled in the American way, by votes, or in the courts, if political questions took a judicial form; that the Constitution was the supreme law of the land, and that all questions must be settled under it; finally, that the voting population of the country, North and South, were amenable to reason, and would give up a hopeless cause when they once saw it to be hopeless. The war seemed for a time to make the truth of this theory doubtful, but only for a time, and at the end of it the Southerners, without trying to keep up a desperate guerilla warfare, as many people supposed they would, gave the best proof that they were not very different from the rest of us by throwing down their arms and submitting to the terms that were imposed on them. All this was very encouraging to those who hoped for the welfare and prosperity of the South, for it was obvious that the South must be governed by the Southerners, and the character of the government must be determined by their character.

Within the past four or five years, however—that is, since the Southern whites have begun to recover from the stupor which paralyzed them at the end of the war, and have undertaken the actual government of their States—a new and strange theory has been propounded with regard to them by the extreme Republican politicians, which if it had been true would really have inclined every well-wisher of his country to hopelessness, and prevented him from caring even for the result of the "fall elections." According to this theory, the South was inhabited by a wild, semi-barbarous tribe of men, known as "ex-rebels," speaking, indeed, the same language with ourselves, and like ourselves wearing clothes, but having hardly any other traits in common. Unlike civilized people, they engaged in no pursuits of any kind, agricultural, industrial, or commercial, but spent their time in roaming about the country armed to the teeth with every kind of weapon, offensive and defensive, which they used in promiscuous attacks on Union men, one-legged soldiers, or negroes. Sometimes in the dead of night they banded themselves together and had a night's pleasure in cutting negroes' throats, and sometimes they contented themselves with threats, "ostracism," and "intimidation." They did all these things without any provocation, for the love of crime and lawlessness; and the natural conclusion to which the theory pointed was that they must be dealt with by the troops, by court-martial, and that with such wretches the writ of habeas corpus was a mere cover for bloodshed and rapine. When Sheridan went down to New Orleans and announced that he found the State full of "banditti," and that they must be disposed of as rapidly as possible without regard to law, the theory was only pushed to its logical conclusion. As a matter of fact, if Sheridan had been asked to point out some of these "banditti," he would probably have been obliged to select some white-haired old merchants of New Orleans, known there as "prominent Conservatives," to whom a night spent in intimidating negroes in the swamps would only have been unpleasantly suggestive of chills and fever. But for all that, Sheridan's "banditti" despatch was at once caught up by the Northern extremists as a happy demonstration of their theory of the "ex-rebels," and most of the time of the last Congress was spent in trying to arrange legislation based on it.

This would undoubtedly have been a natural way of managing the government if the Southern Whites were bloodthirsty cut-throats and outlaws, whose only passion in life was to make the negro's life miserable to him, to prevent him from working, and to "ostracise" Union men. On the other hand, the natural way for cut-throats and outlaws to behave when they found that the United States was really not going to allow them to vent their passions at will upon the negro and the Union man, would have been either to submit in sullen silence to their punishment or else stir up more trouble, and make the State uninhabitable, by secret assassinations and a petty and empty system of revenge. Assassination was one of the things most commonly predicted at the time of Sheridan's "banditti" despatch if severe measures were not taken. Nevertheless, when we ask ourselves, What have the banditti actually done? we are compelled to admit that they have shown just that spirit of conciliation and compromise which has distinguished the Anglo-Saxon race in political matters for centuries—have taken what they could get, and relinquished what they could not get, with a prudence and moderation worthy of Massachusetts or Michigan.

In the first place, it must be remembered that the Conservatives have always maintained, with a very good show of proof, that they carried the election of 1872, and that Kellogg has no right to the office of governor. In the second place, they maintain—and as to this there is no doubt they were right—that they were defrauded of the election of 1874 by the Returning Board, and that a number of the members of the legislature were actually turned neck and heels into the street by the troops of the United States in order to arrange the majority to suit the Republican politicians. In fact, since 1872 the majority of the people of the State have by force been deprived of all voice in the government. Notwithstanding this, there has been no resistance to the United States. Even in the midst of the only rising which took place during this period, at the mere name of the United States all disorder ceased, and the means of redress sought have been appeals to and arguments before Congress or the Executive. When, last winter, a sub-committee of Congress went down to New Orleans to examine into the last election, they went before it and stated their case; when this sub-committee reported at Washington, and the rest of the committee then went down in its place, they did it over again. Of course, they did not recognize any right in the United States to carry on their government, but they tried to get the best they could. Finally, when the whole matter was taken in charge by Mr. Wheeler, who had no more real authority in the matter than King David Kalakaua, the Conservatives went over the case with him, too; and now their moderation and good sense are rewarded by obtaining in this somewhat extraordinary way a part, if not all, of their rights. In short, from first to last the "banditti" have behaved just as we should have behaved under the same circumstances, and in the same sort of way that our ancestors behaved a hundred years ago in meeting the oppressions of England. As a proof that the South is not lacking in those political qualities which have made the country at large prosperous and happy, the Wheeler Compromise should not be overlooked.

## THE SUPREME COURT ON THE LOBBY.

MR. NICHOLAS P. TRIST, the readers of the life of Jefferson will remember, married the grand-daughter of the great Virginian, was present at his death, and received his last words. At the close of the Mexican war, Mr. Trist was the Commissioner of the United States who negotiated the peace concluded by the Treaty of Guadaloupe-Hidalgo. In the course of his service as Commissioner, and while hostilities were still in progress, Mr. Trist passed through the military lines, incurred some dangers, and also some expenses. The result was that he had a claim against the Government which was not paid at the close of the war. With regard to this claim, as with regard to any other, two things are tolerably evident: first, that if the United States owed Mr. Trist for moneys expended on their account, it was their duty to pay him; and, second, that if his claim was just and legal, he should have been paid without any extraordinary delay or being put to any extraordinary cost. Nevertheless, twenty years passed, and this claim remained unsettled. We have repeatedly shown that the manner in which the executive branch of the Government is carried on produces an immense horde of professional office-seekers or politicians (for the terms are convertible); and we now have occasion to add, that the manner in which the legislative branch of the Government is carried on produces another and smaller but scarcely less mischievous horde, called a professional lobby. For an aged citizen of the highest respectability to get a just claim paid by the simple process of asking for it, or going before Congress himself with his vouchers and evidence, would have been, practically speaking, an impossibility. So Mr. Trist, after pondering over the propriety of the matter for twenty years, did what almost every one else in like circumstances would do, he employed one of the lobby, or, if not one of the lobby in the depraved and obnoxious sense of the word, still he employed an agent, to work the claim up and get it through, in consideration of receiving one-quarter of it. In 1870, Congress passed a bill for the relief of Mr. Trist appropriating for that purpose $14,559 90.

In the meantime, the agent had died and his son had succeeded to the business and to the bargain; but him Mr. Trist refused to pay, upon the ground that the business had been grossly neglected, though he offered to pay a reduced amount. Thereupon, the agent applied to the Treasury to stop the payment of the money to Mr. Trist, which the Treasury kindly did, and the agent next walked into the Court of the District of Columbia and filed a bill in equity to enjoin Mr. Trist from receiving any of the money appropriated to him by Congress. The Court granted this injunction, and rendered a final decree against Mr. Trist, from which he appealed to the Supreme Court. The money remained in the Treasury pending the appeal, and Mr. Trist died without ever receiving a cent of it. Since his death, the appeal has been brought to a hearing, and the Supreme Court, passing by, with a mere allusion, a number of fatal objections to the decree of the Court below, has boldly set its unanimous condemnation upon the entire transaction, dissolving the injunction, reversing the decree, and stamping all such contracts as contrary to public policy and morality, and as absolutely void.

That this decision shall not be misunderstood as being confined to an exceptionally bad case, the Supreme Court has taken care to say that the agent is represented "to have been a lawyer of ability and high character" and his son "to be equally worthy"; and the Court also adds that there is no reason to believe that their services "involved anything corrupt or different from what is usually practised by all paid lobbyists in the prosecution of their business." "Nevertheless," says the Court, "the theory of our Government is that all public stations are trusts, and that those clothed with them are to be animated in the discharge of their duties solely by considerations of right and justice and of public good. They are never to descend to a lower plane. But there is a correlative duty resting on the citizen in his intercourse with those in authority, whether executive or legislative, touching the performance of their functions. He is bound to respect truth, frankness, and integrity. Any departure from the line of rectitude in such cases is not only bad in morals, but involves a public wrong." "If," pursues the Court, "the instances were numerous, open, and tolerated, they would be regarded as measuring the decay of the public morals and the degeneracy of the times. No prophetic spirit would be needed to foretell the consequences near at hand."

This is very plain language, coming from the highest tribunal in this country, and language very much needed at this time. We all have reason to be grateful to the Court for not putting its decision upon some of the technical objections which would have been equally fatal to the case from a legal point of view. The Supreme Court has been at the pains to say, in a manner not likely to be forgotten or misunderstood, that all and the best of the present lobby business in Congress is pernicious, immoral, and void; and it has also indirectly read the Court below a pretty strong lecture upon the impropriety of a judicial tribunal lending its aid to carry out these nefarious transactions. Indeed, "the degeneracy of the times" seems to be somewhat indicated by the fact that the lower Court, composed of lesser men, several of whom have been members of Congress and politicians, should have thought a lobby contract as good an agreement as any other, and as much entitled to the assistance of a court of equity.

But what is a man circumstanced like Mr. Trist to do? Is he to come to Washington and spend winter after winter accomplishing nothing? Is he to spend half a lifetime in witnessing a meritorious bill for his own relief pass the Senate at one Congress and the House at another Congress, and never succeed in passing both at the right time? Is he to stay at home and amuse himself by writing petitions and letters to members to present and throw into waste-paper baskets? Is he to forego all hope at the beginning, and with anger and the knowledge of injustice in his heart go through life wronged by a country that is able and not unwilling to do justice to all its creditors? What Mr. Trist's lawyer told him he must do was this: After writing to all the members he knew in Congress, he must write to his "friends to write to any member of Congress. Every vote tells, and a simple request may secure a vote; he [the member] not caring anything about it. Set every man you know at work, even if he knows a page, for a page often gets a vote." In conjunction with this advice, let us consider for a moment how very easy the process must be of procuring just legislation for private claims. "A simple request may secure a vote." Why? "Because the member does not care anything about it." Even if a man knows a page in Congress let him write to the page, "for a page often gets a vote." These pages are, as our readers are aware, very small boys, nimble-footed and quick of eye, who run with messages to the Speaker's desk. How very gratifying to every lover of his country to reflect that, in the modern Congress, "a page often gets a vote." With legislation moving year after year, and Congress after Congress, and party after party, upon such wheels as these, what is the citizen to do who desires and is entitled to receive legislative aid? Is it a wonder that a lobby exists? Is it not evident that a lobby is the product of Congress; that the atrocious complexities of the system, and the still more atrocious want of system to which we have been for years calling attention, render a lobby inevitable, and will continue to keep a lobby in existence despite the condemnation of the courts and the invectives of the press, and even despite the penal statutes which Congress may see fit to pass? That a demand produces a supply is one of the well-known laws that govern trade, and this work of collecting the debts of the Government is to a certain extent trade. A disorganized, incompetent Congress is a continuing, abiding demand for a lobby, and it is a demand which has not hitherto failed and will not hereafter fail to produce a supply. Whoever wishes the lobby annihilated must first see to it that the business of Congress shall be conducted in such a way that it can with reasonable certainty be done without a lobby.

The King of the Lobby, as Mr. Ward is termed in Washington, during the last winter pictured to the Committee of Ways and Means the business of the lobby, and drew the somewhat partial conclusion that it is a business in the legitimate sense

of the word, having for its precedent and parallel the English parliamentary lawyers. There is really no parallel between the two. The Supreme Court, in the case which we have hitherto considered, has very clearly drawn the distinction between what is proper and what is immoral in this professional assistance. "We entertain no doubt," says the Court, "that in such cases . . . an agreement expressed or implied for purely professional services is valid. Within this category are included draughting the petition to set forth the claim, attending to the taking of testimony, collecting facts, preparing arguments and submitting them orally or in writing to a committee or other proper authority, and other services of like character. All these things are intended to reach the reason of the person to be influenced. They rest on the same principle of ethics as professional services rendered in a court of justice, and are no more exceptional." During the last winter Congress seemed for a time inclined to act on the information, which it obtained apparently from Mr. Ward, and entertained a project to set up a bar of parliamentary lawyers in Washington. This bar it was intended should be limited by statute to very nearly the same kind of services which the Supreme Court has indicated to be proper. The compensation was to be fixed or limited, and they were not to engage in the business of "buttonholing," or "requesting," or setting pages "to get votes."

This project is very well in its way, and has the merit of looking in the right direction; but it must be the sequence and not the initiative of Congressional reform. The most exemplary bar in the world will not secure to us a well-ordered, intelligent Congress. Respectable professional assistants in the administration of justice will not be effective until we have some justice to be administered. No one outside of Congress would think of setting up a profession of attorneys and counsel before we establish a court for them to practise in. So long as we maintain a system which requires members to be "seen" and "requested" and induced to vote by little boys, the most austere bar of parliamentary lawyers will not "get a bill through." The English system requires parliamentary lawyers because it secures to every petitioner a strict parliamentary trial. And this will be better appreciated when it is understood that the system embraces the following elements: 1st. All applications for private bills must be filed and advertised before the beginning of the session. 2d. A sworn committee of each House then makes up impartial committees, and assigns the applications to them. 3d. The members of these committees are bound to declare any bias or interest either of themselves or of their constituents if it be a local measure. 4th. Any person interested either for or against a bill may challenge a member of a committee as he would a juror. 5th. The committees sit with open doors and try the case, keeping and reporting to the House an exact record of their proceedings. Finally, when they report for or against the bill, it goes upon a calendar, and is as certain to be reached and acted upon in its order as a lawsuit upon the trial docket of a court of justice. Compare this system with one which selects a few favored measures and gets them through (according to Mr. Ward) by giving costly dinners to hungry Congressmen, and it will be seen how preposterous is the hope that a parliamentary bar will immediately supplant the lobby. The only reliance of those who wish well for national legislation must be in the resolute demand of all thinking men that private bills and special legislation be gotten out of Congress. The conclusion of the whole matter is that special legislation breeds a lobby, and a lobby breeds fraudulent claims and the corruption of Congress.

## MODERN ENGLISH COMEDY.

LONDON, March 27, 1875.

IN one of the most interesting books recently published in this country, 'Macready's Reminiscences,' an account is given of an unsuccessful venture made by him in 1837–38 to regenerate the national drama. He became manager of Covent Garden Theatre, engaged an excellent troupe of performers, spared no labor nor expense, produced nothing but the highest classical dramas, chiefly Shakspere's, and brought both himself and the theatre to the verge of ruin. Since his trial, several attempts have been made by enterprising managers to revive a taste for the higher class of dramatic performances, but they have invariably failed. Everything has been tried, but very little has come of it. Melodrama crushed out the national drama, and under the auspices of Mr Dion Boucicault it was moderately successful for a time. But just as melodrama destroyed the national drama, so burlesque destroyed melodrama. For the last ten years or so the whole mimetic energies of Shakspere's countrymen and countrywomen have been devoted to writing, acting, and seeing fantastic travesties of the legendary myths of early classic and prehistoric times, and to reproducing in coarse English phraseology and by coarse English actors and actresses the indelicate conceits of Offenbach and Lecocque. By such performances, and by no other means, have the descendants of Garrick, and Foote, and Macready been enabled to fill their houses. Young officers, clerks in public offices, and tradesmen's apprentices have been lured from their clubs and lodging-houses by the graceless attractions offered at the different burlesque theatres, and the theatres have not been slow to outrival each other in their allurements. Things had come to this pass, that no man or woman with any appreciation of wholesome amusement, or indeed with any sense of modesty, could venture within the walls of nine out of every ten theatres in London. But when matters get to their very worst they begin to mend, and this year, I am glad to say, the tide of propriety has commenced to flow.

Among the miscellaneous duties attached to the office of the Lord Chamberlain is the "oversight of the Queen's musicians, comedians, trumpeters, etc.," and all theatres in towns in which a royal palace is situated require to be licensed by the Lord Chamberlain, and no new play can be produced anywhere without his license. The Lord Chamberlain, who is a very high officer of state, a member *ex officio* of the Cabinet, though he never attends it, and overwhelmed with more prominent if not more important functions, does not himself discharge the censorial duties of his office. He has an "Examiner of Plays," who licenses new plays or adaptations of old ones, inspects all the theatres under the Lord Chamberlain's jurisdiction, grants or suspends or withdraws licenses, and generally devotes himself to the propriety of the theatres. Some months ago the examiner, who had, perhaps, grown too old in the service, was succeeded by a man of determination and ability, and his whole energies have been given to the purification of the theatrical stables; and, considering the short time he has been employed in this good work, he has swept them fairly clean. Licenses have been refused in more than one instance, and censures and warnings have been freely administered. The effect of this energetic action has been that several theatres have changed hands, new programmes have been prepared, a different stamp of performers has been engaged, a wholesomer tone pervades the theatrical atmosphere, and three or four different houses are filled every night by ladies and gentlemen who have hardly been within the doors of a London theatre, except during the opera season, for years.

One small theatre, the Prince of Wales's, has, during all this time, maintained itself with perfect propriety, and, by the careful selection of the pieces performed and the excellence of the leading performers, it has succeeded in gaining a considerable reputation both as a theatre and as a training-school for actors. It is a bijou-theatre, not much bigger than a large-sized drawing-room. Both stage and auditorium are tastefully and appropriately fitted up; the company is small but admirably chosen; and the orchestra, which is efficiently trained and conducted, performs not in the body of the house, but underneath the stage—an arrangement which has the double advantage of gaining space and moderating or deadening the sound of the more ambitious instruments. In this little theatre what may be called modern English comedy has been chiefly performed. Among the writers of this modern comedy the late Mr. Robertson is the most eminent. His plays are, like Mr. Trollope's works, slight, easy, and unimpassioned. Not one of them can be said to have a plot of any real interest, but by skilful dialogue, a nice arrangement of contrivances which are effective on the stage, and a delicate insight into the kind of everyday incidents that amuse or interest the public, he has managed to make almost every play he has written fairly successful. His best known pieces are "Play," of which the scene is laid at Baden-Baden, in the good old gambling days, during the summer months when it is thronged with English tourists radiant with eccentricities; "Ours," in which the Crimean War figures prominently, and English vanity is flattered by the opportunity of gazing upon the fortitude of British officers braving the horrors of a Crimean winter and being jolly under the most trying circumstances; "Caste," in which the English notion that one man is not as good as another, if the one man belongs to the aristocratic classes and the other does not, is pleasantly ridiculed; and "Society," in which the struggles of the *nouveaux riches* to get into society by the power of "the check-book" are feelingly and amusingly portrayed.

These plays were all, I think, written for the company at the Prince of Wales's Theatre, and they have mainly contributed to its popularity. There is very little in any of these pieces, or indeed in any of Mr. Robertson's plays, that could offend the most critical taste, or perhaps even the most prudish. But there is a curious sameness and want of versatility in the leading idea of nearly all of them, and that idea is the superiority in the world, and especially in the matrimonial world, of intellect and refinement over money. There is nearly always an interesting student, a man of letters, of good family but impoverished means, a wealthy member of the commercial classes trusting exclusively to his money, and a beautiful and accomplished heiress—generally an orphan. Designing aunts or worldly mothers intend the heiress for the millionaire, but destiny is too strong for them, and the heiress marries the pauper. This is the string on which Mr. Robertson always plays. There is not much novelty nor originality in it, but, thanks to the excellent acting of the company and the careful attention to all the dramatic proprieties and situations in the several pieces, it seems never to pall upon the audience. There is but one drawback to the success of this house, and that is its situation. Professional and social exigencies have so ordered life in London that your whole day is disarranged each time you think of going to a theatre. People breakfast late, go late to work, come home to a late dinner, and after dinner it is too late to do anything but go to bed. Public offices follow Parliamentary hours and do not open much before mid-day. If a man has anything to do, and does not begin to do it till twelve o'clock, he cannot finish it till six or seven ; and as the theatres generally commence about those hours, it is obvious that, if they are situated some miles from where most people live, most people will not go often to them. The Prince of Wales's Theatre has always suffered from this inconvenience, and though it has done its best to counteract it by commencing as late as theatrical customs permit, it has only partially succeeded.

Seeing this inconvenience of situation, and desiring to attract the best kind of audience to his house, Mr. Hare, for some years the leading comedian at the Prince of Wales's Theatre, has just opened the Court Theatre, on the skirts of Belgravia, and it is expected that, during the season which commences after Easter, this house will be well frequented. I went there on Thursday night, and, although the Easter recess had commenced, and people were flocking out of London all day, and many do not care to go to places of amusement on Good Friday Eve, I was surprised to see so good a house. The building is small, but, in all the splendor of its new decorations and fresh colors, it looked bright, and clean, and promising. The piece performed, 'Lady Flora,' has been written by a new play-writer in avowed imitation of Mr. Robertson ; it is even said that it was written for a bet in some surprisingly short space of time—twenty-four hours, I was told—to show how easily Mr. Robertson could be imitated ; and the author, it must be admitted, has caught to perfection the manner of his model. The Lady Flora is the ordinary heiress of Mr. Robertson's play, without father or mother, but with boundless wealth. She has been engaged since childhood to her cousin, a jolly, good-looking, rollicking Englishman, fond of shooting and hunting, and very little else, a sort of refined Tony Lumpkin of the present day. He has a couple of friends staying with him—a sporting squire and the tutor or "coach" of his college. There are two other characters—an old Anglicized French duke and his ward, Sophie Duchesne by name, who returns home from India unexpectedly, and, after turning her guardian's house upside down, completes the catastrophe by assisting Lady Flora to transfer her affections from her cousin to his "coach," and by engaging herself to Lady Flora's cousin. There is not much in such a play. It wants plot and point, and, if badly acted, would be dull. But it moves pleasantly from scene to scene ; the dialogue is sparkling and easy ; the situations are natural, and the acting is admirable. A comfortable theatre, within easy reach of most people's houses, an excellent company, well-selected, amusing plays, refined acting, and an entire absence of impropriety, are not often found in combination in this country. If this revival or adaptation of good modern English comedy should be as well supported as it deserves to be, we shall have a new source of legitimate amusement in this metropolis for which many of us will be grateful.

## PROGRESS OF THE CHURCH CONFLICT IN PRUSSIA.

BERLIN, March 28, 1875.

THE prediction I ventured to make in my last letter has been fulfilled, viz., the funds hitherto contributed by the state for the maintenance of the Roman Catholic Church in Prussia are no longer to be paid to any of the archbishops or bishops contravening the laws of the state. Dr. Falk declared that the measure had not been brought about by the Encyclical of February 5, though it was due to this last *brutum fulmen* of the Vatican that it was already at so early a day submitted to the approval of the Landtag. This statement is of importance as a further proof how firmly the Government is resolved "to fight it out on this line." It may also perhaps be taken as an indication that the rumor was not without foundation that, in case the bishops had dared to make an official publication of the Encyclical, a sweeping removal had been decided upon by the Government. And everything else points the same way. Nothing new is said in the debates on the Church question—it would, indeed, be hard to find anything new to say about it—but the manner in which things are said has undergone a considerable change. On the side of the State party there is comparatively very little feeling shown, but their adversaries are handled in a much rougher way. Bismarck has very clearly pointed out the two reasons of this remarkable change. Windthorst had again sought shelter behind the shot-and-shell-proof rampart of the Ultramontanes : the command to obey God rather than man. Amid the applause of the majority, Bismarck followed on his heels and sat down close by his side. He declared that he not only entirely agreed with the gentleman from Meppen, he (Bismarck) was really convinced of that eternal truth and acknowledged its binding force without any reservation ; hence he could not, upon the bidding of the Pope, war upon his king, to whom he owed obedience by the law of God, but would, from the fulness of his heart, repeat the old Prussian war-cry, "With God for king and fatherland." The Ultramontanes, and they alone, could not join him in this war-cry, therefore they, and they alone, stood as enemies against all the rest of the people. Never before has this been said with such directness by any of the ministers, because it is only now that they have given up all hope, not only of a reconciliation, but also of any compromise for a long time to come. They are satisfied that they are to have war, and consequently they are determined to wage it as a war must be waged in order to be successful. And they feel much surer now that they will wage it successfully than they did a year or even six months ago. Windthorst had boasted of the growing strength of the Ultramontanes. "Ah, gentlemen," Bismarck replied, "rest assured I too have grown stronger." Windthorst proves how well he is aware of that by crying at the top of his voice, like an auctioneer, liberal notions of the best-approved pattern. But the mice have their suspicions about bacon roasted in that kitchen. Of this a word or two presently.

The Government does not pretend that the withdrawal of its contribution to the support of the Catholic Church can of itself have any material effect, because it amounts to only about a million thalers. The sum, though large enough to be regretted, is altogether too small to work as a check upon the Church's power of action. Bismarck calculated that, if he had to appraise the Holy Father and his Jesuits, he would put them down for about 200,000,000 : he thought he had pretty good information, and this estimate was not any too high. And this sum he declared amply sufficient not only to live upon quite comfortably, but also "to take part in the game of high politics." So he is far from deceiving himself about the direct force of his last blow ; on the contrary, at the outset, he spoiled the pleasure of his adversaries in afterwards taunting him with its ineffectiveness. At the same time, he stated with great precision and directness why he had dealt it, nevertheless : we cannot afford to serve as a laughing-stock to the whole world for furnishing, ourselves, to our enemies the means with which they fight us. It is this declaration which makes the provisional and conditional withdrawal of the contribution perhaps the most incisive measure the Government has thus far ventured upon. Even from the most simple-minded peasant the fact can no longer be concealed that the Ultramontanes will, in the fullest sense of the term, be considered as enemies of the state so long as they do not unreservedly submit to the supremacy of the law. It is a question of sovereignty, and they have to make their choice whom they will acknowledge as sovereign. Bismarck had already defined his standpoint with the utmost clearness when he said, two or three years ago : "Sovereignty is one and indivisible, the sovereignty of the laws."

From the purely material point of view the Ultramontanes will, in the course of time, suffer much more from the new law which secures the communities a share in the administration of church property. The opposition to this law was comparatively weak, because the great majority of the Ultramontanes did not dare to claim the ownership of the church property for the church taken as a whole. Only one delegate—it should, however, be mentioned that he was a Polish priest—was bold enough not only to assert that, but also to draw the conclusion from it that in fact the Pope, as the head of the Church and the *vicarius Christi*, was the only and absolute owner. Windthorst, without exposing himself in such a gross

manner, actually came to about the same conclusion. He declared "the hierarchical constitution" to be "the nature, the true essence of the church," and therefore the administration of the church property had to be left entirely to "the hierarchy." The Government-Commissioner Foerster met him by reminding him that the *Obertribunal* (Superior Court), in conformity with the *Landrecht*, had declared the communities to be the owners of the church property, and therefore everything relating to the church property had evidently to fall under the civil law. It was the honest truth when Dr. Falk asserted that this was quite a general question, "an organizing law," and that it could not, with justice, be counted among the "conflict-laws." On the other hand, it is undeniable that it has been the conflict which has caused the Government to clear away the old rubbish from this "general question," in regard to which hitherto hardly anything was clear and certain but that the Minister Ladenberg, by a circular of January 6, 1849, had renounced all the rights of the state in favor of the bishops. And it is as undeniable that, in the long run, the law will do a good deal towards emancipating the Catholics from Rome, by getting them gradually accustomed to think and to act for themselves. An immediate effect is as little to be expected from it as from the older law, which, in certain eventualities, gives the community the right to elect themselves a priest. Both these laws are steps in the right direction, and if not we, at least our children will live to see their beneficial effect. They both carry the principle of self-government into the church, and that is indeed much gained. But self-government, in order to be beneficial, must be a plant of slow growth. This the liberal parties are aware of, and they have made up their minds to work and wait with patience, while the leader of our Ultramontanes affects to ignore entirely this all-important truth, which has been the great stumbling-block of the French since 1789.

Windthorst has learned something from Bismarck. You remember how Bismarck, in the first great crisis of his revolutionary political career, tried to effect a sudden turn in the strong current of public opinion by promising a German parliament and universal suffrage. These promises apparently stood in such a contrast with the former policy of the "Junker" that all over South Germany they were considered as absolutely ludicrous. I remember a well-known professor in Heidelberg saying: "These baits, held forth by this hand, are not good enough to entice a dog from behind the stove." Now, Windthorst seems to think us sufficiently accustomed to such sudden changes to treat us also on his part to such a jump from midnight into bright noonday, forgetting, however, the old Roman adage: "*Si duo faciunt idem non est idem.*" The other day he declared in the Landtag that no peace was possible until we adopted the American system, viz., the complete separation of church and state. Bismarck's bold bidding for the favor of liberal men was grimly laughed at because one did not as yet know the man. Windthorst's bidding for the favor of the doctrinarians among the Liberal parties and of the unreflecting masses was forgotten the very day it was made, because the system he represents has been known these fifteen hundred years. Windthorst's separation of church and state has as little to do with the American system as a bagpipe with Mozart's sonatas. In the very same speech he demanded "at least" a separate *Catholic* Minister of Worship (*Cultusminister*). This demand very clearly shows what his system is, which, if consistently carried out, would require a separate Minister of Worship for the Calvinists, Jews, Mennonites, etc., etc. It has to be kept well in mind that our Minister of Worship has nothing whatever to do with religion as such, and this is what Windthorst wants to do away with as a first step towards introducing the American system. Certainly no American need be told that as soon as the churches, not as organizations and corporations with certain rights and privileges under the laws of the state, but as the exponents of certain religious creeds, became the object of the official duties of the Minister of Worship, all the fetters would be broken which thus far have chained down religious intolerance, fanaticism, and persecution. Separation of church and state in the mouth of a Windthorst simply means that the sovereignty of the state shall not extend over the Roman Catholic Church as a civil organization and incorporation, and I have yet to learn that this is the American system.

There is, however, yet another and much more important side to the question. We have not to ask: How has the American system worked in the United States? but, How would it work with us? And even more: we could hardly get so far as to put this latter question, for it must be clear to every calm and sober observer at first sight that at present it would be absolutely impossible for us to make the trial. We have to deal with institutions whose age is reckoned by hundreds of years, and which have in such a manner grown into our life as individuals and as a social and political body, that to tear them asunder with one jerk might prove fatal to our very existence as a nation and as one of the leading peoples of the civilized world. Look at the first Revolution of France, and you will see the awful consequences of such a clean, sharp cut into what has *grown* into existence in the course of centuries. One must not forget that these institutions are not mere artificial creations. To blow them up over-night is to stab the mass of the people to the very heart in their received ideas, in their cherished habits, in their deep-rooted prejudices. The mass of our people are about as well prepared to see the American system adopted on a sudden as they are to bow their knees once more to Odin. Look on the Government—this Government, leading the onslaught of the Liberals on the Ultramontanes—and you will see how well we are fitted for a separation of church and state. Only four weeks ago I wrote you about the new law rendering civil marriage obligatory; now I have to write you that in Potsdam a teacher has been dismissed because he did not go with his bride to a clergyman after having contracted his marriage before a civil magistrate. Dr. Falk felt the unspeakable shame and scandal at least so much as to pretend that there had been also some other reasons at work. But you find prominent men among the Liberal parties openly and unreservedly justifying the course of the Government.

It would take not only a very conceited man but also a very superficial thinker to venture at this time to predict where we shall finally land in this conflict with Rome. Perhaps it will be at the American system, perhaps at a very different thing. Those who are able to look beyond the incidents of the day, and who understand the true nature of this war, should not merely ask where we are standing just now. Let them not turn their backs upon us because we have not yet arrived here or there. Honest and candid criticism we invite, but we think ourselves entitled to sympathy and to a word of cheer as long as we move, if, upon the whole, we are moving in the right direction.

# Correspondence.

## MILTON'S AND SHAKSPERE'S VOCABULARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg you to allow me space in your columns for a word in reply to a paragraph in the *Nation* of February 25, 1875 (p. 134), quoting from Professor Holden some strictures upon my estimates of the number of words composing the vocabulary of most writers and speakers, and especially of the poems of Milton and the dramas of Shakspere.

On pages 181 and 182 of my 'Lectures on the English Language' I spoke on both these points, observing as to the first that most persons "use *for ordinary purposes* but a very small proportion of the *words they have at command*," and I went on to say that "few writers or speakers use as many as ten thousand words, ordinary persons, of fair intelligence, not above three or four thousand." I certainly did not suppose that any intelligent reader could misunderstand me as meaning in the second of these clauses any different *use* of words from that indicated in the *first*. In justice to Prof. Holden, I ought to say that I know nothing of his criticisms except as they are reported in the paragraph referred to, and therefore it is possible that he may have been aware that in estimating the number of words at "his command" at 30,000, he does not in the least impugn the statement I made as to the proportion of words "at command" used "for ordinary purposes" by most writers and speakers, for I expressly said that some orators were able, upon occasion, to employ one-half of the vast stock of words composing the English tongue, which I estimated roughly at one hundred thousand.

With respect to the poetic and dramatic vocabularies of Milton and Skakspere, Prof. Holden's statistics are entirely erroneous, at least if we use *word* in the sense in which, in such discussions, all philologists would agree in employing it, while my own, I believe, will be found to be strictly accurate. I did not think it necessary to state what I supposed the public I addressed could not fail to understand, namely, that in estimating the number of *words* I took only the simple or stem, not the inflected, forms of the vocables, and, therefore, that I did not count *man, man's, men, men's*, as four, *love, lovest, loves, loved, lovedest, loving*, as six, or even varying forms, as *amid* and *amidst*, or *while, whilst*, as two.

My estimates were made upon actual count of the words in Todd's 'Verbal Index to Milton,' as corrected and enlarged by Cleveland, and Mrs. Cowden Clarke's 'Concordance to Shakspere.' I have preserved my original memoranda of the number of words under each letter in the former, and have recounted half of the alphabet, taken at random, with little or no discrepancy from the first enumeration. The total number of words that are *words*—not mere accidents of words—in this Index, excluding, of course,

proper names, is between 7,500 and 7,600. But Cleveland omitted, as he says, "the articles; most of the pronouns, such as *thee, whom, his*, etc.: all the conjunctions; many adverbs; most of the prepositions, and such adjective-pronouns as present no striking idea, as *all, both, each*, etc." What he means by this is, that he omitted the *repetitions* of such words, for of many of them he gives one or more exemplifications. I have made a careful estimate of the words so omitted, and find that it falls far short of five hundred, and hence I repeat my original statement, that there occur "in the poems of Milton not above eight thousand" words.

I have neither time nor eyesight to repeat my enumeration of the words in Mrs. Clarke's 'Concordance,' but it was made at the same time and on the same principles as my computation of Milton's vocabulary, and I have entire confidence in its accuracy. Prof. Holden finds in Mrs. Clarke's 'Concordance' 24,000 words, in Milton 17,000. To obtain this result, he must have counted not words, but *titles* of reference, and therefore, with him, *loud, louder, loudest* count three, *need* (verb), *needest, needs, needed, needing*, five, while in both cases I consider the varied forms as all making but one word. The absurdity of this method of computation will appear more glaring if we apply it to the comparison of different languages in point of copiousness, and, to be consistent, Prof Holden must maintain that a savage language, composed of only a few hundred of word-signs of ideas, but with thousands of inflexional forms for each verb and dozens of cases for each noun, is richer than the most copious literary tongue existing.

GEORGE P. MARSH.

ROME, March 23, 1875.

## "SECOND STAGE OF WISCONSIN RAILROAD LEGISLATION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of March 18, I find misrepresentations of so gross a character, concerning the recent railroad legislation in this State, as to demand correction.

It was doubtless the intention of your correspondent, "F. R. L.," to make a true showing of the character of the Wisconsin Legislature and the temper of our people, as well as truthfully to report the acts and opinions of the Railroad Commissioners. Unfortunately, however, he has done neither of these things. The inference is, that he wrote of legislative matters without full information. For, had he carefully and impartially watched the transportation controversy from the beginning, he would have reached different conclusions. He would have known, and so assured the *Nation*, that the people of Wisconsin mean no injustice to the railroad corporations; that the "Potter Law" was not the fruit of a deliberate purpose on the part of the public to prescribe arbitrary rates of transportation, without knowledge of whether those rates were just, but rather the unexpected result of a scramble between parties for the "Granger" vote, as a means to future political ascendancy; and that a legislature whose members were nominated while yet the corporations were refusing obedience to the law, and elected, many of them, under public pledges on that account to preserve that law intact, was not the body to fairly represent the public sentiment after the acquiescence of the corporations in the decision of the Supreme Court had softened the temper of the people, and favorably disposed them towards a judicious revision of the statute.

Of your correspondent's misrepresentations of the Commissioners explanation is not so easy. These are his words:

> "The Commissioners stated, not only in the Assembly but before the committees, and privately, that their bill was by them intended as a step towards the inauguration of a system under which the earnings of all capital should be regulated by legislation."

This statement is absolutely and utterly false. The Commissioners not only did not so state, either "in the Assembly, before the committees," or "privately," but even the thought of such a system as is here alluded to has never so much as entered into their minds.

If the reliance of the *Nation* is upon such correspondence, its sweeping editorial assaults upon the integrity of a great people are explained without difficulty. Their *justification* is hardly possible.

Respectfully,

JOHN W. HOYT.

MADISON, WIS., April, 1875.

[What we have said with regard to the "integrity of a great people," or rather with regard to the safety of investments in Wisconsin, has not been based upon the statement quoted above, but on the general tendency of Wisconsin legislation, as we have seen it exhibited in public acts and declarations for a considerable space of time. As to what the Commissioners said, or did not say, we must decline to be held responsible for the charge brought by our correspondent.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

POTT, YOUNG & CO. have in press 'A Christian Painter of the Nineteenth Century,' being the life of Hippolyte Flandrin, by the author of the 'Life of Bossuet' lately reviewed by our Paris correspondent.——'Madame Récamier and her Friends' and 'The Defence of Guenevere, and Other Poems,' by William Morris, will be published in May by Roberts Bros., Boston.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will reprint here an English work entitled 'The Keys of the Creeds,' which is described as an attempt to apply to the world's creeds the physical theory of natural development.——It is too late for competitors from this side of the water, but we note the fact that on May 1 a prize of fifty pounds is to be awarded in London for the "best essay showing the expediency of an address by the House of Commons to the Queen, in favor of such a rubrical revision of the services of the State Church as will abrogate the threat of everlasting perdition to those of her Majesty's subjects who do not agree with the doctrines contained in the Athanasian Creed."——The *Athenæum* states that Dr. Burton, the historian of Scotland, is engaged upon a 'History of Great Britain during the Reign of Queen Anne,' which will fill two volumes.——A life of the late General Nino Bixio, by Giuseppe Guerzoni, has appeared in Florence.——We learn that Miss E. P. Peabody's *Kindergarten Messenger* is in need of a wider support to ensure its continuance much longer. It is a useful little periodical, and we should regret to see it stop, especially since the editor seeks no profit beyond the expenses of publication. The triple number for the first three months of the year contains many valuable suggestions for mothers as well as for professional teachers in the Kindergarten. The subscription price is one dollar. Miss Peabody's address is 19 Follen Street, Cambridge, Mass. We may as well mention here a 'Hand-book of Fröbel's Method,' based on his writings and those of Baroness Bertha von Marenholtz-Bülow, by Hermann Goldammer, of which a third edition has just appeared (Berlin: Carl Habel) in two volumes, with numerous illustrations.——Mr. John T. Wood will deliver two lectures on Ephesus at the Cooper Union this evening and Saturday evening (April 22, 24) at eight o'clock.

—A correspondent writes us from Boston as follows: Mr. Green, in his 'Short History of the English People,' p. 493, makes a curious mistake. He says: "The words of a well-known minister show how hard it was even for the sternest enthusiasts to tear themselves from their native land. 'I shall call that my country,' said John Winthrop, in answer to feelings of this sort, 'where I may most glorify God and enjoy the presence of my dearest friends.'" The extract here given from the 'Life and Letters of John Winthrop' forms a part of perhaps the most charming letter in the whole collection. It is found, p. 276, Vol. I., in the letter of John Winthrop, jr., to his father, in which he announces his return to England from the Continent after an absence of more than a year. Neither the father nor the son was a minister, and the language which Mr. Green's English readers might think the didactic expression of a Nonconformist preacher, simply indicates the fervid and lofty spirit of the Puritan gentry who founded the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

—Although Hebrew ceased to be a living language about two thousand years ago, Hebrew literature did not come to an end with the Old Testament. On the contrary, there grew up amongst the Jews—"the people of the book," as the Koran styles them—an immensely rich post-biblical literature; and even at the present time many Hebrew books are still written and published, particularly in Eastern Europe. In America, thus far, only one Hebrew work has been produced, viz., 'Abney Yehoshu'a' (a commentary on a tractate of the Mishnah, called *Aboth*), by Joshua Falk, which was printed in this city in 1860. It is possible that some other Hebrew authors may have come over to this country; but, if so, we believe none of them found enough stimulus in the American atmosphere to continue his literary labors. We can at this moment call to mind only one Hebrew author of note who immigrated to the United States, namely, P. M. Heilprin (misspelled Heilpern in Fürst's 'Bibliotheca Judaica' and the catalogues of Zedner and Roest), who died January 30, 1863, in Washington City. Two works from his pen, of considerable interest ('Teshuboth Beanshey Aven' and 'Eben Bo'han'), were published in Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1845 and 1846 respectively. During the past two hundred years much has been done towards founding and furthering the science of Hebrew

Bibliography. We mention first, as amongst the fathers of this branch of learning, two Christian scholars, Bartolocci and Wolf. Of Jews who labored with great success in this field, Shabthai Bass, Azulai, Zunz, Steinschneider, Fürst, and Zedner deserve especial acknowledgment and praise. With these eminent Hebrew bibliographers must be classed Mr. M. Roest, the compiler of the 'Catalog der Hebraica und Judaica aus der L. Rosenthalschen Bibliothek' (Amsterdam, 1875). For a copy of this valuable work we are indebted to the present owner (son of the late owner and founder) of the great Rosenthal library, Mr. George Rosenthal, the banker, by whose directions it has been prepared. The catalogue, a highly interesting supplement to which is in fluent Hebrew, from the pen of the collector himself, is very attractively printed, in two bulky volumes. The bibliographical information which it imparts is rich, and can be relied on as correct and trustworthy. Indeed, we had no right to expect any but a perfectly trustworthy work from the hands of such a thorough and conscientious cataloguer as Mr. Roest was known to be. Previous literary productions of a similar nature had won for him an excellent reputation as a profound connoisseur of Hebrew literature. We have had time thus far to examine the catalogue but cursorily, but this has been sufficient to convince us that the errors of Mr. Roest's predecessors have here been silently corrected. Thus, for instance, Zedner, in his 'Catalogue of the Hebrew Books' in the British Museum, ascribed the 'Yalkut' erroneously to Simon Kara, and identified Aaron the Levite, the author of the book ''Hinnukh,' who lived in Barcelona, with the similarly-named author of 'Bedek Habbayith,' who was a Provençal. A glance at the present catalogue shows that its compiler, although he diligently compares Zedner and Steinschneider, was not a mere copyist, but that he worked independently by personal investigation of the original sources. We cannot conclude our notice without repeating the hope which we expressed some months ago (*Nation*, No. 486, Vol. XIX.), that some institution or congregation may be found in America which will acquire the Rosenthal library, and thereby give a new stimulus to the study of Hebrew literature, which is too much neglected on this side of the Atlantic.

—Maurice Block, the distinguished French statistician and economist, recently read a paper before the French Academy of Moral and Political Sciences on some of the results of the last United States census. It has since been published in the *Journal des Economistes*, and contains a great deal which, coming from such a source, is of the highest interest. He discusses the cause of American prosperity during the first fifty years of the national existence, and ascribes it in part of course to the great national resources of the country; in part to the national enterprise and ingenuity of the people; but more than all to immigration and steam. But he draws attention to the fact that the ratio of increase of population, which remained the same from the first census down to 1860, has been shown by that of 1870 to have declined. And he concludes that there is a similar slackening of the rate of progress in everything else. He connects with it, as an accompaniment if not a cause, a general falling-off of morals, revealed in the relaxation of the ties of family and the neglect of the education of the young, in the broad sense of the term, as distinguished from the communication of knowledge by means of books; and to this latter defect he ascribes "the greater number of American vices—the brutality, the violence, the cruelty, the drunkenness, the frauds, the want of honor." He speaks in severe terms of the corruption of American politicians, of the distaste of the women for the ordinary duties of home life; makes a comparison between the agricultural life of the earlier days of the Republic and the manufacturing life of the present day, greatly to the disadvantage of the latter; and concludes that if our decline is not to become steady, and we are again to resume our upward progress, we must reform our system of education, and prepare our children for the world by better methods and under better influences. The paper contains little that has not been said over and over again by economists and moralists in this country, but it deserves attention as the work of a foreign observer of no common powers and of great coolness of judgment. It has, however, the patent defect of treating the ten years between 1860 and 1870 as a normal period, of making little or no allowance for the influence of the war on manners as well as on industry, and of taking no notice of the efforts made to combat the evils which he points out, because these efforts, even when unsuccessful, are among the signs of recuperative force.

—Of much greater interest than the miracle at Salette, of which we lately gave some account in the *Nation*, and far more remarkable in their character, were the apparitions of the Virgin in Alsace-Lorraine in 1872–1873, seen, or supposed to be seen, by thousands belonging to all grades of society. These have been described, by one who was on the spot, in *Im Neuen Reich* for last year (Nos. 14, 15, 18, 19, 21). The worship of the Virgin, which had always existed in these provinces, assumed during the present century enormous proportions. In the diocese of Strassburg, for instance, there are sixty-nine places of pilgrimage consecrated to the Virgin, thirty-four in Lower and thirty-five in Upper Alsace. The disasters of 1870–71 were, it is well known, followed quite naturally in France by what we should call in this country a great religious awakening. Crowds of pilgrims flocked to Salette, Lourdes, and Paray-le-Monial, and the reports of new wonders and apparitions spread through the neighboring countries. The religious excitement in France was to a considerable extent political, and this was the tendency it early assumed in Alsace. Pamphlets containing prophetic voices concerning the future of the church in France and elsewhere were industriously circulated. Even the children were not free from the feverish excitement which had seized their elders; in the schools, in church, and at home, they heard constantly of oppression and persecution and of appearances of the Virgin. Sunday evening, the 7th of July, 1872, four little girls, between seven and eleven years old, went to pick berries in the woods near Gereuth, and as they went they talked of the persecutions to which Christians might yet be exposed, and expressed their determination to die sooner than renounce their belief; and while they wandered about, they repeated the *Memorare*. Suddenly one of the children stooped down, and saw a lady in white, wearing a yellow crown on which was a cross. There was also a black cross on her breast. The girl who first saw the apparition pointed it out to her companion, and then ran home in fright. The others saw the lady in white swing a sword or staff over the heads of soldiers who hovered beneath her, and then they too ran home. Such is the official account of the matter.

—The apparitions continued during the summer and autumn of 1872, and were witnessed by thousands, it being estimated that about fifteen thousand were present at Gereuth on the Christmas holidays. One of the most interesting things in the history of this hallucination is the means employed by the civil authority to control and suppress it. It was not deemed necessary or advisable to interfere at all at first; only the police forbade the remaining together at night of young people of both sexes in the woods where the apparitions were seen, and the burning of lights, which were likely to cause damage to the property of the state. As the political character of the demonstrations grew stronger, the forest police forbade entrance into the woods under penalty of a fine of twenty thalers, and a company of soldiers was sent to enforce obedience to this order. The Virgin, however, kindly left the forbidden territory and appeared in a field belonging to private owners, where she performed many miraculous cures. The Government was soon called on to adopt severer measures, it being apparent that advantage was taken of the opportunity to disseminate treasonable political opinions. Quite early in the history of the affair, the Virgin had been seen to hurl a sword towards the Rhine; combats took place in the air between the French and Prussians, with victory for the former; massacres of priests and members of religious orders were witnessed; and finally the Virgin was seen standing before a closed church-door guarded by a Prussian. In February and March, 1873, attention was called by a proclamation to certain articles of the Code Pénal which forbade religious meetings except in places consecrated to that purpose, unless permission had previously been obtained from the authorities. These repressive measures, which the military caused to be duly observed, had the effect of putting an end to the appearances in Gereuth, but they broke out in various neighboring towns. In Issenheim, for instance, hundreds flocked to a hut where the shadow of the outstretched arm of an image of the Virgin was seen to move on the wall by the light of flickering lamps. The crowd sensibly diminished when the authorities had the image placed on the outer wall in broad daylight. By the end of May the manifestations gradually disappeared. Although some instances of fraud were detected, it is undoubtedly true that most of the witnesses were sincere in their belief that they had really seen the Virgin.

—Dr. Friedrich von Bezold, author of 'König Sigmund und die Reichskriege gegen die Husiten,' has recently published a thin book (114 pages), a study 'zur Geschichte des Husitentums.' It is a very complete and perspicuous discussion of the relation of the Hussite revolution to the history of civilization of the time, eminently calm and impartial, and based upon the study of new and important materials. The effect of these civil wars he depicts as deplorable in the extreme, putting back civilization like the Thirty Years' War or the War of the Roses, and resulting in ecclesiastical despotism and feudal tyranny. At the same time, he vindicates the character of the movement from many of the standing accusations. His view is that, while the sentiment of nationality had much to do with it—in resisting the Germanizing process which had extirpated Slavism in Lusatia,

Silesia, etc.—yet this was not its principal characteristic, as Höfler and others would make out. It was primarily a religious movement, an outgrowth of the religious controversies of the fourteenth century, and a protest against the corruptions and the doctrines of the church. The national and the remarkable social characteristics of the movement—which one might think peculiar to the nineteenth century, so levelling are they—are, however, described, as well as its religious aspect, and form a very instructive portion of the work. At the same time, it is shown that the Taborites were far from being such fanatic barbarians as they are generally depicted; their leaders were men of learning and culture, well versed in controversial theology. Dr. Bezold shows, too, that the horrors attributed to them have been exaggerated, and that, at any rate, they were not the aggressors; the atrocities were begun by their opponents, and only taken up by them in the way of retaliation.

—The trial of Count von Arnim, aside from its political bearings, will long retain its interest as a judicial *cause célèbre;* and the exceptional position of the chief counsel for the defence, the eminent Professor von Holtzendorff, well justifies the republication of his speech, with a preface and notes, which he has undertaken (Berlin: C. Pfeiffer'sche Buchhandlung). The court, in its decision, substantially adopted the views of the defence, Von Arnim being fully exonerated from the grave charges of the Public Prosecutor, and found guilty of a light misdemeanor only. Indeed, the unusual rigor of the preliminary proceedings against the accused was effectually shown by the defence to have rested on but a slender legal basis. Professor von Holtzendorff divided the diplomatic papers, the retention or absence of which formed the object of the accusation against Von Arnim, into removed (*translocirte*), retained, and missing papers. Concerning the first class, specified as the Roman correspondence, Von Arnim may have had sincere doubts as to the propriety of depositing them in the archives of the German Embassy at Paris, especially at a time when he was himself being transferred to Constantinople. These papers were returned by Count von Arnim on application. The second class consisted of letters relating to the personal quarrels between Bismarck and Arnim, and the right of retaining them was claimed to the last by the Count, who produced them in court under protest. The missing papers turned up partly in Paris and partly in Berlin, but by far the greater part could not be found, and it was never ascertained when, where, and how they had disappeared. Thus, while the Roman correspondence, the most important of all, was readily delivered up by Von Arnim, the missing papers were of a comparatively indifferent character, so that the assumption of an intent on the part of Count von Arnim to publish the papers to the prejudice of Prince Bismarck could not be seriously entertained. The Public Prosecutor made no distinction between the papers, but nevertheless made them the ground of several distinct charges. Professor von Holtzendorff showed that the prosecution simultaneously regarded the same papers as public documents of the highest importance, and as objects of no intrinsic value in themselves, thereby making one and the same offence punishable under two different statutes of the law. Von Holtzendorff furthermore contested the legality of considering diplomatic correspondence in the light of public records (*Urkunden*), the very nature of such correspondence often shunning publicity. The definition of the term *Urkunde* he pronounced one of the most difficult in the whole range of jurisprudence, drawing a sharp line between historical and judicial records. Count von Arnim, he argued, may have been careless in the manner of guarding his diplomatic papers, but even this does not establish the fact of a disciplinary offence, inasmuch as the routine of the diplomatic service of Germany is not regulated by any fixed principles. There is no system of registering diplomatic correspondence to which Von Arnim was bound to conform, and even the traditions of the Prussian school of diplomacy in which he had been brought up afforded him no precedent for his position as German Ambassador. Archives were originally simply the repositories of secret documents, the manner of secreting them being left to the discretion of the ambassador. When secresy is the chief object to be attained, an ambassador may even burn the documents which he otherwise would not consider safe. The right of the German Empire as such to the papers retained by Von Arnim can by no means be established. Diplomatic communications from the Minister of Foreign Affairs to an ambassador are often couched in the form of a private letter; and the vagueness of the terms "official" and "unofficial" in this relation is manifest from the fact that a third form, "semi-official," is frequently used to denote certain diplomatic emanations. The accused had never denied the possession of the papers characterized as removed and retained, and the disappearance of the papers of the third class may be accounted for by a lack of method in Count von Arnim without resorting to a worse construction. Lastly, the irritating character of Bismarck's letters sufficiently explained the unwillingness of Count von Arnim to part with them; while great domestic afflictions which occurred at the same time would go far to excuse his negligence in carefully collecting all his papers on his departure from Paris.

—The *Russische Revue* for December has an important article by the famous Persian scholar, Fr. Spiegel, on the gain accruing to geography and ethnology from the decipherment of the old Persian cuneiform inscriptions. The Imperial Geographical Society of Russia published in 1856 Volume I. of a translation with additions of Ritter's 'Geography of Asia.' For Volume VI., on Iran—the last issue having been a part of Volume V., published in 1873—Dr. Spiegel's assistance had been invoked, and his contributions have been already published in the Russian translation of them. Dr. Spiegel's essays in the original German were afterwards handed to the editor of the *Russische Revue* for publication in his journal. One part has the above title, and the remainder, discussing "Iran philology and its importance with regard to the language and the descent of the Iranians," was to appear in a subsequent number of the *Revue*. In the part published, Dr. Spiegel gives an outline of the history of the deciphering since 1838, the date of the original publication of Ritter's work, and then comments upon the geographical limits of the districts mentioned in the three inscriptions of Behistûn, Persepolis, and Naqs-i-Rustam.

—In the same number Dr. Emil Schmidt points out a few errors in the general map of Central Asia, published in 1874 by the Royal Military Geographical Institute of Vienna; and W. Köppen describes at some length excursions which he made last year in the Baidar Valley in the Crimea. A large part of Köppen's article treats of the megalithic monuments of the Crimea: only a few menhirs, or upright stones like those of the western part of Europe, occur here, but dolmens resembling those found in Brittany are very common. The author, without professing to be an expert in the matter, is inclined to agree with Desor and Bonstetten that the dolmens, on account of their singularity, the difficulty of constructing them, and their general resemblance, must be ascribed to one and the same people; but unlike Bonstetten, whom he interprets as holding that the dolmen-builders continually emigrated from one country to another without leaving remnants behind, he believes that their blood, though by no means unmixed, still flows in the veins of the present inhabitants of the dolmen regions. The author gives as a reason for disagreeing with Bonstetten's view of the course which the dolmen-building emigrants took, that the dolmens of the Crimea and the Caucasus are of a superior character to those of North Germany, which Bonstetten supposes to have been occupied subsequently. Herr Köppen thinks that there are not facts enough to determine the course actually taken by these emigrants, which is probably a sounder observation than his objection to Bonstetten, because there may have been an emigration, and according to Bonstetten's route. Yet the use of the dolmens may, according to Köppen himself, have continued longer in some places than elsewhere, or they may have been adopted by the conquerors or the successors of original dolmenites.——Another article in the eleventh, or November, number of the *Revue* deserves mention, the address at the institution of the Society of Friends of Caucasian Archæology, by Ad. Bergé, the vice-president of the society.

## McCOSH ON TYNDALL.*

AMONG the natural consequences of the sin committed by Professor Tyndall in the hardihood of his late Belfast address, is the revival by it of the inextinguishable flame of metaphysical controversy. That the address was not fit, in the nature of things—to say nothing of the conventions, the common or unwritten laws of scientific societies, which the author violated—appears by the consequence that the most fitting reply to it comes from Dr. McCosh. Such popular organizations as the British Association for the Advancement of Science were copied from the aims and disciplines of the *élite* among modern scientific societies. These societies are, in a word, schools of Baconism, designed to embody all that was of value in the thought and spirit of Bacon—namely, a protest against traditional authority in science, with, of course, a recommendation of induction and of the inductive sciences for their value in the arts of life. As to method in induction, Bacon's teaching was of comparatively little value. His really distinguishing service was in accomplishing a more or less complete and enduring severance, at least in British thought, of physical science from

* 'Ideas in Nature overlooked by Dr. Tyndall: being an Examination of Dr. Tyndall's Belfast Address. By James McCosh, D.D., LL.D.' New York: Robert Carter & Brothers. 1875.

'The Scottish Philosophy, Biographical, Expository, Critical, from Hutcheson to Hamilton. By James McCosh, LL.D., D.D.' New York: Robert Carter & Brothers. 1875.

scholastic philosophy, and from all traditions of more ancient thought. One of the most interesting consequences of this movement is that the word "philosophy," and even the name "natural philosophy," have distinctly different meanings in English and in the Continental languages. The body of ancient traditional thought was so completely routed that its name, Philosophy, lost its meaning, and became appropriated to the knowledge and pursuits which in ancient times divine philosophy disdained. Socrates, it is said, brought down philosophy from the clouds; and Continental thinkers have reproached the English for having degraded her to the kitchen. This recognition of the dignity of the useful and of the authority of induction, but still more the subtler perceptions of method in induction by later English thinkers, and especially in the Positivism of Locke, Newton, Herschel, and J. S. Mill, have more than anything else given the English their eminence in modern science. The restraints of the speculative spirit in scientific pursuits, determined mainly by a desire for peace with Theology and Philosophy, and accomplished by a division of provinces, have been the chief cause of the easy triumphs of inductive evidences in the modern sciences of physics, astronomy, chemistry, and even geology and biology, over an opposition which, when roused, has carried with it the strength of a desperate self-defence and all the gigantic forces of tradition. The best British thinkers, therefore, from Newton to Darwin, have respected this peace; and Dr. Tyndall has put himself out of this category by the performance that relegates him to the tender mercies of Dr. McCosh.

As spectators of the combat, we may, however, forget the rash occasion which brought our scientific hero into this arena, and extend a sympathy to him in this relation which we withheld from him as the retiring president of the British Association. In the prefaces to his published address, Tyndall charges some of his critics with "a spirit of bitterness which desires, with a fervor inexpressible in words, my eternal ill." Dr. McCosh "happens to know of some of them, that they are praying for him, in all humility and tenderness, that he and all others who have come under his influence may be kept from all evil, temporal and eternal." Such belligerent magnanimity must be very consoling to its object. To be prayed for particularly by fellow-mortals that we may be delivered from deliberately cherished, or at least seriously considered, views on the nature of things, and not alone for what we ourselves recognize as evils, may be from a sympathy with a supposed unconscious, undeveloped better-self in us; but to us, our conscious selves, it seems scarcely different, except in degree, from a sympathy and a wish for our eternal welfare which would burn us at the stake. Indeed, the attitude is not very unlike that of picking up the fagots for a spiritual cremation, of which the material symbol is now forbidden by civilized opinion and law. To use the language of kindliness and magnanimity when every page manifests an intense, though smothered, *odium theologicum*, conceals nothing, and repels more effectively than the most open hostility. Expressions of petty spite, depreciatory epithets, intimations of ill-opinion, readiness to credit evil reports of those who hold unorthodox opinions in philosophy, and misinterpretations of every sign of weakness in them—these characterize Dr. McCosh's treatment of those thinkers, included in his lately published biographies of Scottish philosophers, who differ from him in fundamental views. If his object—supposing him to have an object in this—were simply to frighten the faithful from any contact with the unholy, we can see how he might effectively keep them faithful through ignorance; but if he thinks in this way to win any one to his standard, we think he greatly mistakes the nature of the sceptic. He calls attention in his preface to the fact "that in this paper, under none of its forms, have I charged Professor Tyndall with being an atheist"; and near the close of his paper he announces that "I make no enquiry into the personal beliefs of Dr. Tyndall," though in the preface he had professed to believe that Tyndall's feelings are not fixedly bad: "At present very wavering and uncertain—*feelings*, rather than convictions founded on evidence." Dr. McCosh here makes use of the "extenuating method," the *eironeia* of Aristotle's rhetoric, though with ineffective art. His restraint from this fearful accusation is made up for by a zeal going greatly beyond due accuracy of thought and exposition, in his preparation of the case for whosoever may thereby be stimulated to prefer the charge.

We have space only for the examination of one great confusion of thought which runs through not only this paper but much of the criticism in his biographical work on the 'Scottish Philosophy,' wherever he treats of the opinions of the "sceptics" of his native land.

Lord Bacon is Dr. McCosh's model in philosophizing, and, however marked may be the differences, there is a striking similarity between their minds. The great point of sympathy is in Bacon's demonstrative, aggressive, and rather effusive professions of theism. This wins for Bacon the enthusiasm of such a disciple for "the comprehensiveness of his mighty mind"; and is likewise the measure with Dr. McCosh of the minds which he treats favorably in his biographies. Now, Bacon in his model enquiry which occupies so large a space in the 'Novum Organum,' the enquiry into the form of heat, reaches the conclusion that heat is a kind of motion; meaning, of course, not the feeling of heat, but the conditions of the feeling. Dr. McCosh would be the last to charge Bacon with atheism for this verbal ellipsis. Nor do we suppose that he would be alarmed by the confusing ambiguities of the words light, sound, taste, touch, and the like, which are used by all modern philosophers to express two totally dissimilar natures, the tremors of ether and air, with the chemical and mechanical properties of bodies in contact with special organs of sense, and the sensations of light, sound, etc., of which these homonymical words are also the names; a part of a cause and its effect having the same names though wholly different in nature. Nor again do we suppose that he would take alarm at the inclusion, in such names, of the other physical conditions of a conscious product or sensation—namely, the movements or changes in living nervous tissues, which are the more immediate conditions of the production of a sensation. Mr. J. S. Mill, however, in his 'Logic,' takes to task a philosopher of his own school for defining an idea or notion as "a contraction, motion, or configuration of the fibres which constitute the immediate organ of sense." "Our *notions*," Mill exclaims, "a configuration of fibres! What kind of philosopher must he be who thinks that a phenomenon is *defined* to *be* the conditions on which he supposes it to depend?" What sort of philosopher must this one be, we may add, who not only makes this confusion in his imputations of opinion to scientific philosophers, ancient and modern, but intimates that the gravest defects not only of mind but of character are implied by it? The poverty of philosophical language, rather than such fatuity, would have been the more charitable account of what is charged as materialism against these thinkers. No philosopher of note among them, we are sure, ever seriously thought that atoms by their collocations and movements *explain* (in the sense of unfolding the essential natures of) "sensation, judgment, reason; of love, passion, resolution." None ever attempted, as Dr. McCosh intimates that Tyndall has done, to "account in this way for the affection of a mother for her son, of a patriot for his country, of a Christian for his Saviour." No one ever supposed that, "aggregate them [the atoms] as you choose, and let them dance as they will," there is "any power in them to generate [in the sense of producing their like] the fancies of Shakspere—his Hamlet, his Lady Macbeth, his King Lear—the sublimities of Milton, the penetration of Newton, or the moral grandeur of the death of Socrates." Yet Dr. McCosh calls Tyndall to account for so doing in these grave terms: "What—to employ the very mildest form of rebuke—can be the use of devising hypotheses which have not even the semblance of explaining the phenomena? In the interest of science, not to speak of religion, it is of moment at this present time to lay an arrest on such rash speculations; and to insist on scientific men refraining from what Bacon denounces as 'anticipations of nature,' and confining themselves to facts and the co-ordination of facts."

Dr. McCosh is not quite accurate here about what his model Bacon recommends. The past errors which Bacon opposed he called "the Anticipations of Nature" by the mind, and in place of this recommended "the Interpretation of Nature," or "that which is properly deduced from things," and (it is to be presumed) may include somewhat more than a bare co-ordination of facts. But whatever Bacon meant to "denounce," it is certain that the physical sciences which have grown up since his time involved in their establishment a great deal more of "the picturing power of the mind," which Tyndall justly esteems, than Dr. McCosh is inclined to allow. But this is a comparatively trivial error. The gravamen of his charge is wholly mistaken. Tyndall publishes as an appendix to his address a lecture previously delivered, in which the doctrine thus imputed to him is disavowed. Dr. McCosh refers to this fact, but regards it as either trivial or as inconsistent with the ominous meaning of that discovery in matter of "the promise and potency of every quality of life" for the "confession" of which Tyndall "abandons all disguise." In spite of this lecture Dr. McCosh thinks that Tyndall "feels himself entitled to hold that matter, though we cannot say how, may give us all the operations of understanding and will." It is important to understand here in what sense "may give us" is to be taken. Certainly Tyndall is no disciple of Lucretius, or of the great and subtle Greek physicists, if he holds that atoms, the primordia, the elements, the seeds, or first-beginnings of things have the natures of understanding and will. That these are not the properties, but only the accidents (in the logical sense), of the movements and collocations of the elements, is the Lucretian doctrine. Moreover, "primordial elements" does not refer to remoteness in time past, but to simplicity and unchangeableness in present, past, future, or the infinitely enduring causes of change.

In other words, what these philosophers sought to explain by their theory of atoms is not the natures of the passing phenomena of sense, understanding, and will, but their occurrences, and the order (such as there is) in their occurrences as actualities or events. Such phenomena were not regarded as consisting of the properties of atoms, of size, weight, movement; but only as depending for their actual manifestation on certain elemental collocations and movements. Modern physiology is in striking accordance with these vague speculations. It does not, neither did they, affirm that the properties of matter (that is, the permanent and universal natures of matter) define or determine anything except the events of phenomena. Neither were the gods excluded by these speculations from existence, or from the moral interests and regards of men, in accordance with their reputed characters. They were only excluded from the arbitrary determination of the course of events, or from any other interference than that of being in their consciousness and actions a part of this course. They, too, were dependent in their thoughts and volitions on material conditions. Whatever loss of dignity or wound to pride in men might come from such subjection to material conditions was shared, according to this philosophy, by the gods. That the conditions of the nervous tissues which we vaguely describe as health, wakefulness, and vigor are a sum of material conditions, which occurring along with other material conditions around them determine particular perceptions, thoughts, and volitions as mental events, is a modern form of the same doctrine. This does not involve, however, the kind of explanation that Dr. McCosh appears to suppose.

There are two meanings of the word "explanation," or, rather, two kinds of explanation involved in philosophy, the confounding of which, not by Dr. McCosh alone, but by nearly all the hostile critics of ancient and modern physical philosophy, has led to great confusion and injustice. To know the conditions of the occurrence of anything in such sort that we may predict this occurrence, whenever and wherever these conditions are given, though as phenomena these conditions may be in their natures wholly unlike the effects of them, is one mode of explanation. To presume this mode to be applicable to relations of any nature in which the conditions and phenomena are too complicated to be fully known or used for prediction, is the speculative employment of this mode. To be able to analyze or decompose a phenomenon or effect into its constituents is another mode; whether or not we are able by combining the two modes, as in the dynamical sciences, to explain an effect as the sum of the several effects of the constituents of its cause. This most perfect kind of explanation, this combination, is reached only in dynamical science, and was never pretended to by the clear-headed Greeks who speculated so widely on the nature of things. That mental events and their combinations are fully conditioned, as events, on material ones is all that they ever pretended to believe; and in this opinion most modern physiologists agree with them. These philosophers have fared hard at the hands of the aggressive theists, their expounders and critics. Thus Bacon, as quoted by Dr. McCosh, says: "Even that school which is most accused of atheism doth the most demonstrate religion, that is, the school of Leucippus and Democritus and Epicurus. For it is a thousand times more credible that four mutable elements and one immutable fifth essence, duly and eternally placed, need no God, than that an army of infinite small portions or seeds unplaced should have produced this order and beauty without a divine marshal." Bacon here implicitly attributes to the ancient physicists that conception of their opponent Anaxagoras, which may be said to be the foundation of the philosophical theism of all subsequent times. It is common to speak of Anaxagoras as having introduced into the philosophy of nature the *nous*, or the independent agency of intelligence. It is not so commonly seen that he introduced along with this, and in antithesis to it, a still more characteristic idea: that of a primeval chaos. The anti-chaotic *nous* of Anaxagoras is not that of the physicists and the pantheists. The only chaos contemplated by the ancient atomists is the one they saw around them always existing; one which had always existed in the indeterminate confused actual order, at any time, of the universe as a whole. Its particular orders were regarded as accidents; that is, not permanent or inherent properties of the elements. This last conception, by the way, has been grossly abused, accident being interpreted to mean an absolutely undetermined event; an Anaxagorean accident, such as might have happened in that primeval chaos, which the atomists did not believe in, when "all things were in a confused heap," and before "*nous* intervened to set them in order." That "things might all have been such that there was no fitness in them, and the most unfit might have survived," is the reason Dr. McCosh gives for "discovering an ordinance of intelligence and benevolence in the very circumstance that there is a fitness, and that the fit survive." So deeply imbedded in his intelligence is this conception, this essential idea of theism, the primeval chaos, that because he can conceive an altogether undemonstrable condition of things to have been possible, he postulates as actual a cause, or a mode of action in a cause, the *nous*, which would have defeated this possibility—a very common and almost unconscious kind of *a priori* argument. It thus appears that Dr. McCosh, not less than Professor Tyndall, "crosses the boundary of the experimental evidence," and "revels in hypotheses about world-making and world-ending." He "professes," indeed, to found his convictions in a Baconian way on "inductions," the name he gives (without adequately explaining the process) to what most other modern thinkers call and try to explain by the name "intuitions *a priori*." In this Dr. McCosh has doubtless confounded the effect of repeated assertions and professions of belief with the force in producing universal beliefs of invariably repeated particular experiences—an effect enforced by that modern factitious moral obligation, "the duty of belief"; a duty which though urged upon us by modern religious teachers with respect to certain ancient speculations, as of Anaxagoras, Socrates, and Plato, was far from being felt or admitted by these great teachers. Their service to us was in teaching *how* rather than *what* to think and believe.

A singular mistake for one who has undertaken to classify modern thinkers is committed by Dr. McCosh when he makes Comte the founder of the school to which Tyndall, Spencer, Huxley, Bain, and even Mr. Darwin are assigned. Two of these thinkers—Spencer and Huxley—have publicly disavowed and disproved any obligations to Comte. It would be cruel, if it were not absurd, to make Comte and Mill responsible, as Dr. McCosh does, even in the slightest degree, for the free use of hypotheses in science made by these thinkers, and especially the use made by the cosmologists among them, by Spencer and Tyndall, of hypotheses for "crossing the boundary of the experimental evidence." Comte all his life, and Mill until late in life, resisted even the undulatory theory of light, as involving the unverifiable hypothesis of a medium, though most physicists, even in Comte's lifetime, admitted the probability of the theory which is now universally adopted. It is strange to see the use of hypotheses in physical enquiries attributed to Mill's recommendation, as it is by Dr. McCosh. As well might one attribute the invention and recommendation of reasoning to Aristotle! Mill only systematized, in his 'Logic,' what physicists from Galileo had been constantly doing; and no one at all conversant with mathematical and experimental researches is ignorant of the fact that the use of hypotheses, as "recommended by Mill," is indispensable in that "interpretation of nature" which Bacon recommends. But these hypotheses are, for the most part, trial-questions—interrogations of nature, or are scaffoldings which must be taken down, as they are by the tests, the verifications of observation and experiment; and form no part of the finished structure of experimental philosophy. Comte and Mill, least of all among modern thinkers, recommended their use as bridges for "crossing the boundary of the experimental evidence," whether by the Lucretian road with Tyndall, or on the Anaxagorean highway with McCosh.

## THOMSON'S INDO-CHINA AND CHINA.*

THIS bulky volume may stand high, as works of travels go. The author is a vigorous Englishman, who explores, observes, and recounts with the energy that goes hand-in-hand with high animal spirits; he apparently knows his field very thoroughly, he has seen a vast number of curious places and things, and he has made an entertaining and readable work. He has been able to enrich it with a great many admirable wood-cuts, reproduced from his own photographs. These engravings are singularly careful and elaborate; we have not lately seen any of so fine a kind. They are all very clear, and some of the smaller ones are remarkable. Mr. Thomson was himself a photographer, and to discover interesting subjects appears to have been the principal aim of his wanderings. He carried his camera and lens into regions unconscious of the mystic process, and he relates a number of odd stories about the terror and hostility they generally provoked. The Chinese, even of the upper classes (who seem to combine in an ingenious manner most of the vices of civilization and of barbarism, and to possess few of the virtues of either state), consider that to be photographed is a certain forerunner of death, and Mr. Thomson had reason to congratulate himself on having arrived at Nanking just *after* the death of the great General Tseng-kuo-fan, rather than just before it. He had hoped to take a portrait of the eminent warrior—one of the chief agents in the suppression of the Taiping rebellion—and if the General's demise had occurred just after his sitting for his likeness Mr. Thomson might have been in an uncomfortable position. The most interesting portion of his work is the first half,

* 'The Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China; or, Ten Years' Travels, Adventures, and Residence Abroad. By J. Thomson, F.R.G.S.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1875.

treating of his observations in Siam and Cambodia. He travelled thence up the China Sea, visiting all the great cities and coast settlements—Hong-Kong, Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Shanghai, Nanking, and Peking, besides making various deflections into the interior, exploring the magnificent island of Formosa, and sailing, adventurously, over death-dealing rapids, some thirteen hundred miles up the great Yang-tse River, the stream at whose mouth Shanghai stands. Apropos of this part of his journey, we may quote, in illustration of Mr. Thomson's style, this rather striking passage :

"This rapid is one of the grandest spectacles in the whole panorama of the river. The water presents a smooth surface as it emerges from the pass ; then suddenly seems to bend like a polished cylinder of glass, falls eight or ten feet, and finally curves forward in a glorious crest of foam as it surges away in wild tumult down the gorge. At this season sundry rocks enhance the peril of shooting the rapids. On our way down we persuaded Chang to come into the boat with us, but as the vessel plunged and groaned in an agony of straining timbers, he became perfectly sick with panic-fear. It was indeed hardly to be wondered at. The pilot we employed at this time was a tall, bony man, with dark, piercing eyes, a huge black mustache, and a mouth full of foxy fangs. He and his assistant guided the boat into what seemed to be the worst part of the rapid, and then launched her into the raging waters, broadside on. After the first plunge she swept round bow foremost, tearing and writhing, until I thought she would go to pieces and disappear. Meanwhile, the pilot, flinging his arms on high, danced and yelled like a fiend about the deck, conveying the notion that the craft was doomed, although in reality he was only guiding his men at the helm. But the boat, regardless of oars and rudder, sped forward with a fearful impetus, bearing right down for the rocks, dodged them at the last moment, when the pilot had been seized with a fit of frantic despair, and then, with a groan of relief, darted into comparatively smooth water far below. The pilot's buffoonery is probably part of his game. It pays when he at last presents himself for his legitimate fee, and for the trifle extra which he expects for saving our lives at the risk of his own."

Mr. Thomson, in general, in the latter part of his narrative loses some of his animation, and also some of his clearness. He makes rather unexplained jumps and sudden transitions, and one does not always understand how he journeyed from one point to another. But he gives a vivid and entertaining picture of life and manners in the commercial stations of the Malay Peninsula and Indo-China—Malacca, Singapore, Saigon, Macao, and Hong-Kong—where, among hosts of perfidious Malays and counter-plotting Chinamen, the English, the Americans, the French, the Germans, and the Dutch are measuring their mercantile wits against each other, competing and outbidding, and contracting luxurious tropical habits and irritable tempers. Socially, Mr. Thomson considers the golden age of these picturesque communities to have passed away. Fortunes are less easily made, competition is fiercer, the Germans are ousting the English from the counting-houses, economy is more needful, and the click of the telegraph is an echo, in spite of the murmur of Southern seas, of the feverish uproar of the City and of Wall Street. In Siam Mr. Thomson made sundry interesting observations—though his statements are occasionally at variance with those of Mrs. Leonowens. He photographed the First King, and received various English letters from him. Here is a verbal photograph of one of his Majesty's functionaries—a magistrate at Bangkok : "There, in an open court, we found the fat judge, a single silken cloth round his loins—his only judicial robe—seated at a small window, with one flabby leg hanging over in the sunshine ; a slave-girl fanning him, his mouth filled with betel-nut, and thus snorting out his enquiries from time to time. The prisoners were shut up in a sort of cattle-pen in front, while their friends and supporters, laden with gifts of fruits, cakes, or other produce, crawled through the court in continuous procession, and presented their offerings for inspection as they passed the judge's chair." Mr. Thomson made an expedition across country to Cambodia, and visited the extraordinary ruins which mark the seat of empire of this ancient rival of Siam. On this subject he has a very interesting chapter, with some very delicate wood-cuts from his photographs. The overthrow of Cambodia by the Siamese took place in 1373, and the architectural monuments which still cover the ground belong, for the most part, to the period just anterior—the climax of her independence. Few extinct civilizations appear to have left more impressive relics. Mr. Thomson gives a detailed account of the great temple of Nakhon, "rising with all the power which magnitude of proportions can give ; a sculptured giant pyramid amid forests and jungle-clad plains," with its terraces, its towers, its galleries, its bas-reliefs, full of the most refined workmanship ; its complex Buddhic symbolism, revolving largely about the image of the seven-headed snake. "We spent several days," says the author, "at the ruined city of Nakhon, on the verge of the native jungle, and amidst a forest of magnificent trees. Here we were surrounded on every side by ruins as multitudinous as they were gigantic ; one building alone covered an area of vast extent, and was crowned with fifty-one stone towers. Each tower was sculptured to represent a four-faced Buddha or Brahma, and thus 204 colossal sphinx-like countenances gazed benignly toward the cardinal points, all full of that expression of purity and repose which Buddhists so love to portray, and all wearing diadems of the most chaste design above their unruffled stony brows." "The disappearance of this once splendid civilization," he also pertinently observes, "and the relapse of the people into a primitiveness bordering in some quarters on the condition of the lower animals, seems to prove that man is a retrogressive as well as a progressive being, and that he may probably relapse into the simple forms of organic life from which he is supposed by some to have originally sprung."

Mr. Thomson's most interesting adventure was his journey into the interior of the island of Formosa, which lies at a distance of a hundred miles off the southern Chinese coast. The Chinese occupy but one side of it, the other being thickly tenanted by aborigines of reputed cannibalistic tendencies. The late invasion of the island by the Japanese was based upon the fact that Japanese subjects wrecked upon the coast had been repeatedly plundered and massacred by these barbarous tribes. Mr. Thomson plunged energetically into the interior, in spite of many warnings of dangerous encounters, and found mountain scenery of extraordinary magnificence. The Pepohoans (semi-civilized aborigines) were extremely mild and friendly, though very miserable, both of which characteristics may perhaps be inferred from the incident of a crowd of them asking for a pull at the author's cigar and returning it carefully when it had been passed around. Mr. Thomson gives a large mass of information about China, the tea-trade, the silk-trade, the manufactories, the mines, the arsenals, based upon his observations both in the great cities and in localities at some distance from the coast. He gives us the impression that travelling in the Celestial Empire is as agreeable as the two great facts of the pauperism and the filth of the inhabitants allow it to be. It is interesting because of the density of the population and the amount of detail, as it were, in their manners and customs. Here is an example :

"We made another halt to visit a village fair, where we saw a poor conjuror perform tricks for a few cents that would make his fortune on the London stage ; and yet his greatest trick of all was transforming three copper cash into gold coin. His arms were quite bare, and, having taken his cash in the palm of his hand, he permitted me to close the fingers over them. Then passing the wand above the clenched fist, he opened it again, and feasted the greedy eyes of his rustic admirers on what looked extremely like glittering gold. He also killed a small boy whom he had with him by plunging a knife into his body. The youth became suddenly pale, seemed to expire, then, jumping up again, removed the knife with one hand while he solicited patronage with the other. There was one feat which this conjuror performed with wonderful dexterity. He placed a square cloth flat upon the ground, and taking it by the centre between his forefingers and thumb with one hand, he waved the wand with another, and, gradually raising the cloth, disclosed a huge vase, brimful of pure water, beneath it."

Mr. Thomson's pages remind one afresh of the extraordinary disparity between Chinese material industry and skill and Chinese moral civilization. He found excellent iron-clad steamers in course of manufacture by native labor, and the various arsenals—though these were under foreign supervision—in a state of high efficiency. The author's view of the future of China, in the absence of immense radical changes, is naturally not a hopeful one, and he eyes with suspicion these active efforts towards the multiplication of the *matériel* of war. They seem to him to point not only to views of self-defence from further foreign intrusion, but to a possible furious fanatical movement to extirpate the actual foreign settlements.

## THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR APRIL.

MR. E. GRYZANOWSKI, who always writes well, discusses "Comtism" in the current number of the *North American* in a way which throws a good deal of light upon that system of so-called philosophy, and reminds us at the same time how rapidly it is fading in the distance. When Mr. J. S. Mill published his fascinating essay on Comte's life, and gave the English and American public their first real introduction to the philosopher of the "three stages," it seemed for the moment as if a new light which was going to change the face of the world had shone above the horizon. Here was at once an explanation creditable to human nature of the growing scepticism of the world, a formal exclusion of religion from the domain of science, and at the same time a revindication of the claims of religion upon the heart, and a joint apotheosis of human nature and morality. But empirically, the law of the "three stages" is not true, or has at least been denied by men of such divergent opinions as Mr. Herbert Spencer and the late Professor Whewell ; the religion of the "grand être humain" has been formally adopted by a little band of converts in England, without attracting anything more than good-humored amusement from the general public, and certainly without showing any tendency to spread itself

abroad; the extraordinary social system which Comte built up for himself proves to have been distinctly the result of that very metaphysical habit of mind which he so emphatically despised; and all the historical, sociological, and economical researches of the day show more and more clearly that the progress of mankind lies in directions away from that which he confidently pointed out. The "trilogy of man, humanity, and nature," the "anthropological data" of "the parent, the consort, and the child" (corresponding to the past, the present, and the future), and statically "the woman, the man, and the priest" (corresponding to the domestic, civic, and social life); the other trilogy of priesthood, patriciate, and proletariat, this representing and corresponding with the three faculties of individual man, viz., loving, thinking, and acting—what is all this but the sound and fury of metaphysical sociology? A state of society in which "separate professions must cease," and "the priest must be philosopher, physician, and artist," in which there are no rights (but at the same time there are duties), no parliaments, and no newspapers, is not a state of society which we can any longer conceive as possibly evolved from the condition of things now existing within any period of time worth considering. Mr. Mill, if we remember rightly, inclined to the belief that the later speculations of Comte, in which he formulated his religious and social theories, are separated by a wide gulf from his earlier lucubrations; but any one who reads Mr. Gryzanowski's résumé of his system will see that it all "hangs together" very well, and the fundamental assumptions on which Comte proceeds are not more simple and rational (though of course less amusing) than the proposed Positivistic rite of salutation—a phrenological gesture consisting "in touching the three cerebral regions containing the organs of benevolence, order, and activity."

Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., contributes an article on the Granger movement, which he says can now be looked on as "a phenomenon of the past," and which may therefore be "treated in a spirit of critical justice." The grievances of which the Grangers complained originated, according to Mr. Adams, in two causes—in the first place, "competition," and in the second place, "bad manners." By "competition" is meant that system of management which favors "competing points" at the expense of "non-competing" points. That is to say, the railroads, at points where several lines converge, fight vigorously for the business by lowering rates, while other points a few miles away are charged every dollar their business can be made to pay without driving it off the railroad and back into the highway. We are inclined to think, however, that if this means that local rates have been during a series of years increased because through rates were diminished, Mr. Adams is wrong. Of course, it is admitted to be a fundamental principle of railroad management that the cost of transportation depends on the amount of business done, and if we imagine the case of a non-competing point furnishing, let us say, a single car-load a month, it is evident that very high rates would have to be charged to make it worth while to do this business, and that in all probability the inhabitants of this point would be forced in the long run to go back to the highway. But we do not see any great hardship in that, or any reason why the Government should undertake the business. As to bad manners, Mr. Adams declares that "the manners of the employés of the Western railroad system are probably the worst and most offensive to be found in the railroad world." But what excuse this furnishes for the Granger movement we do not see, the manners of these employés being presumably the manners of the population from which they are taken. The Western railroad employé is not a foreigner, nor even an "absentee"; he is a son of the soil, who, being put in authority, asserts his equality with the Granger by violence and neglect of his duties, just as the Granger asserts his equality with the absentee owner by "fixing rates" at his expense. To Mr. Adams's article, however, we have no space to do justice. It contains a very clear exposure of some of the absurdities of the Granger movement from one who makes no secret of having at one time hoped much from it in the way of reform.

Mr. Lowell's article on Spenser will be read with interest. It contains some of his best criticism. The great glory of Spenser is, in Mr. Lowell's opinion, that "he taught his own language to sing and move to measures harmonious and noble." We cannot do better than quote a single passage which seems to us to express with remarkable success what everybody must have felt more or less dimly with regard to his versification:

"It was this instantly felt if not easily definable charm that forthwith won for Spenser his never disputed rank as the chief of English poets, and gave him a popularity which, during his life and in the following generation was, in its select quality, without a competitor. It may be thought that I lay too much stress on this single attribute of diction. But apart from its importance in his case as showing their way to the poets who were just then learning the accidence of their art, and leaving them a material to work in already mellowed to their hands, it should be remembered that it is subtle perfection of phrase and that happy coalescence of music and meaning, where each reinforces the other, that define a man as poet and make all ears converts and partisans. Spenser was an epicure in language. He loved 'seld-seen costly' words perhaps too well, and did not always distinguish between mere strangeness and that novelty which is so agreeable as to cheat us with some charm of seeming association. He had not the concentrated power which can sometimes pack infinite riches in the little room of a single epithet, for his genius is rather for dilatation than compression. But he was, with the exception of Milton and possibly Gray, the most learned of our poets. His familiarity with ancient and modern literature was easy and intimate, and as he perfected himself in his art, he caught the grand manner and high-bred ways of the society he frequented. Even to the last he did not quite shake off the blunt rusticity of phrase that was habitual with the generation that preceded him. In the fifth book of the 'Faery Queen,' where he is describing the passion of Britomart at the supposed infidelity of Arthegall, he descends to a Teniers-like realism,—he whose verses generally remind us of the dancing Hours of Guido, where we catch but a glimpse of the real earth, and that far away beneath. But his habitual style is that of gracious loftiness and refined luxury."

An account of the recent revolutions in Japan, by Mr. William E. Griffis, and one on Pauperism by Mr. Charles L. Brace (who gives the astonishing statistics with regard to the diminution of pauperism in Elberfeld by the system of house-to-house visitation and inspection), together with the usual book-notices, make up the rest of the number.

*Quinti Horati Flacci Opera.* The Works of Horace, with English Notes and Introduction. By J. M. Marshall, M.A., Under Master of Dulwich College, late Fellow and Lecturer of Brasenose College, Oxford. Vol. I.: The Odes, Carmen Seculare [*sic*], and Epodes. (London: Rivingtons. 1874.)—The text of this neat edition, which belongs to the Catena Classicorum, is taken from Orelli's third, posthumous edition. In cases where the editor could not agree with Orelli, he has availed himself of the *apparatus criticus* of Keller and Holder, and discussed the readings in the commentary. It will interest the friends of Professor Bryce in this country to know that the editor acknowledges his obligations to this scholar (as well as to Mr. E. S. Morgan of Dulwich College) for assistance and for many valuable suggestions. The notes, which are on the page with the text, are short and to the point, and the translations tasteful. An introduction treats of the life, character, and works of Horace. The usual account is given of Horace's personal appearance: "Short of stature, inclining to stoutness; with dark eyes and dark hair, prematurely tinged with gray. His eyesight was always feeble." Two of these statements may be questioned—that his hair was "*prematurely* tinged with gray" and that "his eyesight was *always* feeble."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of John Quincy Adams, Vol. V. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Annual Register for 1874. | (Rivingtons) |
| Boissonnas (Mme B.), Souvenirs du Gén. Robert Lee, swd. | F. W. Christern) |
| Cherbuliez (V.), Miss Rovel, swd. | (F. W. Christern) |
| Cobden Club Essays: Local Government and Taxation. | (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) |
| Dall (Mrs. C. H.), Last Glimpse of Charlotte Temple and Eliza Wharton, swd. | (Cambridge) |
| Elsie: a Lowland Sketch, swd. | (Macmillan & Co.) 1 00 |
| Forrester (Mrs.), Dolores. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Flint (Prof. A.), Pneumo-Thorax, swd. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 40 |
| French (B. F.), Historical Collections of Louisiana and Florida, 2d Series. | (Albert Mason) 4 00 |
| Hall (Rev. J.), God's Word through Preaching. | (Dodd & Mead) |
| Heness (T.), Instruction in German without Grammars and Dictionary, 2d ed. | (Schönhof & Möller) |
| Higginson (T. W.), English Statesmen: Gladstone. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) |
| Holtzendorff (Dr. F. von), Vertheidigungsrede für den Grafen Harry von Arnim, swd. | (B. Westermann & Co.) |
| Hunt (W. M.), Talks on Art, swd. | (Hurd & Houghton) 1 50 |
| Ingersoll (C.), Fears for Democracy, swd. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Laws of the U. S. relating to Currency and Finance, swd. | (C. W. Sever) |
| Littell's Living Age, Vol. 9, 5th Series. | (Littell & Gay) |
| Manning (Cardinal), Internal Mission of the Holy Ghost. | (D. & J. Sadlier & Co.) 1 50 |
| Moore (Mrs. C. J.), Poems. | (Porter & Coates) |
| Moore (T.), The Epicurean: a Romance. | (James Miller) 1 25 |
| Moberley (Rev. C. E.), Alexander the Great in the Punjaub. | (Rivingtons) |
| Newman (Rev. J. H.), Postscript to a Letter to the Duke of Norfolk, swd. | (Cath. Pub. Soc.) |
| Packard (A. S., jr.), Population of an Apple Tree, swd. | (Estes & Lauriat) 0 25 |
| Pollock (Sir F.), Macready's Reminiscences. | (Macmillan & Co.) 2 50 |
| Prescott (W. H.), Robertson's Charles V., Vol. III. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Proceedings of the First Congress of the Prot. Epis. Church in U. S., swd. | (T. Whittaker) 0 50 |
| Quatrefages (A. de), Natural History of Man. | (D. Appleton & Co.) |

# Fine Arts.

## FIFTIETH EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

II.

A CLASS of painters that has arisen of late years—young Americans studying awhile in Paris or Munich, and then going about, like students of the Middle Ages, to debate their art in all the centres where the profession congregate and models are to be hired—this class, bringing home to our exhibitions a very fresh reflection of some foreign professor's style, has strongly colored the recent collections shown at the Academy. The influence

is on the whole good; for along with the frank mannerism and the prize-poem sort of faultlessness, there is the look of training, of conscience, of nature-copying, and almost all that our older artists most needed in their own youth. So long as the influence of Piloty can contribute to the painting of such a head as Mr. Neal's great "study" (207), there will be no complaint to make. Nor can anything but praise be awarded to the pupil of Gérôme and Boulanger, Mr. Bridgman. This artist, since his studies in Brittany, where he used to pursue to their finest results the subtleties of light and shade, has, however, been travelling in sunny countries, such as Spain and Africa, where he has been tempted to simplify his breadths of light until they reach a sometimes awkward flatness. This is the case not only in fully-illuminated scenes like the street-view in the Lower Pyrenees and the Oriental love-passage, but in scenes under cover, such as the picture of a circus, where a stronger style of modelling is permitted and demanded. Except for the thinness of the relief in these circus-figures, whose roundness is somewhat less than the cameo on a brooch, the picture, with its varieties of rustic character and the nonchalance of its performing horses and human beings, is very admirable. The animals in the study from the Pyrenees are perfect in action and solidity, and the Boulanger-like love-scene is neither better nor worse than a good Boulanger. Mr. Edgar M. Ward sends three pictures from the simple Breton country-life, the figures modelled in reflected lights, as in some of the twilight or shaded compositions of M. Breton; these subjects, like terra-cotta groups, have the simplicity, solidity, and firmness of Nature, if on the other hand they lack her transparence and fluency; as the compactly-moulded Bretonnes wash at the water-side or tend their narrow homes, we feel that the placid animal aspect of humanity is completely rendered, not without occasional glimpses of that simple and untrammelled nobility attained now and then by an unspoiled peasant or a Greek statue. In one of Mr. Ward's pictures there is an old woman placed by a doorway, which attains a higher grace; in this figure there is intricate and shadowy modelling, with the tenderest relief and most perfect composition. Another excellent picture, by Mr. Weir, who sends but it alone, is the interior of a Breton kitchen, where a woman attentively spins and a half-seen man effaces himself amongst the soot of the chimney-place. This whole composition, apart from its very sufficient grasp of character, is a study of melting shades deepening to apparent blackness without anywhere losing transparency, and is on the whole a profound lesson from the mysterious art of the Dutch painters. The picture, as an effect of chiaroscuro, is made to tell better and more by a judicious use of black in the framing "bead," which sets an italic line, as it were, under the particular emphasis of shade desired. Mr. Van Shaick, whose injudicious subject in "The Song" did not make us blind to his very real qualities as a painter, has now improved upon himself with a quiet and firm picture of a man in armor. The delineation here is inexorably close, and the artist shirks none of the difficulties of life-study; the work has the thoroughness and wholesome harshness that remind us of Albert Dürer.

Genre pictures of another class are those of Eastman Johnson. His study of a lady in velvet dressing-gown attaching an earring is rich and simple; his "Pedlar," frugally economizing his strength by the living-room stove, and looking on with senile long-suffering as a country beauty is buying hairpins, pleases us entirely; his "Milton Dictating" we dislike, as we think the drawing woolly and confused, and consider that in this age of good biographies there is no excuse for a painter's mistaking, in the melodramatic direction, the character both of the daughters and of the poet. Mr. Jervis McEntee, along with some landscapes in his highest style which are just now apart from our consideration, ventures to exhibit a figure-study, a "Ginevra" disturbing the cobwebs of an old lumber-room to enter the chest. It is an unlucky experiment, but in certain parts shows a knowledge of figure-painting destined to do good service, we doubt not, among the artist's pastorals, now so cold, lonely, and bereft of human interest. A painter of small figure-groups, who up to this time has hardly received enough notice, is Mr. Wordsworth Thompson. His slight and elegant way of sketching populous groups into landscape is truly enjoyable in its kind; his poses are distinct and firm, his color is silvery, and his masses are clear-cut and broad. When he chooses to represent burgher-life by the seaside, he is direct and epigrammatic in his delineation; when he chooses to go into backwoods simplicity and show the hunter's naked children playing beside the chimney made of a barrel, and staring awkwardly at the brisk young scout on horseback, he is as primitive as a chapter of Cooper; when he likes to invade the antiquarian domain of Mr. Henry, and show the gigmanship and respectability of old yellow cabriolets and handsome Queen-Anne mansions in antique Virginia, he is satisfactory even in bric-à-brac. Mr. Henry himself is this year at about his best, showing the candle-light effect with energy and acumen as the old maid prepares her nightcap. His want of broad composition, however, is almost fatal. Mr. Guy, in a small night-scene of a boy and violin, looking as if painted on kid, certainly exceeds Von Schendel in his own direction, though why any artist should want to exceed Von Schendel in his own direction we cannot tell. Mr. Magrath sends two Irish pastorals, like verses of ballads sung by a fresh, untrained, reedy voice. The landscapes are admirable and perfectly support the figures; but the latter are somewhat solid and monumental, with attitudes just a shade too elaborate.

JUST PUBLISHED.

*Sainte-Beuve.*

English Portraits. By C. A. Sainte-Beuve, of the French Academy. With an Introductory Chapter on his Life and Writings. 12mo, cloth, $2.

*Mrs. Alexander.*

Ralph Wilson's Wierd. A Novel. By Mrs. Alexander, author of 'The Wooing O't' and 'Which Shall It Be?' 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

Maine's History of Early Institutions. $3.
Jones's Africa. $5.
Mill's Three Essays on Religion. $2 50.

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES OF THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

Price $1 25 each.

Tytler, C. C. Fraser—Mistress Judith.
Alcestis, A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About the Nose of a Notary.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't.
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall It Be?
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).
Walford, L. B.—Mr. Smith (nearly ready).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*HARPER'S CATALOGUE.* The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

SECOND EDITION.

*HELPS TO PRAYER.*

A manual designed to aid Christian Believers in acquiring the Gifts and in maintaining the Practice of Prayer in the Closet, the Family, the Social Gatherings, and the Public Congregations. By Rev. D. P. Kidder, D.D. 12mo, $1 75; Red-line edition, toned paper, gilt edges, bevelled boards, $3 50.

COMMENTS OF THE PRESS.

"We believe no earnest person can read this volume without gaining great benefit."—*Christian Union.*

"It has been prepared with intelligence, judgment, and care."—*Christian at Work.*

"We commend it to the attention of all."—*St. Louis Christian Advocate.*

"Its spirit is excellent, its tone elevated."—*Morning Star.*

"It must do good among all intelligent, thoughtful, and devout Christians."—*Christian Intelligencer.*

NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

*"THE READER" discusses on page 284, a new translation of Aristophanes and novelties of Japanese fiction, published by Macmillan & Co.*

*Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

*The American Educational Cyclopædia.*

A Reference Book for all matters of Education in the United States and in the World.

It is valuable for Teachers, School Officers, Clergymen, Lawyers, Editors, Politicians, and Parents with children to educate. It is endorsed by the highest authorities in the land, among which are forty-seven out of the forty-eight State and Territorial Superintendents. It contains 300 pp. bound in cloth, $2; in manila covers, $1 50.

J. W. SCHERMERHORN & CO., Publishers,
14 Bond Street, New York.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 29, 1875.*

## The Week.

DURING the past week the rumors of Cabinet changes have taken very definite shape, and it is understood that Mr. Williams is to retire, while it seems that the only hesitation felt in Mr. Delano's case is that he, being now "under fire," ought to be retained in office until he may voluntarily leave it. The military theory as to tenure of office, in its perfected form, seems to be something like this: Any officer who knows that he has been guilty of misconduct, fraud, or peculation, and finds his conscience oppressed by the fact, may, if he pleases, resign, and in that case he will not be prevented, and the usual complimentary testimonials will be exchanged and published; second, if any officer steadily sets his face against misconduct, fraud, and peculation in office, and thereby creates much hostility among the supporters of the Administration, he also may resign (and if he does not wish to go, he will be asked to resign), with the usual complimentary testimonials. If, however, any officer is accused of improper conduct by the press, he will be entitled to testimonials at once, without the question of his resignation being raised, and he will remain in office until the wicked editors cease their attacks. Mr. Delano has been suspected of the grossest kinds of corruption, and charges have been openly brought in the newspapers. But far from any enquiry being ordered, or even an investigation being demanded, a formal testimonial was at once "tendered," not by people who knew anything about the facts, but, of all persons in the world, by a number of "Heads of Bureaus" in the Department of the Interior, subordinates dependent on Mr. Delano's favor for their daily support, and who solemnly, each in turn, vouched for the business of the office having been conducted in a perfectly regular manner by their chief.

---

A vigorous attempt to get up another revolution in Louisiana has been made, but without success. By the terms of the Wheeler Compromise, as it is called, the Republicans agreed that the House of Representatives might be reconstructed so as to give the Democrats the majority of which they had been deprived by the illegal action of the troops; and, on the other hand, the Democrats agreed not to impeach Kellogg for any past offences. There was no promise given beyond this on either side as to the House of Representatives, and accordingly that body, exercising its normal and regular prerogative, began to enquire into the qualifications of some of the other members. There was no reason why this should not be done, any more than there was why Kellogg should not be impeached for future offences. Indeed, the excitement got up over it in some of the Republican papers shows a curious state of mind with regard to the functions of State governments. If the Louisiana government is ever to be carried on at all, it must be by the usual means—by legislation, by seating and unseating members, by executive acts and proclamations, and by judicial decrees. If the "Wheeler Compromise" is to be taken to mean that the government of the State is to remain to the end of time paralyzed, without power of action in any direction, the quarrel might better have been left to the banditti and the troops to settle between them. But the fact is that the notion that the population of the State are a wild set of murderous savages seems to have taken such a vigorous hold of the minds of a certain number of people at the North, that not even the most sensible, civilized, orderly behavior on the part of the savages themselves can force it out of their heads.

To show that we do not exaggerate in what we say, we quote from the Boston *Journal* of April 26, which is made very sad by the contemplation of the behavior of the Conservatives:

"In fact, when one considers this development of Conservative bad faith, he is apt to be reminded of General Sheridan's epithet of 'banditti' as one not so far out of the way as many enemies of the frank, blunt soldier had supposed. We are yet loth to believe that the majority of the Conservatives of Louisiana approve this treachery of their representatives in the legislature, but still they cannot evade its responsibility. The men who have got command of the party there are thoroughly untrustworthy. That fact has been one of the great sources of trouble all through the Reconstruction period. It is time that the North fully understood it. It is on this account, in part, that we have advocated the withdrawal of all Federal interference from Louisiana, so far as the protection of life and property would allow, in order that the ex-rebel leaders might show their true character to the whole country."

The best comment on this is the fact that the Legislature has now adjourned, and the "banditti" returned to their homes without shedding a drop of blood. We hope the *Journal* will return to the subject, if it is not too melancholy, next week.

---

Judge Blatchford's decision in the Dana suit does not announce any new or important principle of law, and turns mainly on a technical question as to the jurisdiction of the court which subpœnaed Mr. Dana. But the case is important for all that, as illustrating the extraordinary attitude of the Government to the press. When we reflect that Washington is the capital of the country, the centre of the Administration, the headquarters of a powerful Government, one of whose main functions is the administration of justice, and then remember that an arrest of one editor has been procured in it contrary to all law and precedent, at the request of an intimate friend of the head of the Administration, and that another hostile editor has been summoned there in a case of which he protests that he knows nothing, we cannot but regard every attempt to take members of the press to Washington to try them as, to say the least, suspicious; and we may add that we believe the decision of Judge Blatchford, in so far as it discountenances the notion that a petty local court ought to have power to send for witnesses all over the country, is salutary. There is something so preposterous about the idea of erecting the tribunals of a little "geographical expression" like the District of Columbia into tribunals having powers beyond those of the States even which framed the Union itself, that we feel confident it ought to be frowned upon by the courts whenever they can find an opportunity to do it.

---

A piece of news going the rounds of the papers, relating to the anticipation by Spain of the payment due on account of the *Virginius* indemnity, has attracted a good deal of attention; at the same time that another fact, showing the honorable intentions of the United States as regards Spain, has attracted but little. The news to which we refer is the condemnation, in a United States Court, of the *Edgar Stewart*, a piratical vessel intended and, we believe, used by the Cubans for filibustering attacks. At about the time of the capture of the *Virginius* the case of this vessel attracted a good deal of notice. Whether she would ever have been seized if the *Virginius* had not tried to land an expedition seems open to much question; the evidence against her could hardly have been stronger than that which satisfied Mr. Williams that the *Virginius* had no right to carry the American flag. At any rate, the arrest and condemnation of the vessel are a good proof of the *bona fides* of the Administration, and, taken in connection with the very successful negotiations with regard to the indemnity, are, we hope, an earnest of a new state of feeling and action on Cuban-American affairs. It is surprising to reflect how distinctly even

the average politician's mind has been relieved within the last few years of that terrible anxiety which used to burden it as to the Anglo-Irish difficulties, Fenianism, and so on. Since the Government determined to treat Fenians not as a nation struggling against six hundred years of wrong, but as deluded adventurers led by political desperadoes in a campaign of petty larceny and murder, Fenianism has passed for exactly what it in reality is. It is impossible to hope so much with regard to Cuba, for Spain is not England, and Cuba is a far worse-governed and more hopeless province than Ireland has been for many a long year; still, there is no doubt that such proceedings as those which have led to the condemnation of the *Edgar Stewart* will do much both for the peace and the honor of the country.

---

The Centennial Exhibition stockholders have been called together to hear the report of their directors; and it would seem that, with proper exertions, there is no reason why the exhibition should not be a success. Many foreign governments have signified their intention of being properly represented; there have been in round numbers a million and a half of receipts and a million of expenditures, leaving half a million and more in the treasury; and, with three and a half millions of additional subscriptions, the managers expect to accomplish everything necessary. It is obvious that the exhibition must be mainly one of natural products of the soil and manufacturing industry, and it will therefore depend upon trade subscriptions for money. There could not be a better way of testing the popular interest in the exhibition than this, for, if it succeeds, nothing more is desired; while if it fails, the absurdity of an appropriation from an impoverished Treasury is proved to a demonstration. This meeting of the stockholders, by the way, shows that the position we took a year ago in these columns—that the concern was essentially like any other large corporation, with a fluctuating body of stockholders and a small number of directors—was correct, and that the extraordinary notion put forward by one of our correspondents, that, the corporation once formed, any one who had a hand in forming it became *functus officio*, was totally erroneous. In its present condition, we wish the enterprise all success, and see no reason whatever why, with proper assistance from those most interested, it should not meet with all it deserves.

---

The next important centennial, following the celebrations at Lexington and Concord, will be observed at Charlotte, a village in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, on the 20th of May. At this place, it is alleged, in 1775, there was passed a series of resolutions which expressed sympathy with the sufferers at Lexington, and also formally declared the inhabitants of the county to be absolved from all further allegiance to the mother country. The genuineness of these resolutions has been disputed by historians, and when they first appeared in print, in 1819, Thomas Jefferson declared them to be forgeries. Having been accepted, however, by vote of the Legislature in 1831, and also by several local historians, they are now generally received and credited throughout the State. It is quite probable that resolutions of a somewhat similar, though perhaps less decided, character were really passed some time in May, 1775. Following the Mecklenburg celebration will come the hundredth anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill, on the 17th of June, extensive preparations for the celebration of which are now making at Boston, both Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill being now within this city's limits, since the annexation of the former city of Charlestown. Additional evidence that the various centennial celebrations are destined to renew a good portion of the fraternal feeling which formerly existed between the Northern and Southern sections of the country is furnished in the fact that a militia company from Norfolk, Virginia, and also the mayor of that city, will visit Boston and take part in the exercises of the 17th of June. As might have been expected, some of our social agitators, probably believing that all this centennial "sweetness" should have its full share of "light," are trying to make capital for their pet theories. The woman suffragists, for instance, are endeavoring to persuade the women taxpayers of Lexington and Concord to refuse to pay their proportion of the money voted by the towns for the anniversary celebrations at these places, on the ground that by so doing they would be following the example set them by their forefathers in resisting "taxation without representation." Mrs. Lucy Stone, at a meeting of the Middlesex County Association at Melrose, declared that "if she were an inhabitant of Concord she would let her house be sold over her head, and her clothes off her back, and be hung by the neck, before she would pay a cent of it."

---

A genuine mining excitement has broken out in the old and quiet town of Newbury, in the northeastern corner of Massachusetts, consequent upon the recent discovery of silver ore in that place. There is no doubt that both silver and lead have been found in "paying" quantities, but there are grave doubts as to the length and depth of the veins, and the continuance of a percentage of metal sufficient to pay the expenses of regular mining. These uncertain elements of the problem will have to be determined by actual experiment. In the meantime, the speculative fever has set in, the price of land has been run up, companies have been formed, and sales of mining privileges have been announced at even a million dollars—a price which must strike the old settlers dumb. The fever may be yet further increased by the reported discovery of gold, last Saturday, in Georgetown, immediately adjoining Newbury, this latter discovery being made by the man who first discovered the silver. Staid Newburyport is displaying specimens of silver-ore in its shop-windows, and the passer-by may read strange announcements concerning "Compton's Lode," "Devil's Run," etc. It is no new thing to discover silver, lead, copper, zinc, and even gold in Massachusetts, especially in the western part of the State, near the Connecticut Valley, but, heretofore, every attempt at mining has been followed by loss of the money invested, none of the metals being found in paying quantities. The accidental discovery of silver at Newbury was used as an argument to induce the Legislature to appropriate money for a thorough scientific survey of the State. Other arguments as good and better were urged, and there was no lack of them, but we regret to see that the petition was defeated by a tie-vote in the House. It was asserted that forty years would be required for fifteen parties, of five persons each, to complete the survey of the State. Had this been true, and not, as we believe, a gross exaggeration, it would still have been no excuse for postponing a work to which the United States lends the gratuitous service of the Coast Survey, and which must sooner or later be undertaken and carried through. Considering the value of her example in this matter to other States, Massachusetts should have reflected that *noblesse oblige*.

---

It is just five years since the readers of the *Nation* first made the acquaintance of Capt. Niles G. Parker, then as now of South Carolina, and from 1868 to 1872 the Treasurer of that unhappy State. In May, 1870, we were assured by a well-known religious weekly in this city and by a well-known philanthropist that Parker had "restored the State to solvency," and had "brought order out of chaos, and had made South Carolina the first of the seceded States to pay the full interest on her debt." In August of the same year, it transpired that more than half a million of the State bonds had gone to protest in 1868, and that neither principal nor interest had since been paid. In May, 1871, Governor Scott assured the Taxpayers' Convention that "nothing had been done involving the credit of the State not strictly authorized by law." In November following, the same Governor, the treasury being empty, declared Parker guilty of fraudulent issues, and in December a legislative committee advised the impeachment of both Governor and Treasurer for the crime which the former sought to shoulder upon the latter. By a vote of two to one, however, the House refused to impeach, and both

offenders went out of office when their term had expired, unwhipt of justice. On Wednesday week, it gives us pleasure to record, Parker was arrested at Columbia, on the complaint of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund (Gov. Chamberlain at their head), on the charge of embezzling money from that fund to the amount of $28,100 while Treasurer; and having been required to give bail in twice that amount, failed to do so, and was sent to jail. The next day a fresh suit was begun against him by the Attorney-General for a fraud estimated to have cost the State $225,000, and committed in the years 1869, 1870, 1871. It appears that while he was engaged in "bringing order out of chaos," by paying coupons on valid bonds, he "put aside $250,000 of such coupons uncancelled, and in their place as vouchers put coupons which he cut off from the conversion bonds in his office, which, according to their dates, must have matured at this time." Nearly all of these uncancelled coupons have been funded at the Treasury during the present year. Altogether, Parker must procure bail in excess of $300,000, which is of course impossible for him, and if he ever comes to trial, there seems to be every probability that he will get his deserts. A career which began in Haverhill, Massachusetts, as proprietor of an unsuccessful and disreputable restaurant and bar, and which, temporarily disguised by service in the army, recovered its true aspect when Parker went into business in Charleston, failed and paid thirty cents on the dollar, then went into politics, then went into the Treasury and began stealing, and lying to conceal his thefts, will find a fitting climax in the penitentiary. We ought to add that Governor Chamberlain's active prosecution of Parker gives us great satisfaction. They were both formerly colleagues with Scott on the Financial Board which appointed the State agent who killed the State credit in 1871, and the then Attorney-General naturally shared the odium which attached to the majority of the Board. His silence then will be atoned for by his action now

---

The dinner given to Mr. Schurz on Tuesday, though not political in the strict sense of the word, had, from the speeches made at it, an important political bearing. The sentiment most strongly expressed in these, and perhaps best expressed in the remarks made by the presiding officer, Mr. Evarts, was the hope, and we may almost say the determination, of independent men that in the next Presidential election the country shall not be forced to choose "the least of two evils," and their profound indifference as to what party-name the candidate may bear, provided he be fit for the office. To quote from Mr. Evarts:

"There is a very great and increasing number of people in this country who believe that an elevation of American politics is a good thing. We would like to see some of the old competition in public life with which we have been familiar in the mother country, and of which we have known and read so much admiringly in our own, in which the prosperity of the contest depended upon the superiority of the successful combatant, and not upon a close calculation of which had the greatest defects."

To Mr. Schurz the dinner was more than the compliment such dinners usually are; for no one present could help seeing how genuine and sincere are the regrets of a large number of the best people in the country at his temporary retirement from public life, or wondering at the partisan folly which has driven him out of it.

---

With a continuance during the week of unseasonable weather, general trade has been quiet. The injury to the crops turns out to have been overestimated. In the markets, there has been little change in cotton, and that little a reduction in the price. In Wall Street, the week has been a quiet one; money continues abundant, and rates for loans have a declining tendency; the banks have now a surplus reserve of about $11,500,000, and currency is still accumulating. Gold exports have at last begun: nearly $2,000,000 gold coin have been exported during the week, and this not because Europe demands gold of us, but because there is little else to ship except gold and securities, and thus far Europe shows no disposition to take our securities. Mr. Bristow has called in $5,000,000 more 5-20 bonds, which will add to the danger that we may be obliged this summer to ship such an amount of gold as seriously to imperil the bank reserves next autumn. At the Stock Exchange, the demand for first-class investments has been almost without precedent. U. S. bonds have sold in currency higher than ever before. Good railroad bonds have gone up to figures which seem strange in a country where money is supposed to be worth more than at the money centres of Europe. It is almost impossible to get a good first-mortgage 7 per cent. railroad bond below 105, and some are quoted as high as 115. The next lower class of bonds range from 95 to 105, and railroad shares accounted good dividend investments are also feeling the effect of this investment demand. In speculative shares, the tendency continues upwards for those in any way connected with the Pacific railroads. Roads between this city and Chicago are, however, doing a poor business, both on account of the low rates and the meagre traffic, and their stocks have declined. The Union Pacific speculation overshadows all others, and the plausible exhibits put forth in the interest of the company are inducing many to buy its shares who looked upon them with contempt when selling for half their present price. The difficulty between the Union Pacific and the Panama has been settled; the latter gets enough in the shape of what may be called a royalty on the Pacific traffic to enable it, with its other business, to declare 20 to 24 per cent. annual dividends, and its shares have been up to 172, a rise of 27 per cent. There is now a practical monopoly established in the interest of the Pacific railroads on all trans-continental business, with no limit to its charges except such high rates as will stop business. The Pacific railroads by it add to their net income about $6,500,000.

---

Just what Bismarck has been driving at in his exchange of notes with the Belgian Government it is not yet possible to guess with certainty. Was he really expecting that Government to restrict by new legislation the constitutional liberties of the country, or was he seeking to intimidate his Ultramontane enemies at home under pretence of giving no peace to their abettors in neighboring states? Or was his first note preliminary to picking a quarrel, with a view to the forcible annexation of Belgium, Luxembourg, and who knows what else? Whatever his motive, he succeeded in exciting apprehensions of war not only among lookers-on, both Gallic and non-Gallic, but in the minds of the German people. They knew that the Government had prohibited the exportation of horses from Germany for the equipment of the French cavalry and artillery. They saw in Belgium a possible, indeed the only remaining, highway for French armies into Germany. In the midst of these rumors the semi-official *Post* came out with a declaration that "war was in sight, though the cloud might yet be dispelled." Then the German imagination discovered a plot between France, Italy, and Austria against Germany, and at once "saw blood." The article in the *Post* was interpreted as Bismarck's intimation that he knew what was going on and would not be caught napping. Under the powerful impression made by this article throughout Europe, our Berlin correspondent writes (April 11):

"There is no doubt that the Government are, or at least have been, entertaining very serious apprehensions. I know from an absolutely trustworthy source that Moltke said to one of the most prominent members of the Landtag that, about two weeks ago, it looked for a whole night as if war was sure to come; the Government expected every moment to get a despatch saying that France celebrated the completion of the reorganization of her army by pouring her regiments through Belgium into Germany. Moreover, you know that the Emperor has been compelled by his physicians to give up his intended visit to Italy. It was, however, at once announced that the Crown-Prince would go in his stead. That was really intended, for the court-jeweller received the orders for the gold boxes, etc., which princes are in the habit of presenting to distinguished persons on such occasions. Now these orders have been countermanded. This, although not known to the public—the press has as yet not so much as hinted at the possibility of the Crown-Prince's not going to Italy—is a fact I can vouch for. That, of course, does not preclude the possibility that, in a few days, the order may be renewed. If the Prince should go after all, that might, perhaps, be taken as a sure sign that the storm has happily blown over."

## THE GOVERNOR'S POWER OF REMOVAL.

UNQUESTIONABLY the two chief causes which thwart the political will of the American people at the present time are, first, the incapacity or malfeasance of those in office, and, second, the controlling power of certain combinations, generally known as caucuses and rings, in determining selections for office. These causes move in opposite directions, and the majority of men are too apt to estimate them singly, as though either were the only evil to be encountered in redressing our political grievances. He whose attention is called to the administration of public affairs sees clearly enough how incompetently and corruptly public affairs are managed; and he who turns his attention to the election or appointment of administrative officers encounters immediately a powerful influence behind the public will, which, in nine cases out of ten, annuls the good that the better part of the community strives to accomplish. Looking at the subject from these different points of view, it is not extraordinary that there are different sets of men honestly coming to opposite conclusions. One set can see that efficient and honest government requires that an unknown number of officers be promptly evicted, and the only instrumentality by which prompt eviction can be secured is the discretion of some single mind, which must ordinarily be that of the executive. Prompt eviction for incompetency or dishonesty in office is desirable, and this all men will admit, but no inconsiderable portion of the community have learned, in our modern experience, that removals from office take place more rarely for these causes than for any other. If removal for neglect of duty, or even for malfeasance, had been the invariable rules with our National and State executives, the power of removal would now be the most popular power that could be vested in either Governor or President.

But when another portion of the community examine the question from their point of view, they see with equal clearness that removal from office is ordinarily nothing more than an abuse of power, the purpose ordinarily being to turn out the experienced merely to make way for the inexperienced, and the motive being no better than to get rid of one's opponents and make places for one's friends. The first class hope for improvement in change; the second are suspicious of change, believing that no higher grade of morality will be secured, and a less experienced set of hands be employed upon the official work. In other words, they believe the change will merely be adding incapacity to dishonesty.

But a third class, who are accustomed to couple with the power of removal the power of appointment, will be found to argue strenuously that the Executive can best select administrative officers, and that it is highly desirable to bring responsibility for administrative affairs home to somebody who can practically be held accountable, by being kept in or turned out as he behaves or misbehaves himself, for the selection of his appointees. If we could stop with this reasoning, the way for approaching excellence in our governmental affairs would be plain, and a constitutional amendment or two would do the business. But unhappily a fourth set of men are ready with arguments to show that this hope is utterly delusive. They assert that such selections do not, and in the present condition of our political affairs cannot be secured; and they can point in almost any direction and not go far from finding an illustration to confirm their assertion.

The truth is that no intelligent person can rely upon any one of these sets of views. Each is in the main sound so far as it goes, but none embraces the whole field of facts which the reformer should survey. Where robberies in office are going on, such as the last four years have disclosed in this city—such as the past winter has added to the official history of the State, there should be an instantaneous method of *removal*, while we refer *punishment* to the more tardy processes of the courts. Furthermore, our experience in this State is a conclusive demonstration that removal by impeachment or by indictment, or by the Governor and Senate, or by the Governor on a formal investigation of some local magistrate, is neither instantaneous nor valuable, nor ordinarily effective; but, on the contrary, in nearly every case where it was tried proved to be a vexation or a farce. That is to say, the only really effective means yet discovered for getting a scoundrel out of an office is to give to somebody official authority to put him out.

But when we go to the other side of the field of facts we find that while it is indisputable that public officers are selected by political conventions, which in turn are selected or managed by a class whom decent citizens least trust and most abhor, nevertheless the appointing power is also selected, and the appointments largely managed, by the same set of men who control the nominations of the elective officers. It is indeed a difficult and alarming condition of the problem that so few of our chief officials, whom we popularly call "the appointing power," go into office by really popular selection, or possess a real moral freedom to do that which they know to be right. We have to deal with the inconvenient fact that a debased condition of politics has enabled a debased set of men to acquire power over the ordinary mayor or governor, and if not to secure from him all kinds of abject pledges, at least to do that which is almost as dangerous—viz., to lay him under what are called obligations of gratitude.

We have had so much of the good and the bad in our public experiences, that almost any one can prove his side of the case by what is called experience, if we allow him to take a fraction of the general experience instead of the whole. From these vicissitudes of public affairs the public have slowly gathered the idea that the best thing that remains for us is to clutch at any temporary good that comes in our way. At the present time we have a Governor who has singularly risen from being the leader of an unsuccessful party to obtaining the confidence, and in a very unusual degree, of the respectable men of all parties. It is needless to add that he has obtained this by his fearless warfare upon the worst members of his own party. At the same time we have spread before us the exposure and, indeed, the demonstration of a prolonged series of frauds and robberies which have well-nigh made the most important property of the State entirely valueless. The two things coming together have naturally enough suggested a proposition for giving to Governor Tilden what the governors of this State so long have been deprived of—an unlimited power of removal.

These two powers of appointment and removal are not necessarily united or interdependent, and no sound reason exists for inferring that if we cannot or should not entrust the Governor with the one, therefore we must withhold from him the other. Indeed, there are some reasons why the two should not be united in the same individual, for the latter has constantly been abused in this country, and the abuse has always grown out of the possession of the other power. In monarchical governments the two are vested in the executive; but in monarchical governments changes of the executive are comparatively rare, being measured by generations, and there will never be any great danger from an executive's removing his own appointees. The trouble with us has been that the executive has constantly found another man's appointees in his way, and that high party feeling and torpid public sentiment have allowed them to be gotten out of the way by the abuse of a salutary power. If public sentiment had been so high that removing an upright man from office merely to give the place to one of a different party would have been regarded as scandalous; if it had been so exacting that a Whig governor who removed a Democrat would have been required as a proof of his disinterestedness to appoint a Democrat to the same place, no constitutional change in this respect ever would have been made, and we should now, with substantial unanimity, be regarding the power of removal as one of the most valuable elements of popular government. It may be confessed that there is a seeming incongruity in keeping a ring to select improper officers and an executive to turn them out; but the incongruity is more seeming than real. The power of removal in the present condition of affairs means simply a limit to official vice. The error does not lie in removing rogues from office, but in allowing them to get there. And hitherto the great inducement for

rogues of a certain size to buy their way into office has been not the inadequate salaries which we generally attach to places of responsibility, but the certainty that he who gets there may remain, no matter what he chooses to do. The extraordinary system of official malfeasance which in the last thirty years has grown up in an industrious and well-meaning community that boasts of its right of self-government, is founded on a political system which provides easy means for putting a man into an office, and, during its term, leaves the community with no practical remedy for turning him out. Practically, we have been saying for twenty years to the gentlemen whom we are fond of calling "our public servants": "You may draw your salaries and do as little as you please. The duties of your office you may leave undone, and its powers you may pervert to enrich yourself and your accomplices. When your term expires, we may try to prevent your coming back again, but the chances are that at that time we shall be hopeless of getting any one better, and that your friends who sent you the first time will send you here a second, despite anything we can do. Should you chance to be indicted, you can easily delay the trial until your term expires, and then get yourself elected to a better place. In short, there is no accountability which an expert official has the slightest reason to fear."

Such being the rule by which we have lived for some years, the question really is whether we intend to adhere to it for ever. The distrust which evidently lingers in the minds of many who even advocate it, really belongs to the question of restoring the appointing power. As we have before shown, the two powers are not interdependent, and the latter question cannot now be decided. In a vitiated state of politics like the present, it may be that the best way to secure the purity of the executive will be to keep all patronage out of his hands. But, be that as it may, all that can be done this year or next will be to act upon the distinct subject of leaving the public business of the State in the unrestricted hands of whosoever happens to grasp it. It is unhappily true that we have been standing for a long time in the mire, and it is undeniable that we cannot wholly extricate ourselves by a single bound; but that seems hardly a good reason for refusing to lift one foot out of the mud and plant it upon solid ground.

## A FIELD FOR "PUNCH" IN AMERICA.

SEVERAL years ago a discussion was carried on by some of our newspapers and magazines upon the subject of the non-success of humorous periodicals in this country. Although innumerable attempts had been made, it was stated, to establish permanently a publication of this kind, nevertheless the death-rate had steadily kept pace with the number of births. To cheap prints, filled with comic sketches whose coarse vulgarity bordered closely upon indecency—to more praiseworthy attempts to give expression only to the best forms of wit and genuine humor—to the many conceivable and sometimes brilliant varieties between these extremes—the same fate sooner or later was sure to come. Not a single case of real success could be pointed out. But that which greatly increased the natural aggravation attending this unbroken series of failures was the fact that during all this time the well-known London *Punch* steadily maintained a well-earned reputation and tantalizingly continued an undisputed success. Why had there been this persistent difference between the results of similar attempts in the two countries? If *Punch* could succeed in England, why should not a corresponding periodical also succeed in America?

Among the answers to this question was one to which we believe there was no reply at the time, and which was expressed somewhat in this wise: Throughout the various grades of English society the lines of demarcation are broad and pronounced to a degree which an American cannot easily understand. These existing differences are made still more decided in popular apprehension by the effects of tradition and education, so that the distance between an earl, for instance, and a chimney-sweep appears enormous and impassable, and when the one is represented as employing, either by accident or design, the customary words or manner of the other, the incongruity is not only immediately but also keenly and ludicrously apparent. This illustration perhaps is an extreme one, but serves the better to indicate the fact. Now, from these social incongruities *Punch* obtains directly or indirectly a large amount of its best material—material which is shaped and ornamented in accordance with every sort of crude and delicate fancy. This kind of material, which in abundance and variety seems essential to the success of a humorous periodical, is almost entirely lacking in America. Here, where, according to a popular writer, a railway engineer in his good clothes may resemble a robust professor of geology, and is very likely to have his cloth cut by the professor's tailor, it is almost impossible to define class distinctions, and the highest and lowest classes are not far enough apart to give birth to any idea of incongruity when brought together. With us it is almost impossible to represent one class mimicking or parodying the ways and speech of another. Our sole effective illustration of incongruous relations between social extremes is produced by the juxtaposition of the imported servant-girl and her mistress, and this has been so long employed, over and over again, that, in common phrase, it is "used to death," and now has either lost all effect, or, if it retain any at all, is more likely, for special and well-known reasons, to excite anguish rather than mirth. Therefore (the inference followed from all these statements), being without the most necessary material for easily sustaining a humorous periodical, it was hardly possible that one could ever be made to succeed in this country.

We have not recalled the above discussion for the purpose of taking any part in it, nor shall we pretend to decide upon the validity of the premises from which is drawn the final conclusion. Our present purpose is to call attention to the fact that, granting to the above statements all the force which may fairly be claimed for them, there is nevertheless an extensive field for *Punch* in America—a field which may eventually be more profitably tilled than that which has been so long and so successfully worked in England. The moral profit of the undertaking, we are persuaded, would repay immediate investment, though for pecuniary profit it may be wise to wait a little longer.

When paterfamilias at breakfast-table recently read aloud from the morning paper that P. T. Barnum had been elected mayor of Bridgeport, the proceedings against coffee and omelet were arrested on the part of every member of the family circle long enough to allow the features to express the transient reception of an absurd idea, which took its departure in company with various brief and gentle exclamations. Between the traditional idea of the chief-magistrate of a city and the traditional idea of a showman, there is an incongruity so great that it is not possible to put the two together without exciting feeling of some kind—it may be contempt, or wonder, or mirth—but whatever it may be, it is of the same kind as that which results from the material out of which *Punch* fashions its social humors. Moreover, when we remember that the chief-magistrates of our cities are sometimes formally installed at the conclusion of an "inaugural procession," and then recall the character of the processions in which Mr. Barnum has hitherto borne a prominent part, we are confident that *Punch* can picture no greater incongruity when he puts together a nobleman and an organ-grinder, or represents the one attempting to perform the functions of the other. We say this, fully granting the possibility that Mr. Barnum as mayor may prove to be as good as, or even better than, the average holders of that office; for he is an exceptional showman, and holds certain exceptional relations to the city of Bridgeport. We mention his case as the most recent, rather than the best, illustration of what we are endeavoring to set forth—namely, the ludicrous incongruity between the function of many public offices and the character and attainments of the men who are frequently elected or appointed to fill them. What, again to illustrate, can be more utterly unlike than the functions exercised by a Methodist clergyman and the functions of an inspector of American consulates in foreign ports? We confess that our imagination completely fails in the effort to suggest the answers given by some of

our consuls to certain questions in the catechism, which must have been put to them by their official inspector upon his recent visit. The unlikeness of function in this case is fully equal to that exhibited in the case of a man said to have been elected to the English Parliament many years ago, who wrote (or could write) after his name "Prize Fighter and M.P." Of course we need not mention a recent parallel instance in our own politics, nor remind our readers of the absolute satire contained in the appointment of a Southern member of Congress, whose inimitable "*thar*" is the delight of the galleries, to a position upon the Committee on Public Education. But illustrations of our meaning are unfortunately so plentiful that every reader can readily supply them from his own immediate surroundings.

Apart from all theories of the origin of civilization, it is universally admitted that only the savage is capable of properly doing all things necessary to ensure the most perfect happiness possible to the state of society in which he lives. He only can be hunter, butcher, cook, arrow-maker, builder, legislator, priest, and root-digger rolled into one. All progress in civilization is necessarily attended with greater and still greater specialization of pursuits. It is almost impossible to-day for a man to be at the same time a butcher and an oculist, or for an artist to attempt to drive a pegging-machine. The skilled workman is he who knows how to do one thing, and does that one thing well. "Jack at all trades and master of none" was never truer than at the present time; but it will be truer to-morrow than it is to-day. This rule of fitness, the rule that training and natural faculty are demanded for whatever one may undertake to do, is becoming daily more imperative; and the rule should have no exception when applied to the holders of public office. From president to village alderman, the relation to function should be as precise, to say the least, as from blacksmith to entry-clerk in the various departments of a manufactory of sewing-machines. These trite facts are, of course, so perfectly familiar to all men of education, or of trained common sense, that their reiteration is in danger of becoming exceedingly wearisome; but we are obliged to remember that the average voter is not represented by the man of education or of trained common sense. The necessity of adaptation to any special trade or commercial pursuit is generally admitted, to a certain extent, even by the average unthinking voter; but the necessity of fitness for any public office he never seems to have taken into consideration. Any man is fit to hold and administer any office to which he can succeed in getting elected. Furthermore, we do not believe that any statement of facts can be made sufficiently forcible, or that any logic is sufficiently strong, to drive this unfortunate idea out of the mind of the ordinary voting citizen. Accustomed to regard an office as a prize or medal, to be gained very much in the same way as at a church fair the French clock is voted to the most popular clergyman, while the favorite doctor secures the piano, what wonder if a conception of the idea of official duties is obscured, or even never attained? No very peculiar fitness is needed to receive a gift. And therefore we find so often that in the thriving village, for instance, the favorite self-made manufacturer, who never read a line of history, is sent to Congress to help to make laws for a nation; while in city wards the most liberal giver of coal to the poor, or the contractor who employs the most workmen, or the keeper of the most popular saloon, takes the votes and the offices. It is evident, we think, to all who know something of the motives which guide the great majority of voters that the average American has no clear understanding, as yet, that there is any necessity for him to consider the question of fitness for required duties when he deposits his ballot for the man of his choice. To recur to our original illustration, it is certain that the majority of the people of Bridgeport do not recognize any incongruity between the functions of a showman and the functions of a chief-magistrate; yet even they, as we have already intimated, are probably much more excusable than many others whose actions might be here quoted, if necessary, in illustration.

Now, we fully believe that the most effective weapon with which to awaken the needed public feeling and combat the evils to which the lack of it gives birth, is a plentiful use of vigorous and good-natured humor—employing the word in a generic sense, to include everything akin to itself, from genial wit to caricature and satire. The point of a joke will enter many a brain that seems impervious to the point of an argument; the keen edge of witticism will cut where the clearest fact is too blunt to prove effective; and ridicule will open the eyes where logic fails. Mr. John Morrissey well knew the kind of argument best suited to his audience when he recently tried to ridicule the character of the appointments of Mayor Wickham, but the weapon is a dangerous one for him and his class to attempt to handle. It could be wielded with tenfold effect in the hands of their opponents, as was well shown during the warfare against the Ring in this city; people who could not read could easily understand the ridicule of pictures, and Nast's caricatures were potent where facts and arguments had always failed.

Our subject, which has been hinted at rather than treated, is capable of extended applications. Especially do we believe that the field for *Punch* in America is very much broader than this particular portion of it which we have pointed out. But we have space at present for only one other suggestion: mortifying as it is at times to see an important public office filled by a man who is thoroughly unfit in every particular for the position to which he has been chosen, and disheartening as is the reflection that this spectacle is an outcome of republican institutions, nevertheless all defects of this kind are, after all, among the minor evils of our political system. The matters of deepest importance have not been mentioned in this article. In connection with these last there is plenty of downright earnest work to be done, more than enough to create deep seriousness in him who perceives something of its extent and difficulty. It is well, therefore, to keep in reserve a wholesome antidote against cynicism and the blues, and to recognize one enemy at least who can be better attacked with the weapons of *Punch* than with statistics or a syllogism.

## ENGLAND.—THE WOMEN'S ENFRANCHISEMENT BILL.

LONDON, April 10, 1875.

IF any one had entered the House of Commons as I did on Wednesday afternoon, about five o'clock, and had heard the peroration to the speech of the late Attorney-General without knowing what the subject under discussion happened to be, he would have supposed that he had come in to witness the dying struggle of a strong administration, if not the falling effort of an extinguished empire. Sir Henry James owes his Parliamentary reputation principally to a speech which he made against the enfranchisement of women three years ago, and to a vigorous election contest which he fought and won at Taunton against the persistent hostility of the Woman's Disabilities League, which directed the whole of its influence against him, even to the length of sending two wild women to dog his footsteps during the whole of the election, when he vacated his seat on his appointment as Attorney-General in the autumn of 1873; it being, you will remember, a matter of election etiquette not to contest the seat of a Law officer when he receives his appointment as Attorney-General. On Wednesday, on the second reading of the bill for conferring the franchise upon women, Sir Henry wound up the debate, speaking from the first Opposition bench in the place usually occupied by the leader of the party—a position which helped the delusion that a great administration was about to receive its death-blow. The discussion had languished for several hours. Mr. Forsyth, who introduced the measure, had been dull, though his speech, carefully prepared and delivered with stately decorum, was evidently pleasing to the ladies in the cage above the Speaker's chair. Mr. Chaplin, a wealthy Lincolnshire squire, well known on the Turf, and not inexperienced in the ways of the wily sex, had moved the rejection of the bill, in a speech that was characterized as "splendid" by a succeeding speaker. Mr. Leatham, the Radical member for Huddersfield, who having lately acquired a landed property has very properly put on a coating of conservatism over his extreme views, seconded Mr. Chaplin's opposition, and made an effective speech full of neatly prepared impromptu sarcasms and sharply-turned epigrams. He was followed by Mr. Smollett, an elderly gentleman with a Scotch accent, who has wrecked a fair Parliamentary career on the sunken rock of his great-granduncle's reputation—Smollett the historian and

novelist. Mr. Smollett of our times has, unfortunately for himself, adopted much of the last-century coarseness of his distinguished relative's style, without one spark of his humor to set it off becomingly in the present day. The topic under discussion was congenial to his peculiar style of oratory, and he was careful not to pander to what no doubt seemed to him the prejudices of a prudish House; but, on the principle that a Smollett should call things by their Anglo-Saxon names, he gave free rein to his fancy and to a copious and straightforward vocabulary. The House did not like it, and for a moment was pleased to listen to a stern rebuke inflicted on him by Mr. Stansfeld, who has constituted himself the champion of the sex in all their worst vagaries, but in the end it experienced a feeling of revulsion at the latter gentleman's argument, and obviously voted in silence that the speech was a failure and the argument unsound. So far, with the exception of Mr. Chaplin's speech, the debate was poor. For three more hours it did not improve, but then Sir Henry James, with the intense passion of a man who had been pursued by harpies, rose at the table and delivered his mind upon the measure. He did not complain much of the bill itself, except that it would enfranchise wives as well as maidens; but he saw, "written in invisible ink" between the lines of the deftly-framed proposal, domestic strife in every family in the land, social revolution, imperial ruin, and all the other horrors which an eager imagination, heated by the persecution of many weird sisters working mischief in his constituency, conjured up to terrify the British nation. In his best dramatic style, and in imploring accents, he addressed first his own side of the House, and then the other, and finally the Speaker. He entreated the Liberals to refuse to pass a measure which would destroy their party, as all women, led by clergymen and doctors, would vote for Tory candidates. He entreated the Tories not to pass a measure that would uproot the constitution and overthrow all the cherished institutions of ages. He entreated the Speaker, who was there to moderate between the parties, to proclaim whether such a measure would not "endanger the happiness of the people and the greatness and stability of the empire." The words were brave; but, as it appeared, they were none too brave for the occasion. In the division, which immediately followed, the bill was thrown out by a small majority—only 35.

It seems a poor thing to come down from such flights as these to anything so commonplace as history, but I think it may not be uninteresting to trace the fate of this measure on the several occasions on which the House has expressed an opinion upon it. In 1870, a time when people's thoughts were occupied with Ireland and with education, the second reading of this bill was carried in a thin House by a small majority, no one believing that such an innovation was seriously intended; but on the motion of going into committee it was thrown out by a majority of 126, the number of votes being, ayes, 94; noes, 220.

In 1871, the ayes in favor of the second reading were 151; the noes, 220.

In 1872, the ayes in favor of the second reading were 143; the noes, 222.

In 1873, the ayes in favor of the second reading were 155; the noes, 222.

In 1874, no division—the bill withdrawn.

In 1875, the ayes in favor of the second reading were 152; the noes, 187.

It is curious to notice how closely the members correspond on either side each year, but it is somewhat remarkable to find that the supporters in the old Parliament and in the new are, numerically, almost identical. To the apparent falling off in the numbers of the opponents of the measure, I do not attach much importance. It may be that some who were under pledges to their constituents not to oppose the bill, determined to stay away from the division. But the real cause of the diminution in the numbers is due to an even more prosaic fact. Wednesday happened to be the day on which the Princess of Wales went down to Chatham to assist at the launch of the new iron-clad ship, called after her the *Alexandra*, and where Royalty goes, there the faithful Commons are pretty sure to follow. It probably did not occur to any of those who thus absented themselves that there was much danger of a second reading of a bill to create a social and political revolution being carried by a Tory Parliament, and in that belief they took a holiday. But, be the cause what it may, the small majority by which it has been lost has excited the promoters of the bill. They point with some elation to the fact that Mr. Disraeli, the head of the present Administration, and one member of his Cabinet, Lord John Manners, voted for the bill, and that Mr. Gladstone, the head of the last Administration, did not vote at all. But they discreetly draw a veil over the other fact that no less than twelve of the last Government, including Mr. Bright, Lord Hartington, and Mr. Lowe, and nine of the present, including Mr. Cross, Mr. Gathorne Hardy, and the two Tory whips, voted against them. Ignoring these not insignificant details, they look upon the passing of the bill at no distant future as a foregone conclusion, and they are already preparing to redouble their exertions to secure this still far-off social event in an early session of Parliament.

And from one, and that the logical, point of view, people seem fully well satisfied that they are not far wrong. If the occupation of a house and the payment of rates thereon constitute a qualification for the suffrage, and women do occupy houses and pay rates upon them, they ought not to be excluded from voting. "If John Brown," as one honorable member put it, "lives in No. 5 in any street and votes, why should Mary Smith, who lives under similar conditions in No. 6, be disqualified?" The logical answer to the question is not quite clear, but, as the Frenchman said when some one taxed him with a logical discrepancy in his views of the Franco-Prussian war, "on ne conte pas sur la logique dans la guerre." Politicians say you cannot legislate by logic to the subversion of expediency. If you, on mature reflection, are satisfied that the consistency of centuries should be overturned, and women should in all things be as men, then this measure may be passed. But, so soon as it is passed, those who have promoted it cannot cease from troubling until women sit in the House of Commons and in the House of Lords, as they now do on school-boards, and take an active part in the foreign and domestic legislation of the country. Neither can they draw the line at that point. If women enjoy the privileges of male citizenship, they must bear the burdens; and all the professions and trades, including the army, the navy, and the police, will demand their contingent from the hitherto protected sex. The stone once set rolling on the hilltop, as Sir Henry James so beautifully remarked, will not cease rolling till it reaches the valley. And if the bill passes, the defenders of expediency urge, the thin end of the wedge (to use their favorite metaphor) is inserted into our domestic, social, and imperial institutions, and it will be driven through until the gap is made irreparable.

I confess to a stolid sympathy with the advocates of expediency, and, though I never was dogged for days and nights by two women during an election contest, I cannot help feeling some dread of this social and domestic carpentering. It was only the other day that the principal and the professors in the University of Edinburgh experienced to the full some of the horrors pictured by the late Attorney-General by neglecting the precautions which the House of Commons were entreated to take at the outset of this new crusade. These learned gentlemen, some years ago—the year, as I remember by a *bon-mot* of his upon the subject, that Prévost-Paradol visited Edinburgh before he went to you—made arrangements whereby ladies who had a turn for nursing might obtain some instruction in the medical school in their University. In their case, even more than in that of Mr. Forsyth,

> "These good men little knew
> What the wily sex could do."

Six or seven ladies presented themselves, and were duly admitted to a limited attendance at the University. The arrangement worked well for a short time. But the ladies were not satisfied with limitations. They requested first one extension and then another, until their full demands were tabled, and amounted to all the privileges of male medical students, attendance with male students at the professors' lectures and University medical degrees. The authorities saw too late the fatal result of the admission of the thin end of the wedge, and it was only by a protracted litigation in the Scotch law courts, and, if I am not mistaken, in the House of Lords on appeal, that the matter was settled by the exclusion of the ladies by judicial decision. Such institutions as Girthon College, near Cambridge, where ladies have the advantage of professorial and tutorial assistance in their studies in their own class-rooms, and without the intermixture of male students, may be commended. A Royal Commission on Scotch Endowments, which has just issued its report, has recommended that an institution similar to Girthon should be established in Edinburgh, and supported out of misapplied endowments, and that, no doubt, is a reasonable recommendation. But such institutions and proposals are very different from the institution which the medical ladies desired to establish in the University of Edinburgh, and very different from the proposals of Mr. Forsyth and Mr. Stansfeld, which have so upset the equilibrium of the late Attorney-General.

## AUSTRALIAN POLITICS.

MELBOURNE, Feb. 1.

THE first session of the Eighth Parliament of Victoria has just closed, and all parties agree in denouncing it as a failure. "The performances of the Victoria Parliamentary Theatre have been one long-continued outrage on public taste and public intelligence," says the conservative *Argus*. "The

session has been one of the most barren and least satisfactory since the introduction of the constitution," says the liberal and ministerial *Age*. When I add that the one measure passed which excited any real interest in Parliament was an act to continue the payment of members, you will probably judge us more hardly than we deserve. Our public men are pretty fair representatives of the community; self-seeking, but not generally corrupt; factious at times, but also capable of public spirit, and failing just now to accomplish anything only because they have no very definite views and no competent leader. Perhaps it may be added that we are too prosperous at present to concern ourselves very seriously with questions of reform. Like true Englishmen, we regard a statesman who looks five years ahead as "unpractical," and prefer to put off repairing our house till the walls crack. Nevertheless, we are not indisposed to take up a speculative question from time to time; and the present session has been more interesting from the failure of two measures, which will serve to show whither we are drifting, than from its insignificant achievements in tinkering local acts or authorizing public works.

The most ambitious of our failures was an attempt to reform our constitution. Like most British colonies, we possess two Houses of Parliament, and are more or less embarrassed to know what to do with one of them. It is part of our political creed that the Legislative Assembly corresponds to the House of Commons in power and dignity, but we hold quite as strongly that the Legislative Council is not a House of Peers or even an Upper House. In a country where we have no history, no established church, and no aristocracy, where titles are rather laughed at, and any assumption of rank positively disliked, public opinion will not tolerate the institution of a counterfeit peerage. But then, again, our Council has no resemblance to the American Senate. The whole area of Victoria is about equal to that of Great Britain; and not even a stump-orator can affect to regard it as a federation of counties. Some philosophical conservatives hold that the Council represents the critical or deliberative element, and that its function is to prevent indiscreet legislation. Unluckily, it is notorious that no man good enough to get a seat in the Assembly will accept one in the Council; and it seems peculiar to entrust our second-rate men with a veto upon the measures of our ablest. The truer theory, I believe, is that the Council represents a single interest, that of property, and a single class, that of employers. It is elected by a limited constituency of electors, with a high qualification; its members are either moneyed men or possess the confidence of the moneyed class; and it never fails to veto any measure that appears to touch existing rights or to threaten uneven taxation. Having this single view before it, it is much more unanimous than the Assembly; and as its members are elected for ten years, they can defy public opinion. It has once produced a dead-lock in the colony by refusing to pass the supplies. It constantly rejects measures which the public and the Assembly are agreed in desiring. Our premier, in the early part of the year, Mr. Francis, pledged himself to appeal to the country on a measure for reforming the constitution, which should diminish the Council's power to obstruct. He proposed that where a measure passed by the Assembly in two consecutive sessions had been twice vetoed in the Council, the two Houses should vote upon it in conference. This, or something like it, as I need hardly tell your readers, was practised in Scotland, and is the plan adopted in Austria, in Würtemberg, in Hesse-Cassel, in Norway, and, to a certain extent, in Sweden and in Switzerland. But Mr. Francis, his advisers, and his opponents, knew only of the Norwegian precedent; and for some weeks, till the public mind had been enlightened by discussion, there was a perfect outburst of conservative indignation at "the Norwegian fad." It really seemed as if the argument, "it is not English," would be conclusive. But the good sense of the great constituencies triumphed, and a House was finally returned in which Mr. Francis appeared to be absolute. The second reading was carried by an overwhelming majority. At the third reading an honorable and able, but most impracticable Radical, Mr. Higinbotham, headed a secession, on the ground that the Assembly was parting with too much of its power. The unwilling supporters of the bill instantly ratted, and the Government majority dwindled down to two. At this critical moment Mr. Francis, on whom all depended, fell dangerously ill. A new Ministry was formed, and the bill has been withdrawn for the year. It is to be introduced again next session, but there is little hope that the Ministers, who are now in on sufferance, will be allowed to pass any measure of importance. The discussion, however, has had its use. It has shown that our people are stubbornly and not stolidly British. They have not the Yankee readiness to give a new thing a trial because it is new, but they will not absolutely condemn it because it is not old. They went with Mr. Francis sufficiently to make him all-powerful in the Assembly, but I do not think they would have supported him in a protracted quarrel with the Council. They are more likely to sweep it away altogether in some time of popular excitement. They cannot be very enthusiastic about patching up what is radically bad.

Meanwhile, the Council has profited by its reprieve to veto a measure which is loudly demanded in the country, which is supported by all influential newspapers, and which the Assembly passed in a week, almost without discussion. The Bill for Mining on Private Property is no new measure, and deals with a very flagrant want. In all transfers of public land in this colony the Crown has invariably reserved the "royal" metals of gold and silver. Nothing is more certain, therefore, than that a man does not own the gold on his own property. But the Crown has forgotten to reserve the right of search, and the consequence is that great tracts of auriferous land are now locked up. The question becomes more and more important every year. In the first place, our actual gold-fields show signs of exhaustion, and several thousand miners are said to be out of work. In the next place, pending the enactment of some general measure, all lands supposed to be auriferous are being withheld from agricultural settlement. The bill passed this year by the Assembly allowed the Governor to grant leases for mining on private property. If the persons applying are not themselves the owners of the land, they were to make compensation to the owners, and the leases were to be forfeited if the mines were not honestly worked. Such a measure does not, I think, seem very revolutionary, though it undoubtedly assumes that the State will not allow any man to withhold from public use what he does not use himself. But out of thirty members of Council, Government could only bring together seven to vote for this measure. Its opponents throughout took the line that owners of land were entitled to sell the gold which had never been conveyed to them; in other words, that mining rights cannot be reserved in a sale of land. Views so discordant can hardly be reconciled, and as the bill will certainly not be let drop, its further discussion will probably lead to fresh complications between the Council and the Assembly.

You will see from what I have said of the Mining on Private Property Bill that we have been forced into some broader speculations than are currently accepted in England. I feel certain that in England an attempt to enforce the rights of the Crown by granting licenses to mine for gold on private property would be regarded as grossly oppressive. Here the opposition to the bill has absolutely no strength, it may almost be said no existence, outside the Legislative Council. There is another respect in which we are likely, before long, to be forced into an un-English current of thought: I mean as regards our land laws. For some years past we have been legislating with the view to creating a class of yeoman-farmers. In this colony we have failed signally, for reasons which I hope to explain in a subsequent letter; and it seems likely that we shall soon pass laws to prevent the accumulation of large properties in the hands of individuals. Otherwise—so great has been the accumulation of wealth—we have every chance of seeing four-fifths of the colony divided between the immediate descendants of three or four hundred persons.

I have only to add that at present our prosperity is something wonderful. We defy all economical laws by protective tariffs and inconsistent land legislation, and the revenue shows no sign of decrease. Here and there a particular industry, like the mining, falls a little behind; but its deficiencies are more than compensated by the good seasons of the last three or four years, which have given us heavy clips of wool and abundant harvests. Altogether, the public revenue is about four millions, or at the rate of five pounds ($25) a head. Of this we spend about a fifth (£800,000) on a state system of secular education. But then the interest on our debt is almost paid by the receipts from our public works, and our army and navy are only in embryo.

# Correspondence.

## THE "ARMSTRONG" GUN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to call attention to a very grave omission in Appleton's 'Cyclopædia,' which ought either to be corrected or explained at once. In the articles "Artillery" and "Cannon," the former by Colonel H. A. Du Pont, U.S.A., the latter by General James Harrison Wilson, the guns of Armstrong, Frazer, Blakely, Krupp, and others are fully and minutely described But the inventor of this modern gun which is revolutionizing the heavy artillery of the world, is not even mentioned by name, although the inventor was an American. In the year 1844, Daniel Treadwell, professor in Harvard University, devised the whole modern process of gun

manufacture, now adopted in Prussia and England, and made guns with astonishing success. If Treadwell's skill in lobbying and reasoning with incompetent officials and military commissions had only been equal to his science, his gun would have been at once adopted by the United States Government. In England, as soon as the Treadwell patent expired, the invention was eagerly seized on, and the Treadwell guns are now made there under the name of the "Armstrong" gun. The so-called "Armstrong" gun is the Treadwell gun in every particular, with the single exception of the substitution of the steam-hammer in the manufacture for the hydrostatic press—a change of doubtful value. It cannot be supposed that the omission of Treadwell's name, and of a full and just recognition of his services, is due to ignorance, as the gun is mentioned in earlier editions of the 'Cyclopædia;' and if, as appears probable, it is not an omission, but a suppression, and the suppression is due to boyish prejudices about *péquin*, and a reluctance to admit that the most formidable engine of war ever devised was entirely conceived and perfected, and successfully manufactured, by a civilian and a professor in a college, then the sooner the articles in question are rewritten, the better. Nothing short of a full and explicit statement of Treadwell's whole invention, *with dates*, can make amends for the injustice done him.

Very respectfully yours, N. N.

New York, April 22, 1875.

## THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE LOBBY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having passed the winter in Cambridge, and been brought more or less in contact with the young men there, I was much struck with the extent to which the *Nation* is read and referred to. An influence of this sort involves some responsibility. The scantiness of the sources of information from anything beyond a partisan and temporary point of view, as to the working of our Government, is such as to make instruction in comparative politics one of the most apparent wants in our collegiate education.

Your article upon "The Supreme Court on the Lobby," valuable as it is, seems to me to admit of further analysis. Why is it that a claim like that of Mr. Trist, supposed to be just, is pressed upon Congress year after year without receiving any attention? And why is it, again, that a professional lobby has grown up as the only means of getting anything through Congress? Why has a just claim no chance without the lobby, and any claim, just or unjust, a very good chance if the lobby is properly handled? The first reason seems to me to be the entire absence of personal and public responsibility. If a just claim were neglected in England, some member would address a personal enquiry to a Cabinet Minister, and the Opposition, whose function it is to enforce just such criticisms, would insist upon a satisfactory explanation. But you cannot cross-question a majority, because it will not reply. It is notorious that men will do and leave undone in a body what they will not singly. There is with us no Opposition, because there is nobody for it to act upon. Another reason is the necessity, in the absence of any guiding authority over the vast mass of business brought before Congress, of the reference of all business to standing committees. As these committees do their work outside, and from impulses of which the public can have no knowledge, the lobby, whether for good or evil, is a necessity. It is the only means of conducting business with committees, whether by a private person pursuing a claim, or by the Secretary of the Treasury with a plan for a return to specie payments. Add the fact, that every measure must be got through both Houses, not by responsible leadership, but, as it were, by a haphazard crystallization of majorities, and the necessity of the lobby as an institution becomes apparent. Finally, special legislation, whether in Congress or the States, is a natural result of employing only special legislators. The nation is not represented in Congress The members who form all the working committees are local representatives. Will they not, as a matter of course, give their attention to local wants?

There is but one reason why we should not have responsible ministers guiding, though not controlling legislation, securing publicity of debate, and strict accountability not only for themselves but for the majority of the individual members of Congress. That reason is the interest of the lobby, a power which is just as determined and just as able to prevent publicity, responsibility, coherence of legislation, national as against special laws, in short, honest and good government of any kind, as it is to bar or promote any claim which it may choose. So long as the people choose to be governed by standing committees they must make up their minds to a virtual government by the lobby. When they are sufficiently tired of the lobby, they must insist that the executive branch, the object of the national election, shall have the powers requisite for carrying on the Government, subject to responsibility to Congress and the country, which will then first begin to be duly enforced. G. B.

Boston, April 24, 1875.

## ENGLISH VOCABULARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to add a word of explanation to a paragraph in the *Nation* of February 25 with regard to the number of words in the vocabulary of a person of fair intelligence? This paragraph was a brief mention of a paper in which I expressly defined a *word* to be (for my purpose) "a symbol occurring in capital letters in the main body of Webster's Dictionary, edition of 1852." I should feel great diffidence in criticising any results reached by so eminent a scholar as Professor Marsh, and this definition of a word shows that my count of the words in common use agrees substantially with his own estimates as explained in the *Nation* of April 22. I think I may say, however, that Professor Marsh's meaning is not so perfectly clear in his 'Lectures on the English Language,' pp. 181–2, as it is made in his note to the *Nation*, for it has not only misled me, who have no particular knowledge on the subject, but also a distinguished philologist whom I consulted in regard to it.

It may perhaps be proper to add, in regard to my estimate of the number of words in a vocabulary of average size (30,000 words), that Webster does not give "*love, lovest, loves, loved, lovedst*, and *loving* as *six* words, but as *three*, viz., *love* (noun), *love* (verb), and *loving* (adjective), and I counted these as three.

My object was to get a practical idea of the number of words, in the sense in which I used the term, which are in common use, and I counted *lover, loveless*, and *lovely* as three words, although they have the same "simple or stem."

With regard to the vocabularies of Milton and Shakspere the same rule was followed, my object not being to compare the number of stem-words which they used with the number in common use, but the number of signs for ideas, whether derivative or not.

Edward S. Holden.

Washington, April 24, 1875.

# Notes.

Noyes, Holmes & Co., Boston, will shortly issue 'Piano and Song; How to Teach; How to Learn; and How to Form a Judgment of Musical Performances'—a series of papers by the late Friedrich Wieck, the father of Frau Dr. Clara Schumann and instructor of herself and her husband, the famous composer. The translation has been made by an American lady.——Mr. John Harper, the senior member of the firm of Harper & Bros., and one of the four brothers of the earlier firm, of whom but one survives, died in this city last week.——The Systematic Beneficence Society of Birmingham, Conn., offers through its secretary, Mr. Geo. W. Shelton, a prize of one hundred dollars for the best tract ("that shall be judged satisfactory") on giving a percentage of one's annual income for charity. The essays must reach the Secretary by July 1.——We are glad to notice a third and revised pocket-edition of Prof. J. D. Whitney's 'Yosemite Guide-Book' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), very compact and elegantly printed. A fourth map has now been added to those of the editions of 1869, 1872, namely, of the Hetch-Hetchy Valley, which is described for the first time in this work. This cañon of the Tuolumne is about twelve miles north of that of the Merced, and is well worth visiting, though as yet rather difficult of access. "It is," says Prof. Whitney, "grand and interesting, but not to be compared with the Yosemite." However, it would appear wonderful anywhere but in California.——A third revised and enlarged edition of Lippincott's 'Philadelphia and its Environs' is also before us. It is profusely illustrated, and, we need not say, handsomely printed. In the chapter "Relics of the Past" we find no mention of a very respectable, if humble and secluded relic—the Friends' Alms-house. The architectural appearance of the city is undergoing a marked change; perhaps, on the whole, for the better.——In Bulletin No. 33 of the Boston Public Library, the patrons of that institution are treated to the bibliography of Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill, and two pages are occupied with an analytic account of works on costume. As usual, these lists refer to works in the Library, but are serviceable anywhere.——The most readable article in the *China Review* for November and December is that on "Chinese Proverbs and their Lessons," by Mr. Alfred Lister; and the most noticeable

passage in it is that which asserts, with illustrations, that "the Chinese have abundant proverbs implying not only a belief in God, but also a humble trust in him." The existence of this belief has been denied, because "the Chinese name for God is also, as it has been in almost every nation, the name of the sky."——A correspondent writes us: "Let me call your attention to Henri Mürger's 'Scènes de la vie de Bohème' (ed. Mich. Levy, p. 28). You will find that what you call 'one of the latest stories circulated illustrative of the political condition of France' (April 1, p. 215), is simply a fragment of one of Murger's *bons-mots* put into the mouth of *Marcel*, the artist, as early as 1850. It has suffered frequently at the hands of plagiarists, but has never before, I believe, been travestied by a newspaper so well entitled to respect for its cultivated tone as the *Nation*."

—Our readers have been kept informed of the progress of the 'Statistical Atlas of the United States,' under the direction of Gen. Francis A. Walker, late Superintendent of the Census. We are now able to announce that the letterpress is completed, thus finishing the work. The five thousand copies authorized by Congress in 1873 will soon find their way among the public libraries, learned societies, academies, etc., etc., which may be selected by the Secretary of the Interior in his distribution of them. Under a proper system of disposing of Government publications at a fair price, this Atlas would be made procurable by the public at large; as it is, it can become the private possession of but a few. The want of time and money has frustrated the intention of providing every map or group of maps with a commentary, but there is still a goodly number of papers, which we shall attempt briefly to indicate. Gen. Walker himself furnishes the Introduction, and also the concluding article on the "Relations of Race and Nativity to Mortality in the United States." The latter has already been published in substance in the transactions of the American Public Health Association, as a paper read before that body. It deals with an admittedly abstruse and difficult question, but reaches probable if not positive conclusions of great interest. Prof. J. D. Whitney's paper on the "Physical Features of the United States" is clear and untechnical enough to find a place in any text-book on American history. More technical is the explanation of the Geological Map of the United States, by Chas. H. Hitchcock and Wm. P. Blake, to which is appended a very valuable list of geological maps and publications. Prof. R. W. Raymond describes, in a readable manner, but briefly, and with a liberal quotation from one of his own reports as Commissioner of Mining Statistics, the gold and silver mines of the West. Prof. Hitchcock, again, discusses the coal measures of the United States, divided into the New England basin, the anthracite basins of Pennsylvania, the Appalachian coal-field, the Michigan, Illinois, and Missouri basins, and the Texas coal-field. Mr. S. W. Stocking, of the United States Patent Office, gives a full explanation of his valuable map of the areas and political divisions of the United States; with text and map together, one can construct the map of the United States at any given date. Two elaborate tables accompany this paper. Mr. E. B. Elliott, of the United States Bureau of Statistics, a writer of acknowledged authority, contributes an "Approximate Life-Table for the United States on the basis of the Census of 1870."

—Two other papers remain to be mentioned as having a special interest. One, by Professor William H. Brewer, is on "The Woodlands and the Forest Systems of the United States"; the other, by Mr. S. A. Galpin, on "The Minor Political Divisions of the United States." The extent of woodland in the country can only be estimated. On the maps of the Land Office, remarks Professor Brewer, "much more care has been shown in locating the mineral districts than the woodlands." This is not surprising when we consider that immigrants have naturally avoided the wooded States, like Indiana, in favor of territory that required no clearing, and that the mining regions offer as an attraction for colonists neither timber nor arable land. For rapid and widespread settlement the policy of the Land Office was well adapted, and such settlement had a vital (though unforeseen and uncalculated) bearing on the perpetuity of the Union as against slavery and secession. Professor Brewer's view of the gain and loss in woodland is on the whole encouraging. Its area is very slowly if at all diminishing in New England, and the same may be said of the Southeastern and Southwestern States, where the prime trees are taken out, but the other growth not disturbed. In the Middle States there is a rapid falling-off, without compensation, in area and value, and the greatest consumption of all in the Northwest. As an illustration of the treelessness of certain virgin districts, Professor Brewer says that "it is possible to cross the continent from the Pacific to the Gulf of Mexico without passing through a forest five miles in extent, or large enough to be indicated on the map." The main distinction of growths is broad-leaved, hard-wood trees for the eastern half of the continent, and coniferæ for the western half. "Neither beech, nor elm, nor hickory, nor mulberry, nor basswood, nor tulip-tree, nor magnolia, nor sassafras forms an element in the forests of the Rocky Mountains and westward." We do not remember to have read before of the redwood that, when cut, a new growth sprouts from the stump, "which is not true of any other timber-tree belonging to the coniferæ." A eucalyptus felled at Sonoma, Cal., in 1874, at the age of nine years, was ninety-six feet high and eighteen inches in diameter at four feet from the ground. Mr. Galpin's subject is novel, and susceptible of much more extended treatment than was possible in the Atlas. He compares and illustrates the town system of self-government, which exists in its purity only in New England; the county system, characteristic of the South; and the compromise system, prevalent in the Middle States. He quotes a letter from Jefferson, in which that statesman praises the New England system for the facility which it affords of rapid and concerted action, saying that it enabled those colonies to resist British oppression more promptly than the clumsy communities to the south of them, and later, as States, to effect the repeal of the embargo, in opposition to the wishes of the larger half of the Union. This would have afforded a good text for orators at the Concord Centennial. It may be doubted if the town-meeting system was practicable in a community essentially slaveholding, and therefore essentially agricultural and sparsely populated, and, of course, essentially oligarchical.

—The National Academy of Sciences has just concluded its April meeting in Washington, which was held at the Smithsonian Institution, under the presidency of Professor Henry. The attendance was not large, either of members or of the public, but a respectable number of papers were read, of which a very full report has been given by the *Tribune*. Of the more strictly scientific papers, that of Professor Loomis, of Yale College, on the results to be reached from a discussion of the signal-service maps, and Professor Langley's account of solar phenomena observed at Alleghany Observatory, were of most general interest; while President Barnard's Report for the Committee on Weights, Measures, and Coinage, and Mr. Justice Bradley's (of the Supreme Court) proposal for a reform of the Gregorian Calendar, referred most directly to practical questions. The reform of the calendar has been somewhat fully discussed lately, and a bill setting forth that "the Gregorian year pays no proper respect to the cardinal points in the earth's orbit," and proposing to secure such respect, was laid before the House of Representatives at its last session. Mr. Justice Bradley's plan proposes to fix the beginning of the year at the winter solstice (Dec. 21), and to divide it into four unequal parts of 90, 93, 93, and 89 days; in leap-years the last part is to have 90 days. In the remarks on this paper, a much better plan was mentioned, which had been previously discussed by the Philosophical Society of Washington. This was to begin the year with December 21, but to divide it into six parts of two months each, each part to have 61 days in leap-years, and the last part to have but 60 days in common years. The scheme would be somewhat as follows for a common year of both systems:

| | Jan. | Feb. | Mar. | Apr. | May. | June. | July. | Aug. | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gregorian.. | 31, | 28, | 31, | 30, | 31, | 30, | 31, | 31, | 30, | 31, | 30, | 31. |
| Ideal..... | 31, | 30; | 31, | 30; | 31, | 30; | 31, | 30; | 30, | 31; | 30, | 30. |

Thus only February, August, and December would be altered by this ingenious plan, which is due to Mr. E. B. Elliott, the statistician. Papers by Professors Alex. Agassiz, Gill, Marsh, and Newberry, on zoölogical topics; by Professors Newcomb and Davidson, on astronomy; and by Professors Guyot and Lesley, on geology and physical geography, were also read. The communication of Professor Marsh was on the "Progressive Increase in Size of the Brain in Fossil Mammals." Briefly, they were to the effect that in the earlier mammals the brain was much smaller than in the later ones, and that there had been a progressive increase in the size of it—in other words, that the brain as a whole has developed much more than in ratio to the size of the animal, and that the cerebrum has also grown much more in proportion than the cerebellum. This theorem was illustrated by reference to the development of the brain in the several successive members of the chief groups of Ungulates, as well as in groups of the orders of Primates, Carnivores, Insectivores, and Rodents. Professor Lesley reported on the progress of the recently-instituted Geological Survey of Pennsylvania. Provision had been made for three years only, and the Survey had to be organized to correspond. It appears that three cardinal points have been selected from which to work, viz., Easton, York, and on the Juniata. Such obstacles are opposed in the coal and oil districts as to render efficient examinations of these almost impracticable. One of the principal and most unexpected results thus far developed is the ascertainment of the comparatively small vertical thickness of the lower limestones in the Reading district. These had been previously reported to be 10,000 to 12,000 feet in

vertical extension, but now turn out to be only about 2,000 to 3,000 feet thick. The Academy re-elected Professor Robert E. Rogers (chemist), and chose Professor A. Hall, U.S.N. (astronomer), Professor Alpheus Hyatt (naturalist), Professor Joseph Le Conte (geologist), and Mr. Lewis H. Morgan (ethnologist), as new members.

—The general index to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* ('Table Générale—1831–1874') has at last been published. It makes a volume of 477 pages, of the familiar size and type of the *Revue* itself (New York: F. W. Christern). In a modest but self-appreciative introduction the history of this periodical is traced from its commencement "in that great intellectual movement which set in towards the close of the Restoration, and expanded with so much éclat immediately after the Revolution of July." Intimately associated as it was with the new constitutional Government, the *Revue* did not concern itself with politics till 1833. The Revolution of 1848 and the establishment of the Empire caused, and we suppose we may say compelled, it ("par suite des restrictions légales") to give less exclusive attention to the affairs of France, and more to those of other countries—to justify, more than it had hitherto done, its world-embracing title. It is with sadness that the conductors of the *Revue* have to confess that twenty years of deliberate endeavor to enlighten the leading minds of France in regard to foreign nations, and particularly (after Sadowa) the great neighboring nation, failed to arouse the country from its vanity of self-contemplation and that overweening confidence in its own strength which was so rudely shaken in 1870. "Frightful disasters were the price of our illusions and defects," and the lesson still holds: "France will never know herself well except on condition of her knowing foreign countries better than she has hitherto done." Seven hundred and fifty writers, and these nearly all Frenchmen, figure in the 'Table Générale' as contributors to the *Revue*. They are given in Part I. in alphabetical order, their contributions being classified and then arranged chronologically. In this way one easily discovers the first connection of each with the *Revue*, the period of his greatest activity, and his latest appearance down to 1874. Part II. is analytical, of subjects discussed; Part III. is geographical, for an example of which take *England*, whose subheadings are: Literary and political history; legislation and administration; political economy; agriculture, sylviculture, and sport; industry; commerce; finances; public works, and railroads; colonies; army; marine; voyages, and ethnography; poetry; novels; drama; fine arts; religions; philosophy and morals; sciences; public instruction—in all, ten pages of the Index. The Old World occupies in this division nearly forty-four pages; the New World but eight, one-half of which are devoted to the United States, leading off, as it happens (shall we say prophetically?), with an article on Canada. Travellers in this country, among whom MM. Michel Chevalier, De Tocqueville, Duvergier de Hauranne, J. J. Ampère, and Auguste Laugel are the best known, furnish most of the writings about the United States. The only American names among the contributors are (by virtue of translation) Fenimore Cooper, in a letter to Lafayette on public expenditures, T. B. Aldrich, Bret Harte, and Edward Eggleston. Mr. George Walker, we imagine, needed no translator in writing on the American finances since the civil war. The only British names we have recognized in the list are Allan Cunningham, Wilkie Collins, and "Ouida." Half a dozen other writers would, we think, complete the list of the non-French. Among these Signor Bonghi, K. Hillebrand, and Vámbéry may have used the French as an original medium.

—A few weeks ago we mentioned the proposed printing of Sainte-Pelaye's 'Glossary of the French Language from its Origin to the Time of Louis XIV.' Some account of the author and his inedited works may not be uninteresting to our readers. Jean-Baptiste de la Curne (the name Sainte-Pelaye was given him to distinguish him from his twin brother) was born at Auxerre in 1697, of an illustrious family. His health was very delicate, and he was carefully kept from study until quite late, not beginning Greek and Latin until he was fifteen. He evinced, however, a wonderful quickness in all he undertook and was received into the Académie des Inscriptions when he was only twenty-seven years old. He was for a time diverted from literature by diplomacy, but soon gave up a brilliant career to return to his studies. He first became interested in Plutarch, but relinquished this author for the early history of France. His labors in this field led him naturally into mediæval literature and an examination of the romances of chivalry. In the prosecution of his work he undertook several journeys to Italy, and made extensive collections of manuscripts and extracts. He finally settled down on two great works: a Dictionary of French antiquities, and a Glossary of Old French. His materials for the latter filled forty quarto volumes, and he had issued a prospectus of the work in 1756, when a friend called his attention to the fact that the Glossary was not historical—*i.e.*, took no account of the various phases through which a word passed as to form and meaning. Sainte-Pelaye recognized the justice of the criticism, and did not hesitate to recommence his work, which he completed in sixty-one quarto volumes (MS.), and this it is which is to be published under the editorship of MM. H. Champion, L. Lavre, and Pajot. Sainte-Pelaye was admitted into the French Academy in 1758, and was a member of the *della Crusca*, and other learned societies. He died in 1781, shortly after his brother, between whom and himself there existed the most ardent and touching affection.

—His only important printed work is: 'Mémoires sur l'ancienne chivalrie, considérée comme un établissement politique et militaire' (Paris, 1759–1781. 3 vols. 12mo). His notes and extracts on Provençal literature he turned over to the Abbé Millot, who produced from them his very unsatisfactory 'Histoire Littéraire des Troubadours' (Paris, 1802. 3 vols. 12mo). Sainte-Pelaye's MSS. have, however, been preserved in the National Library and the library of the Arsenal, and some idea of their author's astounding industry may be formed when we say that the first-named library possesses three hundred and thirty-six, and the second over one hundred folio and quarto manuscript volumes. These contain copies, extracts, and notices of MSS. of all kinds, lists of names and subjects, and special and general glossaries. The real work of this enormous collection was done by Sainte-Pelaye himself. His coadjutors for the most part only copied; he then compared the copies again with the original, and explained in the margin the difficult words and passages in the text. These explanations were then copied on separate slips and pasted, in alphabetical order, in folio volumes. Sometimes he himself wrote out difficult passages when the other copies did not seem to him exact enough. It is melancholy to think how little credit this laborious scholar has hitherto received, his greatest work having reposed unprinted in libraries, a precious spoil for literary adventurers and ungrateful scholars who have borrowed from its treasuries without acknowledgment. Roquefort, for instance, in his 'Glossaire de la Langue romane' (Paris, 1808. 2 vols. 8vo), took his material almost bodily from Sainte-Pelaye's MSS. without a word of acknowledgment, and had the impudence to put on the title-page 'd'après les manuscrits de la bibliothèque impériale.' More recently, Littré has drawn abundantly from Sainte-Pelaye, as has also Godefroy, the latest lexicographer of Old French, whose work has not yet seen the light, owing to the downfall of the Empire. Nor is it merely for Old French that the Sainte-Pelaye MSS. are so important; he collected a vast amount of material relating to Provençal. Indeed, with access to his collection and the Paris MSS. a student in this department has almost the entire Provençal lyrical literature at his command, without going outside of the National and Arsenal libraries. In the latter are preserved the notices and extracts from the Italian Troubadour MSS., and an extensive index to all the MSS. used by Sainte-Pelaye. He enjoyed unusual facilities for gathering his materials, a Papal brief throwing open to him that most inaccessible of all libraries, the Vatican; and many MSS. are now only known by his descriptions and extracts. In publishing his Glossary, the French people are but doing a tardy act of justice to one of their most laborious and profound if least-known scholars.

—To what an extent the study of Icelandic is carried in the schools of Europe is shown by the lecture-lists of the German universities for the recently-terminated winter semester. While ten universities announced lectures on Old High-German, and nine on Anglo-Saxon, no fewer than eleven maintained courses on Icelandic literature. The lecturers were Möbius at Kiel, Müllenhoff (Berlin), Hildebrand (Halle), Wilken (Göttingen), Kölbing (Breslau), Weigand (Giessen), Bergmann (Strassburg), Ettmüller (Zurich), Zupitza (Vienna), Schönbach (Gratz), and Hofmann (Munich). All this is in addition to the lectures of Dr. Konrad Maurer at Munich on Icelandic law, and those of Professor Birlinger at Bonn on Icelandic philology. Some of these names, like those of Maurer and Möbius, are already familiar to the readers of the *Nation*. Of the others, Ettmüller has published an Icelandic chrestomathy and an 'Altnordischer Sagenschatz'; Bergmann is the author of several volumes of commentary, in French, on the so-called elder Edda; while Zupitza has communicated many articles on Icelandic matters to the *Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie* and other periodicals. Eugen Kölbing, the youngest of these scholars, who was lately appointed to the chair of Icelandic at Breslau, issued last year an admirably-edited volume containing early Icelandic versions of four of the Arthurian legends—the Parcevals saga, the Valvertháttr, the Ívents saga, and the Mírmans saga—under the general title of 'Riddarasögur.' That portion of the old Northern literature which embraces the tales of chivalry is an almost unworked field, scores of manuscript sagas of this class still lying on the shelves of Scandinavian libraries awaiting a proper editor. These Icelandic

translations sometimes throw light upon obscure words and passages in the existing texts of the Old French or other originals. In this respect, they possess a general literary interest even greater than that which attaches to the sagas of native growth ; and Professor Kölbing's redaction is to be welcomed on this account as well as for its peculiar value to students of Icelandic.

—Besides that of Kölbing, the past year has brought prominently into notice another new name in the domain of Icelandic scholarship. Dr. Gustaf Cederschjöld of Lund—Sweden's second university—has given to the public, within a few months of each other, two works of special interest. The first reproduces the best and oldest text of the Bandamanna saga, a text hitherto inedited, the two previous editions of the saga (Holar, 1756, and Copenhagen, 1850) having been based upon a later and, on the whole, inferior manuscript. The scene of this saga lies in the northwest of Iceland, and its incidents—the date of which may be placed in the earliest years of the eleventh century—are connected with those of the more famous Grettis saga. It furnishes a curious picture of the formalities of ancient Icelandic jurisprudence, being in fact the story of a noted lawsuit. The other work is a critical edition of the 'Geisli' or 'Olafsdrápa,' a poem of the twelfth century. Its author, Einar Skúlason, an Icelandic skald, composed it in honor of St. Olaf, king of Norway, at the request of King Eystein, a descendant of the canonized monarch. It is the oldest of what may be styled the Christian lays of the later skalds. It was publicly recited in the cathedral of Trondhjem, between the years 1152 and 1155, in the presence of King Eystein and the other royal sons of Harald Gilli, the Archbishop of Norway, and a crowd of lesser dignitaries. It has even been surmised, from one somewhat obscure passage, that among the audience was Nicholas Breakspeare, then Cardinal-archbishop of Albano, but subsequently known as Pope Adrian IV., who was sent to Norway in 1152, in order to institute, as Papal legate, the archiepiscopal see of Trondhjem. The Icelander's poetical eulogy, pronounced before an assemblage so brilliant, was loudly applauded ; even St. Olaf himself is said to have expressed his gratification by emitting from his shrine what the saga calls "a precious odor," which filled the edifice. Produced under such circumstances, it is not strange that the 'Geisli' came to rank as one of the most renowned of the skaldic lays. Dr. Cederschjöld has followed the text of the manuscript in the Royal Library of Stockholm, which has been little used, and has accompanied it with a valuable introduction, careful syntactical notes, and accurate lists of the poetical paraphrases.

## WHITNEY'S LINGUISTIC STUDIES.*

OUR scholars will be glad to see a second volume of Professor Whitney's 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies,' and to learn that the first was well received by the general public ; it speaks well for the general public. The first volume was much taken up with views of the origin and nature of language and of the science of language, and it was in great part polemic. The subjects of this volume are not so imposing, nor the noise of battle so loud, but it seems to be even more valuable. It begins with essays on "The British in India" and "China and the West," and closes with an article on "The Lunar Zodiac of India, Arabia, and China," all of which are just such comprehensive, clear, condensed statements of fact and truth as scholars rejoice in having always at hand. Then there are articles on Max Müller's views of mythology and a science of religions. Professor Whitney does not believe that mythology is a disease of language, and he looks for light from a truly scientific comparison of religions, but not from Professor Müller.

The marrow of the book is the phonology. Professor Whitney's essays on this subject had never been given to the general public, and had been for years wholly out of reach. The extent and depth of his investigations will surprise many who thought themselves pretty well acquainted with his work. We have here "The Elements of English Pronunciation," "The Relation of Vowel and Consonant," "Bell's Visible Speech," and "The Sanskrit Accent." There is also an introductory essay on orthography, "How shall we Spell ?" which the readers of the *Nation* in 1867 will recognize as an old acquaintance. Professor Whitney is earnestly in favor of a reformed spelling It is not long since we had Professor Hadley's utterances to the same effect. Indeed, there is no difference of opinion among scholars on this point. It is strange that nothing can be done. We cannot help thinking that Professor Whitney overrates the lions that seem to stop the road. Some of the literary amateurs of the last generation, to be sure, roared loudly over the destruction of the history of our speech by phonetic innovations, and there may be still some mimetic noise of that kind among our minor essayists ; but there is a very good degree of general enlightenment on this subject. There is abundant hostility to the old spelling among the active class of our school superintendents and teachers, especially where there are German children in the schools. If Professor Whitney, and Professor Child for Harvard, and Professor Trumbull, who must be worried beyond measure with the unintelligible attempts at recording our Indian dialects which he has to guess out, and Professor Haldeman for the University of Pennsylvania, and other scholars of the kind, would make an effort, they would find it more successful than they hope. If they would agree on lists of words in which the spelling may be changed, so as to make them conform to analogy and draw them towards a general alphabet and yet leave them recognizable by common readers, they might certainly have the spelling used in their own papers in the transactions of learned societies. The Philological Society of England permits its members to use their own spelling in its printed transactions These gentlemen might surely move the American Philological Association, the Oriental Society, the National Educational Association, and very likely our scientific associations. The teachers of England and Wales have appointed a committee to examine this matter for them. Measures have already been taken in Germany for the rectification of the spelling of the new Empire. A little definite precept and good example, and urgency from the authorities in scholarship of our universities, might secure a reform of the spelling of our public documents, and move the educational magnates of our common schools and the publishers of school-books, and then the battle would be won.

In the essay on the "Elements of English Pronunciation," Professor Whitney gives an account of all the sounds in his native speech, his method of forming each sound, and the frequency with which it occurs. It is a contribution to the study of English dialects, a subject which is attracting much attention in England. Perhaps a few comments on Professor Whitney's speech may suggest to some of our readers who are familiar with American dialects different from his to report them to Mr. A. J Ellis, at 25 Argyle Road, Kensington, W., London, for the English Dialect Society. Professor Whitney's is the traditional speech of a cultured family of Northampton, Massachusetts. He begins with the sound of *a* in *far, father*. He calls it open *a;* the *a* of *pan* he calls palatal, the *a* of *all* labial. He gives the open sound in *calm, answer, pass, blaspheme, path, after, laugh*, and the like. The writer of this notice is a native of Worcester, Massachusetts, a graduate of Amherst College, and has since lived in the city of New York, in Fredericksburg, Va., and in Easton, Pa. In Worcester we were carefully taught at school to give in most of these words an intermediate sound between *far* and *pan*. In Virginia a cherished tradition of the blue blood requires the *a* of all these words to be fully as labial as that of *all* in New England. The palatal sound is, however, common there ; it prevails in Pennsylvania, except before *r*. Professor Whitney's open *a* has a decided labial tone to one long used to the *a* of the Middle States.

Prof. Whitney pronounces *pair, there, wear*, with the sound of *pan* protracted and followed by a vanish. We have everywhere heard this as the prevailing sound. Those who use the sound of *a* in *pay* are exceptions in a college class in Pennsylvania as well as in Massachusetts. The *e* in *met* he used to give in *plague, naked, catch*, which are familiar to us, and in *snake*, which is not. "So far as I know," he says, "*any* and *many* are the only words in which *a* is allowed to be pronounced as short *e*." We have everywhere heard *ĕ* for *a* in *exemplary, corollary*, and the like. He describes the vowel sound of *they* as a slide beginning with *e* in *let* and ending in *i* in *pin;* he gives the same sound in *fate, fail, great, they*. We make this slide in *they* uttered alone ; but make no *i*-vanish in *fate, fail, great*, or in *they* prefixed—*they came, they ran*. He describes the vowels of *what, war, hole, fall, foot*, as a series produced by increasing rounding of the lips. We do not round the lips for the vowels of *lot, naught*, but make a change in the back of the mouth. He says his *what* might with equal propriety be regarded as the short sound of *war* or *far*. Our *lot* is a good short of *war*, but not of our *far*. He gives the *a* of *all* in *God* and *dog*, a familiar pronunciation, exceptional certainly in Virginia and Pennsylvania.

No true short *o* is recognized by orthoepists as English. Professor Whitney makes one in a few common words—*none, whole, home, stone, smoke, folks, coat, cloak, toad, throat*, and he hears it from others in *bone* and *boat;* we will add *only, both, spoken, hope*. In Pennsylvania and Virginia short *o* is used, but is so like long *o* in quality that it is not noticed. The New England sound has a shade of the neutral *ŭ*, which is also common in Pennsylvania. Long *o* in *low* he makes with a vanish to *u*, and he gives the same vanish also in *four, door, note, moat*. We give a different

* 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies. Second Series. The East and West ; Religion and Mythology ; Orthography and Phonology ; Hindu Astronomy. By William Dwight Whitney, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in Yale College.' New York : Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.

vanish in *four, door*, and none at all in *note, moat*. Long *u* is heard in *fool, rule*, and Prof. Whitney says he makes exactly that same sound in *tube, dupe, nude, sue*, and the like, and also in *use, cube, pure, fume, mute*, and the like ; but in the last class of words he prefixes *y* to the *oo*, as distinctly pronounced as if it were written : *music* is *myoosic*. In Virginia *u* in *tube* is pronounced as in *music*, and the sound is not *yoo*, or even *ioo*, but a single vowel intermediate. It is a well-known shibboleth in the *tube* class of words, and a stranger betrays himself by giving either *i*-sound or *oo*-sound, just as a beginner in French does in trying for French *u*. We do not make, nor do we hear in Pennsylvania, *y* or *oo* in *music*, but a steady or slightly gliding intermediate. *Squirrel* with *i* as in *irritate* is the traditional polite pronunciation of many Virginian families. Prof. Whitney is fully persuaded that for long *i* in *mine* he begins with *a* in *far* and glides to *i* of *pique*. In close syllables like *type, tight, desire*, we begin somewhere in the middle of that glide and glide very little. He is for putting down the "reasonless and senseless infection" which spreads the pronunciation of *either* and *neither* with long *i*. We have never lived in an infected region.

He speaks of the locality of the palatal *ow*, *ău*, in *now, cow*, "which the English are wont to regard as American, the Americans as Yankee, the New Englander as Pennsylvanian or Southern, and so on." We believe that it most prevails as a polite pronunciation in Southern Maryland, saving always in the word *cow*, which is nearer *coo* and a shibboleth. We have been assured by a native expert that at least three *ou*-sounds must be carefully distinguished in familiar words to speak unimpeachable Virginian. Professor Whitney says that *a* alone of final vowels passes distinctly into the *u* of *but*, as in *Asia*. Youth of unquestionable polite tradition in Virginia, and more rarely in Pennsylvania, run to the same pronunciation of final *o*, not only in English but in Latin and Greek words. Perhaps the current squeamish change of *i* to *ŭ* in *Cincinnati* and other Western geographical names is worth mention. The secondary accent has much less power to preserve the vowels in Virginia than in Massachusetts or Pennsylvania ; *circumstance* has there a neutral final syllable.

Prof. Whitney's *r* is untrilled and silent when final. We utter final *r* when the next word begins with a vowel. It is less distinct in Virginia than in Massachusetts or Pennsylvania. We close to a distinct buzz in making *y* as in *you, ye ;* not so in making *w*. Prof. Whitney makes both without buzz, Mr. Ellis buzzes for *w*. We call *b, d, g* sonant mutes with Prof. Whitney, but much that he says of their sonancy does not seem true of our utterance. A murmur is often made before opening the lips for *ba*, and after closing them for *ab ;* and he thinks this prior or subsequent tone is the "sole characteristic distinction" between *b, d, g* and *p, t, k ;* but we do not make any such tone half the time before *b, d, g*, certainly almost never before *g*, and we have learned to make it quite well before *p, t, k*. In whispering, also, we never imitate this murmur as we do the vowels ; we do not make the slightest whisper rustle before *g ;* and finally, in talking with inhaled breath, a choice experiment, we have not succeeded as yet in making a murmur before an initial mute, but we make a very fair *g* or *b* or *d*. The position of the organs at the moment of movement seems to be the essential condition. Prof. Whitney objects to calling these letters *soft* or *weak*, and has a page of hard sayings about the wonderful ignorance and heedlessness connected with it. *Sonant* seems to us more scientific, but we all call the vowels *soft* poetically, popularly, and not quite senselessly ; and it does not seem to us to be wonderful that these vowel-like consonants should be called soft, or that the process by which vowels assimilate consonants to themselves, the common change of surds to sonants, should be called softening or weakening.

Prof. Whitney makes what we call *tongue-tied s, z, sh, zh*, resting the tip of the tongue against the inner face of the lower front teeth. He knows that it is more common to raise the tip of the tongue to the roof of the mouth. We find by enquiry four or five in the hundred who make his letters. Perhaps some peculiarity of his organs misleads him to regard the place touched on the roof of the mouth as the essential difference between *s* and *sh*. It is not so with us. Our *s* is a buzzing tip of the tongue, *sh* a buzzing channel of front and tip ; and we can make *s* far back, as we can *t* or *r*. *Nature, natyoor*, with a true *t* and a buzzing *y*, quite unlike the prevailing *nachur*, is native speech in many Scotch-Irish families in Pennsylvania. Prof. Whitney describes *h* as the representative of a different letter in each different combination : in *ha, h* is a surd *a—h* is to *a* as *k* is to *g ;* in *hi, h* is a surd *i ;* in *wh* in *what, h* is a surd *w*, and so on. We do not expel the breath in such a way as to call out the peculiar tones of the *a*-chamber in making *h* of *ha*, any more than in making *p* of *pa*. In making *a* we sound a distinct, though brief, click and buzz before the tone of *a ;* and this buzz, for which we have no sign in English, but which may be indicated by the smooth breathing in Greek, seems to us to be the proper sonant to pair with our *h*. As for *wh* (*i. e., hw*) in *what*, the description of it in Prof. Whitney's fashion, as a surd *w* followed by a sonant *w*, would be incorrect if we were to use it. We distinguish *w* from *u* by its having a consonantal movement of the lips ; but in *what* there are no two consonantal lip movements, and so no two *w*'s.

The article on the relations of vowel and consonant begins with *a*, which has most tone of all the letters, and arranges the alphabet in series of letters having less and less tone, and in three lines, according as the modification of the tone is made with lips, tongue, or palate. As far as tone predominates, the letters are called vowels, the rest consonants ; some are on the dividing line. This gives a very good view of the common English letters, though not, of course, in their natural historical relation. We have at first only three vowels—*a, i, u*. If we put these as the corners of a triangle, and then represent the new letters as springing from them, we find that the lines of descent run first toward one letter and then another, and the whole gets to be an interlacing thicket. But it is hardly the thing to criticise good work for not being what it does not pretend to be. It is a real objection to the scheme that some of the sounds are the results of complex adjustments, and do not seem to fall on any one of these lines of closure ; *a* in *all*, for example, and *o* in *not*, are put on the line of labial closure, but are really dependent on a rounding of the back part of the mouth more than anything else. Prof. Whitney holds that syllables are the work of the hearer, who groups the closer sounds around the more open. But take the word *Eetion ;* we certainly make the two first syllables, *Ee*, by making two separate jets, or pulses, of breath ; we make the two last, *tion*, by two more pulses, and it seems to be the same process when we pronounce any word in distinct syllables. Pulses of breath seem to be dividers of syllables. What Prof. Whitney says of his examples does not always describe our utterance. We give two impulses for *apple*, and close *p* audibly on the first pulse of voice, and open it audibly on the second. He says we cannot make a syllable with *s ;* but we often hear, and utter, such syllables, in plurals and possessives, for example, where in careful pronunciation there are repeated syllables in *s* with an unaccented vowel, as in *princesses*. In careless pronunciation, or whisper, the *e* is dropt, and we have distinct pulses of breath, and so distinct syllables of nothing but *s*.

There is plenty more in the book to stimulate and guide the lovers of this kind of research. We trust it may give a new impul e to the most thorough study of the science of language.

## MACREADY'S REMINISCENCES. *

ENGLISH literature contains more than one entertaining volume relating to the player's art ; but these memoirs of Mr. Macready are more interesting than the 'Apology' of Colley Cibber, or even than the charming autobiography of Holcroft. There is nowhere so copious and confidential a record of an actor's personal and professional experience. Mr. Macready died two years ago, at the age of eighty, and his last appearance in America had been in 1849, so that to the younger generations of the present time he is little more than an impressive name. But this thick volume will have the effect both of reviving the regret of all late-comers for lost opportunity, and of making the man, as he stands portrayed, interesting to those who have never seen the actor. In one way and another, though with very little method and often rather awkward art, what we have here is the elaborate portrait of a character. There is a good deal of evidence that Macready was a cold actor—according, at least, to the latest taste of the time ; that he was stately, impressive, and accomplished, but mechanical, artificial, and stilted. The work is full of comments upon the plays and parts in which he performed, and from year to year there is constant mention of his playing "The Stranger"; but we do not remember a single note of disapproval of the false taste and false style of this now intolerable melodrama. If he were to reappear in life and play before us as he played in 1835, it is very possible that we might find him wanting in warmth, in nature, and in what is popularly termed magnetism. But there is no doubt that his acting would, in its way, seem very strong and individual ; and of this strong, individual temperament these pages offer a vivid reflection. The character they reveal seems, at times, not especially sympathetic, and even scantily amiable ; but, as one continues to read, one's kindness for it increases ; and one lays down the book with the sense of having made the acquaintance of a man who on the whole was very much a man, and who had an ample share of honorable and elevated qualities.

Mr. Macready began in 1855 to write an account of his life for the use of

* 'Macready's Reminiscences, and Selections from his Diaries and Letters. Edited by Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart.' New York : Macmillan & Co. 1875.

his children. But he carried his narrative, which is copious and minute, no further than the year 1826—the time of the first of his three visits to America. In 1827, however, he began to keep a diary, and continued the practice for the rest of his long life. The early entries are brief and scanty, but they expand as the years elapse, and at last are very agreeable reading. Like most men of his profession, Mr. Macready was rather fond of a large phraseology, and it is perhaps an advantage to the reader that he is not always really pretending to write. His jottings are often as explicit and leisurely as many people's finished periods. Sir Frederick Pollock is a very unobtrusive editor, but he has done all that was necessary. He has given us the long fragment of autobiography and, as a sequel, the whole mass of the author's diaries up to the time of his retirement from the stage—a period of twenty-four years. To these he has added a few letters, written from the country during Mr. Macready's last years, and throughout he has supplied the needful notes as to names, dates, and persons. The work, therefore, is modestly but sufficiently edited. The first thing in it that strikes us is that—strange as it may appear—Macready greatly disliked his profession. It offers the singular spectacle of a man acting, almost nightly, for forty years, and yet never loving and often hating what he was doing. Macready went upon the stage almost as a matter of course, his father being a country manager, and his patrimony nil. He remained upon it because he had a wife and many children to support; but his disgust with his career, prosperous and brilliant though it had been from the first, was at times so oppressive that at one moment he was on the point of quitting the stage, emigrating to America, and taking up his residence at Cambridge, Mass., to escape social expenditure and establish his children. We take it that, if we may make the distinction, his intellect was in his profession, and his heart out of it. He was as little as possible of a Bohemian—he was what is commonly called very much of a gentleman. There is a happy line about him in Tennyson's sonnet, read at the very brilliant dinner given him in London on his retirement from the stage:

"Farewell, Macready; moral, grave, sublime!"

How sublime he was we who did not see his Lear, his Macbeth, or his Virginius have no means of knowing, but he was evidently very moral and grave. He was devoutly religious, as his journal abundantly proves, and he was very fond, as we observe in the same record, of stoical Latin epigraphs and invocations. Compared with most members of the theatrical profession, he was an accomplished scholar; he was zealous, conscientious, rigidly dutiful, decorous, conservative in his personal tastes and habits. He was never popular, we believe, with the members of his own profession, who thought him arrogant and unsociable, and for whom he fixed the standard, in every way, uncomfortably high. It was perhaps an irritating sense of all this that prompted an anonymous ruffian, while Mr. Macready was acting at Cincinnati in 1849, to protest by hurling upon the stage, from the gallery, the half of the raw carcass of a sheep; and it was certainly the same instinctive hostility of barbarism to culture that led Edwin Forrest to denounce his rival in a vulgar letter to the London *Times* as a "superannuated driveller," and to suffer his followers to organize the disgraceful scenes of the Astor-Place Riot. Of these scenes Macready's journal contains a very interesting account; a street-row in which seventeen persons were killed deserves a place in history. Macready was an unsparing critic of his own performance, and he is perpetually berating himself for falling below his ideal. His artistic conscience was evidently very serious and delicate. "My acting to-night was coarse and crude, no identification of myself with the scene, and, what increased my chagrin on the subject, some person in the pit gave frequent vent to indulgent and misplaced admiration. The consciousness of unmerited applause makes it quite painful and even humiliating to me." "I went," he elsewhere says, "to the theatre thinking first of my dress, and secondly of King John. I am ashamed, grieved, and distressed to acknowledge the truth. I acted disgracefully, worse than I have done for years; I shall shrink from looking into a newspaper to-morrow, for I deserve all that can be said in censure of me." "Acted with tolerable spirit," he writes in 1832, "to the worst benefit house I ever played before in London; but thank God for all he gives." When he has played well he commends himself as liberally, and he feels that the praise is deserved. "Acted Macbeth most nobly—never better." "Acted Iago with a vigor and discrimination that I have never surpassed, if ever equalled." "Acted Brutus as I never—no, never—acted it before, in regard to dignified familiarity of dialogue or enthusiastic inspiration of lofty purpose. The tenderness, the reluctance to deeds of violence, the instinctive abhorrence of tyranny, the open simplicity of heart and natural grandeur of soul, I never so perfectly, so consciously, portrayed before." Just after this (in 1851) he makes a note of his last performance of Hamlet. "Acted Hamlet; certainly in a manner equal to any former performance of the part I have ever given, if not on the whole exceeding in power, consistency, grace, and general truth all I have ever achieved. . . . The character has been a sort of love with me. . . . Beautiful Hamlet, farewell, farewell!" We are struck in all this with the extreme variability of his performance to the actor's own sense—at least, when that sense is anything like as acute as Mr. Macready's. We go to the play one night and another, and on each occasion the Hamlet or the Richard seems to be putting forth all his energies. But from the standpoint of the "wings," apparently, this is quite otherwise, and the aspect of a particular part may shift, according to mood and circumstance, along every degree between the atrocious and sublime.

Both Mr. Macready's reminiscences and his diaries are filled with quotable matter of which, to our regret, we lack space to avail ourselves. He came into contact with most of the eminent men and women of his time, and lived on intimate terms with many of them. No actor since Garrick had so completely won a place in what is called society; and Macready had won it by his own strength and skill. There are innumerable memoranda of dinners at his own house during the last twenty years of his professional life, which, judging by the company assembled, must have been as agreeable as any then taking place. He had relations with all the eminent actors of the century, from Mrs. Siddons and Master Betty down to Mlle. Rachel and Miss Cushman. He played young Norval to Mrs. Siddons's Lady Randolph, and was called into the great actress's room after the play to receive some stately but most benignant and intelligent advice. His account of the scene suggests some trembling young aspirant admitted to a supernatural interview with the sacred Muse in person. He has a number of sketches of Edmund Kean, who, according to his account, played at times very badly; and also of the Kembles, whom he evidently disliked, and concerning whom we should say his testimony must be taken with allowance. Speaking afterwards (very intelligently) of Mlle. Rachel, he says that in many points she was inferior to Miss O'Neill—a statement that renews one's regrets at having been born too late to see this actress, concerning whose mastery of the pathetic contemporary evidence is so singularly unanimous. But there are some remarks in one of his letters late in life about Ristori which are strangely unappreciative, and which confirm one's impression that his own acting and the acting he admired had little of the natural, realistic quality that we admire so much nowadays. We get a sense, however, that, natural or not, the English stage in Macready's younger years was in some ways a more respectable institution than it is now. The number of provincial theatres was greater; small country-towns had frequent visitations of players; and the most accomplished actors did not think it beneath their dignity to play short or secondary parts. Macready, in the fulness of his younger reputation, played Friar Lawrence, Prospero, and Joseph Surface. Many of the older tragedies, which have quite passed out of the repertory, were then frequently performed. It may be that they would now be, in parts, too dull for the audience, but they would also be too difficult for the actors. Who is there now to serve in "King John" and in "Lear" with the Fool? The players of seventy years ago were stilted and declamatory; but we gather from the allusions of the time that the average actor, knowing his business, could acquit himself more honorably of a passage of tragic blank-verse, with its various inflections and cadences, than those of our own time. The absence of scenery and other aids to illusion laid greater responsibilities upon the actor; he had to act more, as it were. "She was a mighty pompous woman," we heard lately of a long-lived old gentleman, with a vivid memory, saying of Mrs. Siddons; and this, which in a certain sense implies blame, also implies praise—implies that she had authority, weight, and style—attributes in which Miss Clara Morris, for instance, is deficient. Macready, we imagine, was a trifle pompous; but if his acting was somewhat heavy, there was also weight in his character. He undertook the management of Covent Garden Theatre in 1837 with the explicit design of elevating and purifying the drama, and several of the most successful plays of our time—"Richelieu," "The Lady of Lyons," "Money"—were produced under his auspices.

But for information on this and other points connected with theatrical history we must refer the reader to the volume before us. Our own interest in it, we confess, has had less regard to its theatrical than to what we may call its psychological side. Macready, as a whole, strikes us as essentially histrionic. When he reads in a newspaper of the death of an American gentleman with whom he was apparently but slightly acquainted, he notes in his diary that he was "struck down with anguish." He was playing, in a manner, before himself. But there is something very fine in his combination of the dramatic temperament with a rigid conscience and a strenuous will.

## RECENT NOVELS.*

MR. ANDREW JOHNSON will probably not be the only person who will experience the peculiar sensation, on looking through the pages of 'Alice Brand,' of seeing himself paraded in semi-fictitious guise as a party to the "romance of the capital" there rehearsed, for the book has a slight historical bias, and the author is thus led to introduce persons who really exist, or have existed, under merely a slight veil of fiction. But the ex-President is the only one of those acting an important part who is brought before us without mask. To detect the identity of others the reader must refer to his memories of Washington society (if he have any), or else accept with a good grace the knowledge that he is looking at an historical picture, the figures in which have no distinguishable numerals over their heads, and to which there is no outline "key" provided. Of course, a story in which the actual inhabitants of a city and the airy creations of the author thus jostle each other, invites debate as to how far the novelist has a right to call for aid upon an element so liable to prove merely factitious as the presence of real people on the scene. There is something singularly pleasant in such blendings of the real and the imaginary when they are well managed; their appeal to the snobbishness of the average man is alluring; but it is also to be remarked how often and how easily the note jars instead of harmonizing. Thackeray succeeded with it in 'Esmond'; he almost failed with it in 'The Virginians.' Anthony Trollope has acquired considerable skill in shadowing real "swells" on his canvas, almost taking the reader's breath away by his ingenious management of royalty in a recent book; though, by altering names, he tones down the excitement to something like that which may be supposed to proceed from shooting, hanging, or burning prominent men in effigy.

But, however good the art, it must be confessed that it cannot reach any very high plane. Mr. Riddle is not wholly wanton in his use of this means. The notoriety which newspapers now give even to the interior intricacies of public men's lives must perhaps modify the practice of a novelist who enlists such men among his *dramatis personæ*, and, in this view, the ex-President may possibly be the property of Mr. Riddle or of any one else who chooses to seize upon him. For the rest, the author of 'Alice Brand' is very much in earnest about reproducing the life of a given place and period as it passed under his own eyes, and has, no doubt, done well to give us portraits instead of purely typical figures. We doubt his ability to convey a great deal by the latter means, for his hero and heroine are not very clearly defined, and we suspect that his persons are lifelike just in proportion as he sketched them from individuals before his mind at the time. The perspective and finish of the book, accordingly, are unsatisfactory; background and foreground are interchangeable at will; and the love-story of Colonel Mason and Ellen Berwick far outstrips in interest that of Frank and Alice. Mason's Congressional experiences give rise to some rather interesting passages, which, with the scenic and somewhat questionable glimpses of lobbying and pardon-broking operations, suggest regions of research from which a master might draw something worthy the pains. Mr. Riddle's use of such material is hap-hazard, however; he should study Bulwer's elaborate, almost valetudinarian, care in economizing similar matter. In his management of the legal manœuvres, too, on which the plot turns, he is much too technical. The style is often absurdly inflated, as when the notes of bluebirds are said to drop "like spangles from the buskins of God, still hovering, almost seen, over his new creation"; at other points it becomes vulgar and reckless, as when the author speaks of men "on the make" and a convention that "said its say, did its do," etc. The clumsiness of the *résumé*, in the last pages, of all that has happened since the date of the story to a number of public men who have nothing whatever to do with it, is almost incredible. But, with all its faults and its weakness, 'Alice Brand' has vigor in it; the study of the mischievous, honest, impetuous American youth, Grayson Vane, is not bad; and among American novels which make a point of being watermarked with their nationality, it will stand above the average.

We don't know what the anonymous author of 'The Rainbow Creed' set out to do when he wrote the book that bears this name; but it seems safe to assume that, whatever it was, he did not succeed in doing it. In any case, it is quite certain that he has not written a novel; for though it is called a "story of the times," it is not a work of the imagination at all, and the pseudo-fictitious air assumed by it is of the kind long since grown familiar as a means of advertising personal opinions. In this case, the opinions are advanced under cover of a supposititious divinity student, one Malcolm Lawson, who saves the life of a wealthy orthodox merchant, and is promised the hand of the latter's daughter provided he will stick to the creed of the college where he is studying. The young man, however, discovered "that he was only a Christian, and that if he intended to devote himself to the improvement of his race it might be necessary to become a Liberal." The rest of the book, consequently, is consumed in the statement of the intellectual contortions which he passed through. He became much too clever at talking about the Universal and the Particular, the Highest Reason and the Holy Spirit, his own Egotism, which must have "justice" done to it, and many other matters (chiefly elevated to the plane of a mystic philosophy by the use of capital letters)—so that there is small doubt in our own mind that he could have even written a book equal to 'The Rainbow Creed'—and was ultimately expelled from the college. Now came the tussle with his prospective father-in-law, who, in spite of his horror at Malcolm's heresy, admired the young man's boldness and sincerity, which he had the sagacity to descry underneath all his ravings of mystical, radical, religious slang. They couldn't agree, however, and Malcolm was about to leave the house and abandon his *fiancée* for the time being, when she opportunely burst a blood-vessel, and the disaster brought them all to their senses—Malcolm at once entering "the church," under the auspices of several ministers of a liberal turn of mind whose existence had not been up to that moment even hinted at by the author. We confess that he shows great presence of mind in remembering the blood-vessel and the liberal clergymen just at this juncture; but if he had had the good fortune to think of them a little earlier—in the opening pages, for example—a great deal of useless trouble would have been saved both to the author and those who may chance to become his readers. It will be readily seen from the following passage that the author understands how to mingle the profundities of consciousness with superficial description so that neither shall be too clear:

> "The moonlight yields to the gas-glare of the Christian sociable, and the bones gleam in the gorgeous apparel of the ball; for Dr. Lullaby is the ghostly pastor of the ghosts. Hark! the necropolitan festivity begins with a prayer, and a thousand spectral fans pat responsive to its exquisite rhythm. . . . Yet I marvel still more as the votaries of Fashion interblend, and lose each his personality in confused circles of satin and silk, of velvet and coral, of diamond and flounce, the green interblending with the gold, the drab with the purple, and the pink with the pale—a perfect chaos of broken rainbows in softest collision: children of Death playing with peacocks' feathers on their father's hell-lit tombs; a Catherine-wheel revolving furiously on the cross of Christ or on the edge of the gallows."

We recognize a kind of energy here and elsewhere in the book, and enough of it, perhaps, to counterbalance a good deal of symbolic drivelling and convince the author's own partisans of the soundness of his views—if it could be ascertained that he had any. But the only theory we can discover in it is that "the mind must be occupied; and although our writing and our speech may not amount to more than a rope of sand, the honest employment of its energies to the repression of its ever-surging recklessness . . . is our salvation." The writer has occupied *his* mind with a vengeance, and we conclude that his "salvation" is from the insanity likely to ensue upon the retention in the mind of such trash as is here shot into the market. It might be entertaining to carry out a suggestion afforded by this statement of the case, and consider systematically the probable preventive influence upon mental disorder exercised by the increase of enthusiastic or benevolent publishers and modern improvements in the printing-press.

We turn with relief from this anonymous exhalation to a story so innocuous and even attractive in its way as Miss Fraser-Tytler's 'Mistress Judith.' The English reviewers, who always seem to carry about with them some reference to standard specimens, arranged in a slip-knot to close at random upon the first object that comes to hand, harnessed Thomas Hardy a short time ago to George Eliot, and they have now connected 'Mistress Judith' with 'Sylvia's Lovers,' by Mrs. Gaskell. Its kinship with Mr. Hardy's books is much more obvious. There is none of the stern, set earnestness of Mrs. Gaskell here, and form, method, and coloring all suggest the author of 'Under the Greenwood Tree' very directly, though Miss Fraser-Tytler is superior to her model in simplicity of diction. The book offers a curious instance, nevertheless, of the promptitude with which a genuine hand-made product will be imitated by means of ingenious machinery. Mr. Hardy's books, counting in certain weaknesses of construction and over-labored modes of expression, have a primitive artistic char-

* 'Alice Brand. A Romance of the Capital. By A. G. Riddle, author of 'Bart Ridgely,' 'The Portrait,' etc.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875.
'The Rainbow Creed. A Story of the Times.' Boston: Wm. F. Gill & Co. 1875.
'Mistress Judith. A Cambridgeshire Story. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler, author of 'Jasmine Leigh,' etc.' New York: Henry Holt & Co 1875.
'Kaferfelto. A Story of Exmoor. By G. J. Whyte-Melville. With Illustrations by Col. H. Hope Crealocke, C.B.' London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1875.
'For the King's Dues. By Agnes Macdonell, author of 'Martin's Vineyard.'' New York: Macmillan & Co.

acter that makes them unique. Miss Tytler, with a keenness quite commercial, at once supplies the market with a ware having somewhat the same effect and produced at much less cost. We have sometimes thought that in the history of English fiction the "period of the moulds" has come at last, and this would seem to be a case in point. 'Mistress Judith' is a pretty porcelain vase decorated with "landscape and figures." Beyond its cheapening effect, there is no harm whatever about it, and much that is good. It is a bright and healthy little book, calling for a momentary use of cambric, possibly, in its sad catastrophe, but the reading of which is no more vexatious than the inhaling of an April day. This, as novels go, is saying a good deal. If we remember aright, Miss Tytler began her literary career some five or six years since with a little volume called 'Sweet Violet, and Other Stories,' and as we now recall the gloved and perfumed daintiness of those stories, we judge her to have made good use of the intervening period. Judith, Master Hurst and his wife, and the Parson are neatly characterized with something of the acuteness of silhouettes, but more color; and though the two young men of the tale are little better than wig-blocks, we are content to take the whole as it stands on the strength of its amateurish good faith.

Mr. Whyte-Melville, we see, retains a zest for the game he has practised for so many years. The cards, to be sure, are a trifle worn by the thumb, but there is always a fresh interest in seeing what will turn up next; and it is really delightful to observe the dealer's interest in the process. We who have seen it done before, however, are not greatly startled when we discover a fine horse, called "Katerfelto," after a certain charlatan who owned him, in the hands of the hero John Garnet, and that this horse is going to be a chief trump-card. Nor would it be possible for us after this not to feel grossly defrauded if the author had denied us a highway robbery; for the time of the story is the early part of George the Third's reign, and improbability could not be pleaded. But we are treated to the robbery, to gipsy love and revenge, and a thrilling episodical stag-hunt, and out of it all comes pardon at last, return of the outlawed hero, and happy marriage. The story is illustrated with drawings by one Colonel Crealocke, which remind us that there was once a young artist called Clive Newcome. Both text and pictures somehow have a not unpleasant atmosphere of the smoking-room in a club somewhere on St. James Street, say; and we believe they will be very acceptable to any one who has a wet day in the country and a few cigars at his disposal. For ourselves, in reading 'Katerfelto' we have experienced a certain conservative quiescence, assisted by Whyte-Melville's evident solid old-fashioned conviction that there can no more be two ways of writing a good novel than of brewing a good whiskey-punch.

The most observable point of merit in 'For the King's Dues' is its picturesqueness. Mr. Tilton says he remembers in pictures, and Mrs. Macdonell—if we may take the liberty of drawing even so remote an analogy between anybody and that celebrated plaintiff—appears to compose in pictures. The story opens with a scene which is really but a little thing, and yet it seizes the eye and memory like one of Fortuny's rough sketches. It describes Miss Amice Blunt, a young lady of the year 1782, sitting among the rocks on the coast of Sark, dressed in a pink paduasoy and (probably) smuggled lace, too absorbed in reading that new work, 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' to observe the waves closing in around her. The thread of the story is not remarkably strong, though well enough for its purpose, but it is strung throughout with such taking scenes as this. A novel about the island of Sark at this date is novel indeed, and therefore fresh and diverting reading; but the *motif*—which is the interest of certain well-born people in the fortunes of certain peasants—is of well-known and perfectly respectable standing, just as is the visiting of the poor by charitable ladies. The Baroness Tautphœus alone nearly succeeded in exhausting the subject in her novel, 'Quits.' Although it does not strain the vision to see the end of the plot of the Sark story some time before it is reached, yet its unravelling is so rapid and vivacious that a sufficient sense of surprise is conveyed. The story is of course a romance, though founded on facts (concerning smuggling between France and England, with the Channel Islands as an entrepôt) which are historical; but, as a romance, it leaves a wholesome taste in the mouth, being unsensational, refined, and high-toned.

---

*An Essay on the Madonna in Christian Art.* By Henry Martin Ladd, of the Class of 1875, in the Theological Department of Yale College. (New Haven. 1875. 8vo, pp. 93.)—It appears from the notes preliminary to this essay that a body called the "Kingsley Trust Association" founded a year or two since an annual prize at Yale College of $250, to be awarded for an English essay, written by a member of any department of the College who may be pursuing a regular course for a degree. The prize is named, awkwardly enough, "The John A. Porter University Prize." The subject is to be chosen by the trustees of the Kingsley Trust Association, and the prize is to be awarded by three judges, two appointed by the president of the College and one by the trustees of the Association. Two subjects (at least) were given out last year—one, that of the essay before us, the other, "The Causes of Cromwell's Failure." How many competitors there were for the prize does not appear. Two of the judges agreed in awarding the prize to Mr. Ladd, and the Kingsley Trust Association have authorized the publication of his essay "in the hope that the interests of literature in the University will thereby be promoted." These circumstances give a certain importance to the performance. We have here not only a work which has been esteemed by representatives of Yale College as deserving a large pecuniary reward, but the publication of which they hope may promote the interests of literature.

In the first place, we must remark that the selection of subjects, judging by the two already mentioned, seems eminently unsuitable. To propose to young men to write on "The *Failure* of Cromwell" is to assume what most students of history would deny. To propose to an American student to write on "The Madonna of Christian Art" is to offer him a subject on which, for him, original investigation or thought is impossible, and which he must, from the nature of the case, treat at second or third hand. In writing upon it he is likely to be tempted into two of the worst faults of imperfect culture, viz., unsupported and loose assertion and vague sentiment. We could excuse these faults, which are palpable enough in the essay before us, on the ground of the poor selection of the subject, but it exhibits other and still graver defects for which no such excuse can be admitted.

The author puts in front of his essay a list of the authorities "consulted, and in some cases freely quoted," and it appears that in writing on a subject which required, for anything like a proper treatment of it, recourse to German and French authorities, the only works by foreign authors he has made use of are the translations of such familiar books as Kugler's and Lübke's histories, and Taine's 'Art in the Netherlands.' For all that his essay shows, even these might have been omitted without harm. All his other authorities are of the commonest and most accessible sort—Ruskin, Mrs. Jameson, Hamerton, Hazlitt, Jarves, and, of all men, Charles Lamb! Such a list should have indicated to the judges that the essay was not likely to deserve a prize. And this prepossession ought to have been confirmed by its contents. It opens with confused thought concerning the relations of art and religion, and then goes on to discourse of the phases of Christian art in a way that shows the writer's want of knowledge of general history, as well as of that of his special topic. Already on page 2 occurs a statement which we should conceive must have given pause even to the most lenient of judges. The writer, speaking of the Madonna, says: "She was a Christian goddess, embodying the beauty, maternity, and chastity of the Pagan Venus, Horus, and Diana." Our astonishment over this incredible assertion is redoubled when, on p. 83 of this essay, we come again on the same statement, "In her were combined the several Pagan conceptions of Venus, Horus, and Diana"! The simplicity of such a show of ignorance under the pretence of learning would awaken a feeble compassion, were it not that Mrs. Jameson, with whose 'Legends of the Madonna' the author has a suspicious familiarity, might have saved him from this discreditable and mortifying blunder. She says ('Legends of the Madonna,' Introduction, p. xxii.): "It is worth remarking that Cyril, who was so influential in fixing the orthodox group, had passed the greater part of his life in Egypt, and must have been familiar with the Egyptian type of Isis nursing Horus." But Mr. Ladd's obligations to Mrs. Jameson were so numerous that he may have hesitated to burden himself with another. He informs his readers at the outset, as we have seen, that he has "in some instances freely quoted" his authorities. An unsuspicious reader would take it for granted that in such instances quotation marks would be used, but this is not Mr. Ladd's practice. For instance, he devotes several pages (pp. 53–56) to what he calls "the progressive treatment of the Madonna as a subject of Christian art." These pages are a mere abridgment of pp. xxi. to xxxi. of Mrs. Jameson's Introduction, her language being often partially retained, but given in such a way as to remind one of Coleridge's definition of a certain class of readers who absorb what they read as a sponge does water, and give it out again, as a sponge does, much as they took it in, only a little dirtied. There is no specific acknowledgment in these pages of direct borrowing; no reference whatever to Mrs. Jameson; no use of quotation marks when her words are cited. In a similar way, pp. 82 and 83 and 84 are wholesale conveyances

from the same worthy writer. A single instance will show the sort of work our sciolist has made of her good English :

Mrs. Jameson wrote :
"It is curious to observe, as the worship of the Virgin-mother expanded and gathered to itself the relics of many an ancient faith," etc., Introduction, p. xx.

Mr. Ladd writes :
"Little by little, as the worship of the Virgin expanded and grew, it gathered to itself the flower and the fruit of many an ancient faith," p. 83.

The opinions advanced in the essay are worthy of the scholarship shown in it. The subject is not grasped, and is treated without intelligence. Mistakes of fact are not infrequent. Altogether, it is a pity that this worthless production should have appeared under university auspices.

---

*Materials and Models for Latin Prose Composition.* By J. Y. Sargent, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Magdalen College, Oxford, and T. F. Dallin, M.A., Tutor, late Fellow, of Queen's College, Oxford. Second edition. (London, Oxford, and Cambridge : Rivingtons. 1875. Pp. xliii. and 362.)—*Parallel Extracts,* arranged for Translation into English and Latin, with Notes on Idioms. By J. E. Nixon, M.A., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, Classical Lecturer, King's College, London. Part I. Historical and Epistolary. (London and New York : Macmillan. 1874.)—The first-named book has passed to a second edition since 1870. The material is taken from standard modern authors, and arranged in five sections, as follows : Historical, Characters, Oratorical, Philosophical, and Epistolary. With a very proper wish to combine translation into Latin with reading Latin, the editors have appended to each English piece references to analogous or similar passages in classical authors of approved merit. The student is thus furnished with a model in his attempt to render them into Latin. The pieces set for translation are short, which is a good thing ; and diversified in kind and style, which is another good thing. The 'Materials and Models' are admirably adapted either for college instruction or advanced private study. We hope that a professional man may here and there be found who will take it up after his day's work and try his hand at a few sentences. Of the second and much smaller book, the 'Parallel Extracts,' a good word may also be said. The classification of extracts is much the same with that in the 'Materials and Models,' but in this part—Part I.—only historical and epistolary passages are given. On every left page there is a Latin extract, on the right page an analogous English extract. There are some very useful Notes on Idioms at the beginning, which are constantly referred to in the extracts. This book is well suited for a younger class of learners. Perhaps there is a little too much of Pliny in the epistolary part.

---

**** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* | |
|---|---|---|
| Rapid Transit and Terminal Freight Facilities, swd. | (D. Van Nostrand) | |
| Religion and Science | (James Campbell) | 1 50 |
| Ribot (T.), Heredity | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Rice (T. L.), What is Music? | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Robinson (W. S.), Manual of Parliamentary Law and Practice | (Lee & Shepard) | 0 75 |
| Roest (M.), Catalog der Hebraica und Judaica aus den L. Rosenthal'schen Bibliothek, 2 vols | (Amsterdam) | |
| Sainte-Beuve (C. A.), English Portraits | (Henry Holt & Co.) | |
| Schmucker (S. M.), History of the Four Georges | (James Miller) | 1 75 |
| Simpson (E.), The Dramatic Unities in the Present Day, 2d ed. | (Trübner & Co.) | |
| Spurgeon (Rev. C. H.), Types and Emblems | (Sheldon & Co.) | 1 25 |
| Storrs (Rev. R. S.), Preaching without Notes | (Dodd & Mead) | |
| Taylor (S.), The Science of Music | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| The Portfolio, No. 64, swd. | (J. W. Bouton) | 1 00 |
| Thinks-I-to-Myself: a Tale | (James Miller & Co.) | 1 25 |
| Warburton (Rev. W.), Edward III. | (Estes & Lauriat) | 1 00 |
| Workshop, No. 3, swd. | (E. Steiger) | 0 50 |

# Fine Arts.

## FIFTIETH EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

III.

THE painters in miniature scale have always enjoyed in our exhibitions the conspicuousness of small numbers and marked merit ; the subject in Louis XVI. costume, by Mr. Knight, to balance the subject in Louis XIII. costume, by Mr. Beaufain Irving, on the other side of the doorway, has been as much as our lovers of the art of Pécrus and Plassan could usually find to sharpen their eyesight upon. This year Mr. Irving is alone in his specialty, unless we may consider Mr. Guy as a supporter. Mr. Irving's subject of a dozen figures, representing "Cardinal Wolsey and Friends" (272), is one of the most attractive pictures in the east room ; it is, for that matter, the most considerable specimen of art made microscopic that we remember to have been produced in this country. The splendor in which the Cardinal is known to have lived is revived in the scene with every ingenuity of representation and suggestion ; the picture is a mass of bric-à-brac, while the light dying over the lofty walls of the banquet-room is graduated with as much care as Mr. Church is used to employ in his skies. The guests are placed in a great variety of expressive attitudes, while each is an art-Crichton, finished to the finger-nail ; it must be confessed, however, that they all have the fixed and prepared look which almost inevitably accompanies this sort of painting, and that their individual perfection is a little wearisome. The countenance of Wolsey, too, is expressionless, and one feels sure that the mundane prelate would have listened to the songs of his favorite jester with rather more unction in his face. It is so rare and encouraging, however, to see a figure-picture in which no part has been slighted, that we are fain to congratulate the author of this painstaking and thorough piece of work ; his great merit seems to be that he never loses breadth of effect while attending to detail, and this, his most ambitious picture, is composed in one sweeping unity of light and shadow, to which all considerations are subordinate. A group called "Vespers," by Mr. Maynard (260), attracts at first sight by its quaintness of character, but inspection proves that the drawing is feeble, and the quaintness an excuse for loose and fumbling study ; it must be classed with the "Antwerp Market-Scene" (146) of Mr. Meeks, as a good subject vulgarized by halting execution. Mr. Wilmarth's single contribution, showing a charitable fellow putting a litter of puppies to bed in a disused oven while the parent dog steals his dinner (329), exhibits the most careful study from nature, with an arm and hand quite real in their action and saliency ; he has not thought it worth while, however, to give character to the cranium of his figure, whose back only is seen; the picture is therefore to all intents and purposes headless, a fault not easily pardonable when there is but a solitary character on the scene. A similar jest is attempted by Mr. C. S. Reinhart in "Caught Napping" (24), where a schoolmaster while lapped in Elysium is robbed of his luncheon by the boys ; the character of the teacher, one of the hard autocratic kind, and of the kind, too, that, being bred to the plough, always do nod themselves into helplessness the moment they relax, is very perfectly seized. Of all the works in which the endeavor is comic, however, we think Mr. James's "Amateur" (371) the most successful ; there is real humor in this dry and determined soubrette, who strains her lean arms and inflates her tough, bladdery cheek as she blows into the trumpet she has picked up, while her eyes are almost flying out of her head with the whole-souled effort. The entire pose shows the ardor and luxury of stolen pleasure, the conscientious endeavor to get all the good possible out of a surreptitious liberty, enhanced by the feeling that the next moment may probably bring discovery and disgrace. This picture is most carefully touched : the costume cunningly betrays the effort of the lungs which modifies the whole abdomen ; the carpet and accessories are minutely painted, and the embossed leather-work on the wall (whose pattern was stamped with a button in the wet paint, if we mistake not, that there might be no error in its regularity) is realistic and picturesque.

The exhibition shows works of another kind of humor, however, which, while we have no quarrel with the painters who produce them, might, in our opinion, be excluded by the committee with a confident expectation of support from all who have the interests of art in consideration. The example of Landseer, who painted a great number of animal-pictures showing human emotion, was always felt to be a perilous one, and the objections made in the cause of art were presently abetted by the ennui which this class of pictures was found at length to produce. It is a string which a very little scraping will attenuate. There are American proficients in this sort of fun who are so certain of a generous share of praise from whole crowds of good fellows seldom seen at art-exhibitions, that we think they might rest satisfied with these successes, without emulating the laurels offered by academic displays. The art that is always grinning through a horse-collar is very frank and harmless, but it seems to require the freedom of the open air, of the country store, or of the city refreshment-room, for its untrammelled display. Whether that be so or not, the pictures of this kind at the exhibition are such, in our opinion, as might have been safely declined, without loss of dignity, by the committee on admissions. One of them is an entirely reprehensible allusion to troubles that are just now lacerating a great many hearts in the community ; the tantalizing dog that holds the bones under his paw, the dog that gazes with large eyes of unassuageable melancholy upon the ruins of his home and board, and the dog, with plenty of fight in him, that confronts the two, may all be very apposite and expressive in a way; but the wit is stable wit, and has no place whatever in an exhibition of fine arts. Another picture, very much elaborated, shows a parrot plucked of its feathers, and swearing in an orotund manner with

all the energy of its thick black tongue. The execution of this and other paintings by the artist is not of a kind to bring him within the precincts of an academy; his carefulness is not art at all, but smoothness; his animal-study is halting in the extreme; as works of painting his productions would never attract the least attention. It is only for their supposed Hogarthian quality that they are admitted, and this quality, divorced from the ability to paint, is a merit suitable for bar-rooms and not for picture-exhibitions. There is even a lower class of pictorial jests admitted, and very readily sold, whose presence can only surprise the judicious eye; the examples are water-color sketches, in which large-eyed and cadaverous birds, or skeletons, or acrobatic rabbits, are the figures. They are not pictures in any technical sense; they are not in the least funny; and although they are now always stopped in that limbo of formless art called the corridor, we think a more exacting standard will soon stop them a few feet farther out.


JUST PUBLISHED.

## *Taine's Notes on Paris.*

Notes on Paris. The Life and Opinions of M. Frederic Thomas Graindorge, Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Jena, special partner in the house of Graindorge & Co. (oils and salt pork), Cincinnati, Ohio. Collected and published by H. A. Taine, executor. Translated by John Austin Stevens. Large 12mo (uniform with the recent editions of Taine's 'Italy,' 'England,' etc.), $2 50.

"One of M. Taine's brightest works. . . . The suppositious observations of one M. Thomas Graindorge, . . . who, having amassed a fortune . . . in America, returns to his native France, and jots down with a free pen [and] delicious wit what he sees. This outside view of their city greatly amused the readers of *La Vie Parisienne*."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"Some of the brightest and wittiest sketches of Paris life that have ever been written."—*Boston Globe.*

## *Walford's Mr. Smith.*

Mr. Smith: A part of his Life. A Novel. By L. B. Walford. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

"It is agreeable, at starting, to light upon a book of so many claims to originality."—*London Academy.*

"The chronicling of small-beer has been done faithfully by some of our best writers who have had sufficient skill to interest all the world in the record. . . . The author of 'Mr. Smith' belongs to that small number, and has made a creditable début. 'Mr. Smith' is by no means an ordinary production. . . . There are satisfactory, even delightful, bits—passages which one reads over and over again, sayings one would be glad to remember, traits of shrewdness and humor which strike one with a pleasant sense of their aptness."—*London Spectator.*

RECENT STANDARD PUBLICATIONS.

Sainte-Beuve's English Portraits. $2.
Maine's Early History of Institutions. $3.
Jones's Africa. $5.
Sumner's American Currency. $3.
Moscheles's Recent Music and Musicians. $2.
Deutsch's Talmud and other Literary Remains. $4.
Conway's Sacred Anthology. $4.
Chesney's Military Biography. $2 50.
Gautier's A Winter in Russia. $2.
Adams's Democracy and Monarchy in France. $2 50.
Mill's Three Essays on Religion. $2 50.

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES OF THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

Price $1 25 each.

Alexander, Mrs.—Ralph Wilton's Weird.
Fraser-Tytler, C. C.—Mistress Judith.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't.
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall It Be?
Alcestis, A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About, E.—The Nose of a Notary.
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

SECOND EDITION.

## *HELPS TO PRAYER.*

A manual designed to aid Christian Believers in acquiring the Gifts and in maintaining the Practice of Prayer in the Closet, the Family, the Social Gatherings, and the Public Congregations. By Rev. D. P. Kidder, D.D. 12mo, $1 75; Red-line edition, toned paper, gilt edges, bevelled boards, $3 50.

COMMENTS OF THE PRESS.

"We believe no earnest person can read this volume without gaining great benefit."—*Christian Union.*

"It has been prepared with intelligence, judgment, and care."—*Christian at Work.*

"We commend it to the attention of all."—*St. Louis Christian Advocate.*

"Its spirit is excellent, its tone elevated."—*Morning Star.*

"It must do good among all intelligent, thoughtful, and devout Christians."—*Christian Intelligencer.*

NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

## *HARPER'S CATALOGUE.*

The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—*comprehending over three thousand volumes.*

Librarians who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of ten cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

BOSTON BOOKS.

## *Hamerton's Harry Blount.*

"The best boys' book since 'Tom Brown's School Days,'" says L. C. M. in the *Tribune.*

Price $1 50.

## *Our Sketching Club.*

Mr. Tyrwitt, the author of this book, is a pupil of Ruskin, and in the form of a narrative has given lessons in drawing, reproducing all of the cuts in Ruskin's 'Elements.'

Price $2 50.

## *Musical Composers and their Works.*

BY SARAH TYTLER.

"Lovers of music will heartily enjoy these bright and minute sketches of the great composers," says the *Literary World.*

Price $2.

## *A Paragraph History of the United States,*

From the Discovery of the Continent to the present time. With brief Notes on Contemporaneous Events.

BY EDWARD ABBOTT.

Square 18mo, flexible covers. Price 50 cents.

Of great value at this interesting period in our history.

Sold by all booksellers. Mailed, post-paid, by the publishers,

ROBERTS BROTHERS,
BOSTON.

## *The Bible Educator*

Is now complete in 2 vols., clo., $10; in 4 vols., price $3 each.

The work needs no recommendation other than the mere mention of a few of the contributors: The Dean of Canterbury (Payne Smith); The Dean of Chester (Dr. Howson); Rev. F. W. Farrar, B.D. (Marlborough); Rev. Dr. Vaughan (Temple Church); Rev. H. D. M. Spence, M.A.; Rev. W. Houghton, M.A., F.L.S. (Preston); Rev. Stanley Leathes, M.A., King's College; Rev. Geo. Rawlinson, M.A.; Major Wilson (Palestine Exploration); W. Caruthers (Botany Department British Museum); Jno. Stainor (Organist St. Paul's Cathedral). Edited by Rev. E. H. Plumptre, M.A.

For prospectuses and information apply to

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN,

596 Broadway, New York. | 83 West Fourth St., Cincinnati, Ohio. | 90 Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

## *Art-work in Silver*

### *The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

NEW BOOKS.

*PROBLEMS OF LIFE AND* Mind. By G. H. Lewes. Vol. II. 8vo, $3.

*WHIP AND SPUR.* By George E. Waring, Jr. Saunterer's Series. $1 25.

A very interesting series of narratives of Field Sport and Army Experiences.

*SEX IN INDUSTRY.* By Azel Ames, Jr., M.D. 1 vol. 16mo, $1 25.

A companion volume to Dr. Clarke's 'Sex in Education,' and no less important.

☞ For sale by all booksellers. Sent, prepaid, on receipt of the price.

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO., BOSTON.

Complete in Five Parts.

## *Smith's Historical Atlas.*

An Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical. Compiled under the superintendence of Dr. William Smith and Mr. George Grove.

This magnificent and valuable work is now completed in Five Parts. It contains forty-two large and beautiful Maps and complete Indexes.

"The whole work is a splendid specimen of what can be achieved by learned labor and technical skill."—*London Athenæum.*

Price $7 per Part.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., PUBLISHERS,
BOSTON

## *Fysshe and Fysshynge.*

From the 'Boke of St. Albans,' A.D. 1496.

BY DAME JULIANA BERNERS.

A copy of the English Edition of 1827 costs $82 to import. Price of the American Edition, 1875, heavy tinted paper, 12mo, cloth, $1 50.

The charming old work, reproduced in all its quaintness. Edited by a member of the New York bar.

Sent on receipt of price by

HENRY K. VAN SICLEN, Bibliopole,
No. 133 Nassau Street, New York.

*THE LAST IMPORTANT BOOK of anecdotes—the 'Reminiscences' of Macready, just issued by Macmillan—forms the subject of "The Reader's" remarks on page 304.*

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 6, 1875.*

## The Week.

IN selecting Mr. Edwards Pierrepont as Mr. Williams's successor, the President has made a fortunate choice, and taken a step in the reconstruction of the *personnel* of the Administration which was much needed. Mr. Pierrepont, if not in the first rank among lawyers, has a respectable standing, and brings to the office a great native shrewdness, long professional training, and skill in the management of causes. If he can manage to forget that there is such a thing as the stump, or that nominations for the Presidency will take place next year, he will, we have no doubt, do much to redeem the Department of Justice from the disgrace brought upon it by Mr. Williams. Under the latter's incumbency it may be said to have reached the lowest point of degradation to which the chief legal office of a free government could well fall. As Attorney-General, armed with powers never till within two or three years given to any American legal official, Mr. Williams wielded throughout half the country an almost autocratic authority, while apparently ignorant of the elementary principles of law, and having so low a reputation in his profession that he was actually forced by public opinion to withdraw his own nomination for the Supreme Bench from the consideration of the Senate. Obtaining his place as the reward of party service and using it for party ends, it would be difficult to imagine any worse illustration of the sort of contempt of decency and popular opinion that long-continued power breeds than is given by his case.

The cruel treatment of Pennsylvania by the President in the selection of Cabinet officers seems to be beginning to attract attention. During the six years of the present Administration, it is said by those who have kept a careful account of the actual changes, Pennsylvania has had no representative in the Cabinet except Mr. Borie, who was a short time in the Navy Department. New York has the Attorney-General and the Secretary of State, and yet New York is a Democratic State. Mr. Bristow is from Kentucky, and Kentucky is a Democratic State. Mr. Delano brings whatever strength he contributes to the party from Ohio, which is also Democratic. Mr. Jewell comes from Connecticut, which is also Democratic. The Secretary of War, Mr. Belknap, does indeed come from Iowa, which is a Republican State, but this is a small representation for the whole party. Pennsylvania, the great Republican State, without which the next Presidential election must certainly be lost, is treated with contumely and neglect; and it is suggested to the President that as soon as Mr. Delano goes out of office, he had better appoint as his successor a Pennsylvanian. We suppose, however, that the President has made up his mind that keeping States up to their work by giving them Cabinet offices is a mistaken policy. He tried it thoroughly with Massachusetts, made Judge Hoar his Attorney-General, gave the Treasury first to Boutwell and then to Richardson, keeping General Butler meanwhile as general counsellor and friend, in fact, recognizing and rewarding Massachusetts talents wherever they showed themselves. Nevertheless, it had not the slightest effect, and the State is now under a Democratic Governor. The opposite plan tried with Pennsylvania has worked like a charm, and if the President will take our advice he will not change it.

When Professor Marsh, of Yale College, was digging for fossils last fall in the deserts of Wyoming, surrounded by hostile Indians, and with the thermometer below zero, he furnished a good illustration of the enthusiasm and, possibly some might add, of the fanaticism of science. But if one of the secondary results of his expedition shall be to send a ray of light into the dark turmoil of "our Indian difficulties," that must be a very hard-headed materialist indeed who should begrudge a subscription to the next scientific expedition which goes in search of old bones. The exhumation of samples of the flour, sugar, coffee, and tobacco furnished the Indians doubtless gave a greater surprise to the Government agents than the fossils will ever give to the comparative anatomist. In one of the Professor's conferences with the Indians, Red Cloud, a noted chief of the Sioux, complained bitterly that the Great Father at Washington was not keeping his promises made to the tribe, but had sent out agents who cheated the Indians. Professor Marsh immediately offered to carry to the President any complaint which the Indians might make. Thereupon Red Cloud brought out from his tent the samples above-mentioned, and requested the Professor to take them to Washington and show them to the President. This the Professor promised to do, and recently, while attending the sessions of the National Academy of Sciences, obtained an interview with the President, and put before him the burnt coffee, the dark-colored flour, the inferior sugar, and the bad tobacco given him by Red Cloud. The effect of this simple action was most striking. The President was deeply impressed, and declared that justice should be done. Commissioner Smith was deeply impressed also, though in a different way, declaring, in substance, first, that the affair was a "put-up job," and that Red Cloud had "doctored" the articles given to Professor Marsh; second, that he already knew that the agent was not as good a man for the place as he could wish; third, that no agent could be honest on a salary of $1,500 per year.

The Board of Indian Commissioners, stirred by reports of the interview between the President and the Professor, held a meeting in this city last week, invited Professor Marsh to meet them at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, and requested him to address them on Indian affairs. He replied with their request, giving them an account of his trip, his interviews with the Indians, and the request of Red Cloud. Then, in answer to questions, he gave a talk upon Indian affairs in general; in which talk, it is safe to say, was compressed much information and good sense. Professor Marsh's statements derive additional force from the fact that he is not a professed philanthropist, reformer, or politician. He gives simply the result of observations which he could not help making at a time when he was attending to other and to him more important business. What the result of this agitation may be cannot be safely prophesied; but it is not possible to repress a wish that the entire control of Indian affairs might be put into the hands of Professor Marsh and a few other men of the like breadth of view, with full power not merely to decide all questions pertaining thereto, but also to purchase and distribute all supplies, perhaps also with absolute power of life and death over the members of any and all Indian Rings and conniving Secretary of the Interior and his immediate family within the recognized degrees.

Judge Kelley of Pennsylvania has just returned from the South, and has been giving an account of what he saw and heard. The Judge was chiefly struck, it seems, by two things: first, by the general prostration of industry; and, second, by the peaceful, sober, and almost civilized character of the population. No outrages, no murders, no rivers of blood, no deadly race-hostilities, no heaps of one-legged soldiers and Union men lying by the roadside with their throats cut from ear to ear, no half-interred corpses over which a flag was flying bearing the inscription, "This man voted the Radical ticket"—in fact, nothing but peace and quietness. The *Tribune* correspondent speaks of him as deeply regretting his vote in favor of the Force Bill, and stating his conviction to be that the only thing needed by the South for a revival from its present prostration is plenty of currency. The conversion of the Judge on the subject of the Force Bill is very gratifying, but we should like to know

what made him think two months ago that the bill was necessary, and why he should suppose that a tour of observation in the South gives him any right to an opinion as to the condition of the country or the temper of the population. We have always understood that the bloody outrages and murders committed by the Southerner were to be inferred from his known desire to exterminate the negro and the Union man. If the temper and disposition of the South are to be deduced from tangible, actual, visible facts, what is to become of the grand old party?

---

Nevertheless, we hail Mr. Kelley's conversion to the ordinary processes of reasoning on these subjects with satisfaction, and tender him the right hand of fellowship on all subjects save the currency. With regard to this, we must direct his attention to the condition of California, and ask him to apply to that State the rule as to the relation between the currency and the wealth of nations which he lays down with regard to the South. In the South, business is in a very depressed condition, and they have very little currency. It is easy to see that if they were supplied with currency by the Government, they would become rapidly prosperous. But in California they have no currency at all. The benighted population have steadily declined for fifteen years to allow the use of greenbacks as currency, and have on the contrary stuck to gold and silver. The hopeless condition to which the State is now reduced is shown by some statistics as to mining, agriculture, and immigration now going the rounds of the newspapers. For the first three months of this year the earnings of the Central Pacific Railroad were twenty per cent. above those of the corresponding period of 1874. The Western movement of passengers in 1874 for this period was 7,599; for 1875, 13,920; and the rush of immigration is now so great that the Central Railroad is taxed to its utmost to supply rolling-stock. The yield of wool, wine, grain, and tobacco promises to be enormous, and mining was never more profitably carried on than at present. California is, in fact, now the most prosperous part of the country. What it might have become with a really good, elastic currency probably only Mr. Henry C. Carey could tell us.

---

The difficulty of discovering the exact nature of the government of Louisiana, who carries it on, where it is, and whether its nature is that of an American State or a sort of Washington protectorate, does not seem to have altogether disappeared. The "Wheeler Compromise" is now generally admitted to be the fundamental law of the State, but what the Wheeler Compromise is, no two people seem able to agree. Referring to the action of the Louisiana Legislature in unseating some of its members just before its adjournment, we said that this was no violation of the Compromise, which only restored the expelled Democratic members and secured Kellogg from impeachment for past offences, and therefore did not prevent the Democratic majority from turning out other persons, if necessary and proper. The reason we said so was that Mr. Clarkson N. Potter, one of the Louisiana Committee, had publicly stated that, "so far as he understood, there was nothing in the arrangement by which the gentlemen who submitted their claims to the arbitrators were to be prevented, after being seated, from passing upon the right of any other person to a seat in that body whose claim had not been the subject of our [the arbitrators'] award." Mr. Potter said he had seen no copy of the agreement, and we certainly never had; but we supposed that he, if anybody, must know. The Boston *Journal* now informs us that we do not know what the Compromise is, and quotes from it as follows: "And that the House of Representatives, as to its members *as constituted under the award* of George F. Hoar, William A. Wheeler, William P. Frye, and Samuel S. Marshall, *shall remain without change, except by death or resignation* of members, until a new general election."

---

This certainly looks as if the Louisiana Conservatives had been guilty of sharp practice in unseating four members; but we understand their side of the case to be this: These four unseated Republicans were not on the original roll of the Returning Board at all, but were admitted without any pretence of an election whatever by the Assembly after the expulsion of the five Democratic members by the troops, solely for the purpose of getting a quorum. These four men had, therefore, nothing whatever to do with the legislature; their names were not on the list made out by the Returning Board and presented to the Wheeler Committee; and the roll of the Assembly is now precisely the roll of the Returning Board, as revised by the Wheeler Committee. We do not vouch for these facts; but certainly, if they are facts, Mr. Wheeler ought to come forward and state as much, and relieve a large number of Republican editors of the terrible anticipation of a rising of the Louisianians now preying on their minds. We must remind the Boston *Journal*, by the way, that all we originally said about the adoption of the Wheeler Compromise was, that it showed sagacity and moderation; and that the adoption of such a compromise proved that the Southerners were not such bloodthirsty desperadoes as they were painted. We never have maintained, nor should we for a moment think of maintaining, that Southern politicians are incapable of sharp practice. But, if their unseating these four members was a piece of sharp practice, it would only be an additional indication of there being no very great diversity of morals between one part of the country and another, and that the work of government is carried on in Louisiana by much the same sort of agencies as those which control politics in Ohio or New York.

---

General W. F. Bartlett made at the Lexington Centennial an excellent speech on the relations of North and South, and since his return to Richmond has been serenaded by a number of ex-Confederates headed by General Bradley Johnson, and made a second speech, which seems to have given his Southern audience as much satisfaction as the other did his Northern. No one has a better right than General Bartlett to speak in the interests of reconciliation and good-will, for no one during the war saw more or harder service on the Northern side, nor since the war has been in a better position to estimate the real temper and feeling of the best class of Southerners. Not being in public life, either, and having, it may be inferred from his speech last summer at Cambridge, a profound contempt for the average politician, what he says on occasions of this sort has a stamp of genuine earnestness which is apt to be wanting in the orations of gentlemen running for office. Notwithstanding this oratorical advantage, however, we must say that we regret that General Bartlett is not in public life. The reason is, of course, that he is not a sufficiently "practical" man, but thinks that government should be carried on for public objects, by men of principle and character. Men of this aristocratic and fastidious tone of mind never understand what the people want, and the Williamses, Delanos, and Shepherds seldom feel that it is safe to trust them with too much power.

---

A new liquor-law went into operation in Massachusetts last Saturday. The alternations of public feeling on the liquor question in that State, passing from prohibition to license, and from license to prohibition, almost with the regularity of the beats of a pendulum, furnish a striking illustration of the small extent to which legislation on many subjects is influenced by matured reflection upon relevant facts. The present is a "stringent license" law, so-called, and, in view of the fact that "the disaster and disgrace of a license law" would soon be upon them, the Massachusetts Temperance Alliance have issued an address to "the friends of our cause throughout the commonwealth." The spirit of the address may be inferred from the statements that "the liquor-shop is again to be an institution of the State"; that "lamentation is useless; nor have we any words to waste over the details of the law. When it fails, as it assuredly will, let its failure be accepted as the inevitable result of all such laws." After urging all prohibitionists to do what can be done towards the prevention of the granting of

licenses, the address adds: "Finally, having done faithfully the duties of the hour, let us fix our minds and hearts upon the repeal of this iniquity, framed into a law." So long as a considerable portion of the people of Massachusetts allow themselves to be swayed by the feelings begotten of an *à priori* theory upon the liquor question, it is idle to expect that any legislation whatever upon this subject will do much good. It may be said, however, that the new law goes into operation with the aid of the unusually favorable circumstance that the Governor of the State, the Mayor of the city of Boston, and a majority of the members of the legislature, really believe it to be a good law. So important a concurrence of opinion has not been known for very many years.

---

The State of Michigan has, unlike Massachusetts, adhered strictly to Prohibition for twenty years, and a clause in the State constitution forbids the introduction of a license system. The growth of population, however, and other causes have brought about a change of sentiment, and the State has now passed a law not licensing but taxing the sale and manufacture of spirituous liquors. Of course this is nothing but license in a different form but it is supposed that the law will not be obnoxious to the constitution. Meanwhile, a constitutional amendment has been prepared which will be voted upon in the fall of 1876, giving the legislature, entire control of the matter. It ought to be in the legislature's hands, and probably Michigan has been for the last twenty years a solitary, or almost solitary, instance of a community constitutionally prohibited from even allowing themselves to say what they would and would not drink. There is but a step from such a constitutional prohibition as this to one positively and affirmatively commanding the consumption of particular articles of diet.

---

We had no opportunity last week to speak of the German dinner to Mr. Schurz which succeeded the American dinner, and was at once larger and more in the nature of a demonstration, ending, as it did, in processions and a serenade, though it could not have been more hearty. Mr. Schurz has announced his intention of returning to Missouri and St. Louis, which is certainly a proof of his love of the West and his belief, shared by many other people, that even there his political "availability" will not be slow in reasserting itself. The German dinner was not intended to have any political significance, and therefore it is the more noticeable that after it was over a German address should have been presented, thanking Mr. Schurz for his services as a reformer, and promising that if he would, on returning to this country, come forward as a political leader, he might count upon the Germans following him. The newspapers generally have united in expressing the opinion that the honors paid Mr. Schurz were unusual and marked, but some of them seem to be unnecessarily alarmed as to its possible effect upon the minds and imaginations of those who offered them. We have seen a good many of the Germans interested in the dinner, and we can assure our contemporaries that though these gentlemen may not now be engaged in getting up a "third party," their movements will still be worth taking into consideration.

---

The public debt statement, published on the 1st inst., showed a reduction during April of $2,325,346. The coin balance is reported at $94,625,669, less $22,403,300 certificates of coin deposits in the Treasury. The total of $94,625,669 probably includes balances in the shape of called bonds in connection with the operations of the syndicate. The currency balance is reduced to the unprecedentedly low amount of $1,096,375. On account of this reduction in currency, the Secretary has ordered the sale of $5,000,000 gold during this month. His internal revenue receipts ought to increase during the month by reason of the heavy dues for licenses at this time of the year. Another call has been issued for $5,000,000 of 5-20 bonds, on which interest will cease August 1. This call was made at the request of the syndicate, who of late have been enabled to sell new fives in Europe, as the price has advanced above par in gold, and they have to pay for them 99½ in gold. Until recently, it was generally supposed that they paid the Government 99¾ for them. Perhaps the most gratifying feature of the public-debt statement was the reduction of $1,175,140 in the legal-tender circulation during April; it now stands at $378,051,760. In regard to the commerce of the country, the statement just issued by the Bureau of Statistics at Washington shows a decrease in the exports for the first eight months of the year (specie included) of $30,175,108 (mixed values), and a reduction also in the imports of $24,784,456. This means a general contraction in the volume of trade. The amount of goods in warehouse at the close of last February was $15,814,402 less than at the corresponding time in 1874; evidence that merchants have been drawing on stocks in port rather than importing new goods. The New York banks continue to gain legal-tender notes, and hold more now than, excepting the first week in February and the last in January, at any time since last November—an indication of prolonged ease in the money market. Another indication is that the amount of bank-notes in the hands of the issuers is steadily increasing. At the date of the last official return there were about $26,000,000; this virtually constitutes a reserve of circulation to be put out as required. In Wall Street, speculation has been tame, but all classes of investment securities have been strong.

---

The foreign offices of Germany and Belgium are still occupied in exchanging and comparing notes, with very little outcome thus far. As we remarked last week, this may be intended, on Bismarck's side, for home effect, or it may indicate a serious desire to coax or coerce neighboring states into a repressive, anti-Ultramontane policy like his own. There are obvious reasons why a constitutional Catholic state like Belgium is powerless to take part in any such combination, just as, in Italy, there is no disposition to do anything of the kind—for example, by repealing the law of the Papal guaranties, and making it expedient for the Pope to quit the country, bag and baggage. For their part, the Italians view their relations to the Papacy with entire complacency. They tolerate it in the midst of them with none of the alarm exhibited at a distance by Germany. They admit an identity of interest between the two countries as against Romanism, but deny the necessity of a common method of opposition. Bismarck they regard as merely following in the footsteps of Cavour, but rudely and violently. The Reformation drew the lines in Germany in a manner unknown in Italy, where, as has been said, the Renaissance made every cultivated Italian an impartial thinker, capable of comprehending and respecting the religious faith of others, so that all count themselves among the "faithful," while the believers are few; the believers attach no conditions to their faith, and the free-thinkers set no bounds to their argumentation. There is no motive, therefore, for joining in an active crusade against Ultramontanism, and, on the other hand, none for taking part with the Ultramontanes in a war against Germany, even if anything but a war of self-defence were not simply impossible for Italy as for Austria.

---

Nobody, surely, understands this better than Bismarck, whether or not he inspired the mischievous alarm lately sounded by the *Post*. He also knows, at least as well as anybody, that Cavour's milder manners are not suitable for Germany. There is no relaxation in pushing the new ecclesiastical laws for Prussia. The bill for the administration of Church property passed to a third reading on Saturday, and on the same day Dr. Falk introduced a new measure looking to the suppression of religious orders. This is to take effect in six months for the majority, in two years for those engaged in teaching; while those devoted to the care of the sick are made subject to the pleasure of the *Cultusminister*. The property of the cloisters and congregations thus dispersed will be used in pensioning the former members.

## THE INDEPENDENT VOTER'S PLACE IN POLITICS.

MR. EVARTS, in his recent speech at the Schurz dinner, stated the opinion of a great many men less able than himself when he said that notwithstanding, by the organization of our Government, all power is in the hands of the people, there might be an instrumentality able to "seize this power from the rightful possessors, and appropriate it to private combinations and to selfish ends." Mr. Schurz likewise expressed a similar opinion when he said that a large majority of the Republican party were sincerely and heartily in favor of reform, "but that they found themselves entangled in the network of organization, controlled and handled by a class of politicians who consider the advantages of power more important than the good of the country." From New Haven, also, we had just before received the lecture of Prof. Walker upon cumulative voting considered as a remedy for emancipating ourselves from the power of the caucus. That this subject—the dangerous power of the caucus—awakens the attention and calls out the thoughts of three such different men, living in three such different spheres of life, shows how rapidly it is becoming an important subject for the consideration of the American people. Here we have the leading member of the American bar, who is something more than a lawyer, being both a sagacious observer and instinctively a statesman, reviewing the actual situation, and asking how we shall hold out "to the younger men, the coming men, or the present men the idea that subserviency to caucus is not the sole prospect of American statesmanship." Here we have the senator who has risen highest in public estimation, and who has done so by the two simple methods of laborious self-culture and straightforward conduct, depicting with equal earnestness the dangers of this masked if not hidden power. Here, also, we have a professor of a university who has had unusual experience in life, ranging from active military service to the control of two important civil departments of the Government, lecturing to the students under his charge on the same insidious agency, and bringing his talents and experience to the solution of this simple problem: How shall the upright and intelligent majority manage to govern themselves? As Mr. Evarts very truly put it, "this is the problem of our time, and it is a problem which millions of our countrymen are now brooding on." A hundred years ago perhaps half a million were brooding on the problem as to how the American people should be secured in the right of taxing themselves as against the usurpation of an unconstitutional power. Now, that right having been secured to us, and to an extent which no man of that day could have anticipated, the question really is beginning to be, How shall we retain our rights, political and civil, as against the wiles of organized political fraud? In other words, having got rid of a king by a straightforward fight, now by what sagacious generalship shall we get rid of the caucus?

There are some considerations which will lead to the conclusion that the caucus is a natural product of existing causes, and as such, while they continue, cannot be readily overpowered or finally exterminated. In the first place, we have been living with a system which as a rule makes attainment of office easy, and removal from office practically impossible. We have no qualifications for office. A man need not own land, he need not be a householder, he is not subject to examination, it is not necessary for him to produce testimonials of character, he need not know how to read and write, he may be a drunkard, a gambler, a felon, provided only that he is twenty-one years of age and a resident within his district. In a word, we open the official door to its utmost width for all kinds of characters to walk unblushingly in. In the second place, we multiply offices to the utmost and in every conceivable way—by throwing the duty of selection on the people in the most paltry instances, by shortening the tenure of office, by "rotating" and turning men out without cause, and allowing every clerkship in the country to be changed with every change of politics. In the third place, we have confused and belittled the duty of selection by our "district system," in which we have singularly selected the smallest pattern for our area of choice, and our selection has borne the smallest fruit in the way of candidates.

In the fourth place, we have the most busy population—that is, the better and greater part of it—in the world; a population where the more energetic are not only trying to better their condition but to change it, where all men with activity of mind are intent on private ends, and where substantially none are content to live in the same house, and work in the same shop, and walk the same round that their fathers did before them. That is to say, we have a population possessing less time to spare for public duties than the well-to-do classes of a European nation. In the fifth place, we have an extraordinary and unprecedentedly large class of the ignorant and inexperienced, who, equally with the best of us, are entrusted with all the duties of citizenship. These are not only the "ignorant classes" in the ordinary sense of the term—the men who do not know how to read and write—but they are also foreigners, it may be with tolerable education, who have sought our shores ignorant of our laws and usages, and certainly ignorant of our public men. And, in the sixth place, with all of these materials at hand for a caucus, we have also the workmen in the form of professional politicians, whose trade it is to use these materials for their personal advantage, and to make their livelihood out of the country, sometimes by trading for office, sometimes by holding office, frequently by the dishonest plunder which office can distribute to those who are not actually in it. No one, we think, can review these causes without confessing to himself that, while they continue in full operation, the caucus will be inevitable, and the workmen will not stop laying their heads together because of anybody's denunciations.

There is one mode of dealing with the difficulty which every thoughtful citizen can put into operation at every election. Since we have the caucus as an established fact, directing our affairs, though much against our will, we can exact of it accountability. The principles of government which men not in office may unfold and spread before the people, can be dictated to the caucus as work which it shall not trifle with, and which it must perform. The old-time responsibility of party for the peculations of its creatures and the evils of its administration can be brought back, and as effectively fastened upon parties now as upon parties fifty years ago. The independent voter—that is to say, the conscientious citizen—though one in a hundred, has it in his power to put down the existing caucus, of whatever politics it may be, though he may not prevent another, less harmful, from taking its place. Is he likely to exert this power? We can answer this by saying that it must have been impossible for any one to listen to the speeches made last week at the Schurz dinner without being convinced that as an expression of political earnestness they had a deep significance. If Mr. Schurz had just reached the crowning eminence of a triumphant career as a public man, if he had just been re-elected to the Senate by a spontaneous union of all parties, or even if he had been leaving the country with a commission to some foreign court in his pocket, given as a solatium for political defeat, demonstrations in his honor would not have meant much. But appearing, as he does now, exiled from one party by his independence and principle, and repelled by the other apparently because it is too ignorant to recognize his value in public life, it is safe, in his case, to attribute marks of respect to a genuine admiration and hearty sympathy, and not to self-interest. The newspapers have generally dwelt upon this fact as the most important, and, wisely as we think, have noticed as of only secondary account the question raised by Mr. Schurz himself, whether means could not be found to organize in the support of their common principles those who are now roughly called "independent voters."

Much as we should have liked, at various times within the past four years, to have seen a third party in the field with a recognized head and known leaders, there are several reasons why at the present moment we can reconcile ourselves easily to its non-existence. Whether the thousands of voters all over the country who, as Mr. Evarts said the other night, are looking forward to the next Presidential campaign, in the hope that they may not have imposed upon them the duty of a "close mathematical calculation as to which candidate has the least defects," do or do not formally

unite, and do or do not explicitly offer their votes to that one of the two regular parties which shall put the best ticket in the field, is a matter of minor importance compared with the question whether there exists a large number of such voters in the country; and on this head there seems to be little difference of opinion. Both parties are now well aware that an indeterminate but considerable body of voters exists which is drawn over from one party to the other, not by recollections of the war or the stirring memories inspired by the Resolutions of '98, but almost altogether by the comparative merits of the men put forward by the two parties. To some people, a few years ago, this would have seemed a very shocking state of things to look forward to, as implying the sacrifice of interest in principles; but, in reality, it implies nothing of the sort, but merely that, in the existing rotten condition of parties, when both profess the same principles, and both are equally good and equally unreliable, the only sure foothold we can get for principles is in the character of the men who advocate them.

Now, when we come to consider the actual weight in politics of the independent vote, it must not be forgotten that there are two ways in which it can and does manifest itself—through the press, and at the polls. With its power at the polls every one is familiar. One of the commonplaces of political oratory to-day is the wonderful power shown in the rising of men of both parties against the Ring in this city, and there can be little doubt in any one's mind that the immensely improved condition of the Democratic party in this State; the capture of the organization, if we may put it so, by Mr. Tilden and his friends; the attack upon the canal men; and such nominations as were made the other day by Mr. Wickham for city commissioners, have all been directly due to the fact that for five years an unorganized independent vote has been held *in terrorem* over the heads of the politicians, and that they have had cause to feel for the first time in a long period that unless they made a good appearance, put their best men forward, and behaved like men of principle, they could never hope to regain their lost power. There is some evidence that a similar effect is beginning to be produced upon the minds of the Republicans by their reverses last autumn. The nominations made in Michigan the other day were exceptionally good, and the Republican ticket was successful; and, though we do not expect too much from the President, the substitution of Mr. Pierrepont for Mr. Williams, and the general renovation of the Cabinet that seems to be going on, show that somebody at least who has the interests of the party at heart is becoming aware that the autumn elections meant more than the usual Democratic reaction. It is in what the politicians call the "howl and clamor of the press," however, that there are the most constant and visible signs of the enormous change in public opinion which has taken place. The "independent press" has been much ridiculed, but the fact remains that the press is far more independent of both parties than it was ten years ago; and if the independence of newspapers is not a pretty good test of the independence of the public, we do not know what is. It is a notorious fact that among the leading newspapers of this city there is hardly one which can be considered the actual organ of either political party, in the sense of supporting the party's proceedings through thick and thin; and it is, of course, the sheerest nonsense to imagine that at the political and commercial centre of the country the press can go on publishing articles which reflect no one's opinions but the editors'. Few know better than an editor how necessary it is for the press to keep itself in the current, and indeed subserviency is almost always the vice which (though he may damn it) he "has most mind to." For these reasons, we find in the present either critical or hostile attitude of the leading part of the press toward both the parties the clearest proof that political independence is a real thing.

Is that independence, however real, likely to have its due effect in politics without an organization, a union? is the question which is no doubt troubling many people. As to this, we have one suggestion to make which we are satisfied is worth the consideration of everybody—that an independent body of voters ceases to be independent the moment it becomes organized into a party. This lesson was sadly learned at Cincinnati, and the remembrance of it probably deters many reformers from even the hope of repeating that experiment under more favorable auspices. There is, too, in the eagerness of the poorer sort of politician to ally himself with some new organization as soon as he has left an old one, the exhibition of a spirit which is hostile to independence itself. What has been for a long time chiefly needed in this country has been the creation of a new political atmosphere, in which men might hold and express political opinions which did not bear the stamp of any regular party die. The only way this can be done is through the existence of a body of independent men, who cherish first their own opinions, principles, characters, and moral code, and secondly, and even with reluctance, are willing to merge their individuality in movements for some public end which they recognize as good. We have had enough of statesmen whose utter oblivion of self and devotion to the common weal went so far as to include an oblivion of conscience, character, truth, and honor; what we want now is the knowledge that there are throughout the country a number of men ready to act together when it is necessary for the public good, but who stand meanwhile on their own legs, supported not by a platform or a party, but by their own strength of opinion and conviction. These are the dangerous people in any country to public jobbers and wire-pullers. These are the people whom they cannot count upon or understand. Give them an organization, a platform, a ticket, traditions, places to fill and empty, and they become like any other force in the political world, to be bargained with, bought, sold, and "captured." But without any organization they exercise an influence on both parties which is not measured by their numbers, and really create, for the time being, "party responsibility." There is no need, in the face of these facts, to give ourselves much trouble as yet about the campaign of 1876. The best thing the independent voter can do is to continue being independent, voting for the best men he can find to vote for, saying what he thinks, and not making himself over anxious as to what organization he belongs to. If he perseveres in this he will, we feel confident, compel the nomination of good candidates by both parties, or, if not, will at any rate occupy an honorable and self-respecting position which he will never have reason to regret.

## A REACTION IN INTERNATIONAL LAW.

TWO congresses for the modification of international law are to be held this year—one at the Hague and the other at St. Petersburg. The latter is an adjourned session of the congress which met last year at Brussels, and has in charge the consideration of the possible mitigation of the horrors and calamities of war. The other, having at its head a number of well-known American gentlemen—among others Dr. Woolsey and Mr. D. D. Field—is to discuss the feasibility of a "proportional reduction" of the armaments of great powers and the regulation among nations of the use of war, with a view to making it more difficult to begin; as well as other important but not closely related questions, such as that of the prevention of collisions at sea. What Russia desires to do about the horrors and calamities of war we had the opportunity of learning last year. She desires such a modification of international law as shall make war simply a mortal struggle between the regular forces of contending nations, and put all irregular fighting on the level of piracy. It has been pointed out very distinctly that this change would be solely for the benefit of the large military powers of Europe; for it would in future absolutely ensure victory to the "heaviest battalions"—this, of course, being Russia's object in introducing the change. A real improvement of international law has never been ardently desired by Russia, and indeed Prince Gortchakoff, who has not usually appeared in the rôle of a philanthropist, at the time of the Brussels Conference expressed strong doubts as to there being any obligatory international rights of any sort, except under treaties; and Prince

Gortchakoff's opinions as to the binding nature of treaties may be inferred from the manner in which Russia has observed the stipulations of that made at Paris in 1856, neutralizing the Black Sea, which, in 1870, she declared *sans façon* to be no longer binding, and has never since paid any attention to. With regard to the meeting at the Hague, we suppose that few people can expect it to succeed in reducing to any considerable extent the number of troops in Europe, nor in limiting or restraining what is perhaps the most cherished right of sovereign states—that of selecting the time and occasion for making war. The choice of reasons for making an attack, and the time selected for it, are of such immense importance to any nation, and count for so much in the chances of victory, that this, of all rights of sovereignty, would seem the last likely to be abandoned.

We would not be understood, however, as deprecating the Hague Conference or the discussion of international law in congresses or conventions; for, as it rests really not, as Prince Gortchakoff supposes, mainly on treaties, but on the general agreement of opinion among civilized nations, there is no kind of law which so much or so continually needs discussion or gains so little by silence. But there are a great many ways of discussing international law; and philanthropists just now seem to have formed a tacit league to discuss it in only one way, no matter whether their discussions come to anything or not. The direction in which they have for the last few years steadily directed their attention has been that of putting an end to war either by a general covenant to keep the peace, or by throwing legal or semi-legal obstacles in the way of it. In one sense, they have no doubt made an impression. Notwithstanding the present large armaments of Europe and the wars of the last few years, there can be no doubt that there is to-day, at least throughout that very important branch of the human race which speaks the English language, a more general recognition of the value and duty of peace than at any former time; and if there were in the world no other language spoken, and no other interests at stake than those of England and the United States, it might still not be utopian to indulge a dream of universal peace—not millennial, perhaps, but at any rate of long duration. But while this feeling is very strong, at least as regards our own race, the general attitude of mankind towards the body of customs and opinions which we call international law is quite a different thing; and it is to this that we wish the philanthropists would give a little closer attention.

Open any modern book on international law, and you will find that the most striking characteristic of modern as distinguished from ancient society is, that the law of nations contemplates as the normal condition of the world a state of peace. Till within two or three centuries war was regarded as the rule, peace as the exception. It follows from this, of course, that the interests kept constantly in view formerly were those of belligerents, while the interests which in modern times have taken the first rank are those of neutrals. Even in the time of Grotius, neutral interests were of so little importance that writers on the law of nations could almost overlook them altogether; now they make perhaps its most interesting chapter. This is a very commonplace fact; but when we reflect that the growth of neutral at the expense of belligerent rights is simply another name for the growth of the interests of peace at the expense of those of war, we see the close connection which has existed between the tide of philanthropic opinion distinguishing modern society and the current of international custom itself. The long peace, which lasted almost unbroken in Europe and in this country from the end of the Napoleonic wars to 1854, gave an opportunity for the growth of more and more humane opinions on these subjects, and when, at the close of the Crimean war, another era of peace seemed opening, we find in the Declaration of Paris a formal adoption by the Great Powers of the highest and best canons of international law affecting warfare among civilized nations—the abolition of privateering, the principle of the protection of enemy's goods by neutral flag, the exemption of neutral goods even under an enemy's flag, and the rule of effective blockades. This Declaration was signed by Russia, England, Austria, Prussia, Italy, Turkey, and other powers, while the United States objected to the abolition of privateering, but offered to agree even to that, provided all private property should be exempted from seizure by public armed vessels, except in the case of contraband of war.

That the gradual growth in international law of neutral at the expense of warlike interests, down to the time of the Treaty of Paris, was a movement in the direction which all philanthropists and reformers should wish to move, can hardly be disputed. Nevertheless, from that day to the present, while philanthropic and reformatory public opinion has been clamorous for a total abolition of war, there has been, not indeed a concerted, but by no means an accidental movement on the part of some of the most powerful nations in a direction opposed to the whole previous course of modern history, and distinctly against neutral or pacific in favor of belligerent rights. The United States, which in 1856 was dissatisfied with the Declaration of Paris because it did not go far enough, was the first to manifest a reactionary tendency, and, in the war with the South, being for the first time a belligerent on a grand scale, and forgetting its traditional policy as a neutral, began to invent strange theories as to the obligations of neutrals in time of war, which were finally formulated in the "three rules" laid down at Geneva, and which have left the duties of neutrality in such a vague and at the same time dangerous condition that it is absolutely impossible to say exactly what they mean, or what new obligations they impose. It is obvious enough that rules of this sort are all for the advantage of belligerents, since their very vagueness and uncertainty have always a tendency to drag the neutral into the quarrel on one side or the other. The next significant attack on neutral rights was made by Count Bernstorff, who invented, on behalf of Prussia, the doctrine of "benevolent" neutrality, and tried, without success, to induce England to believe that it was her duty to act the part of benevolent neutral as between Prussia and France. The attempt failed, but it was made, and there is no reason to believe that we have heard the last of it. Finally, in England, of all places in the world, a member of Parliament has now seriously proposed (and secured in support of his proposition a vote sufficient to ensure continued discussion) that England shall withdraw from the Declaration of Paris and formally abandon the principle of "free ships—free goods." The debate which took place in the House of Commons on the motion is instructive, as showing the existence of a number of people in the great neutral and commercial state of modern times who have so far forgotten recent history, and are so ignorant of the true position and interests of their own country, as to demand an increase of belligerent at the expense of neutral rights.

We have no desire to take a pessimistic view of the subject, and we do not mean to say that these instances are more than indications of a possible reaction in international law—not a demonstration that such a reaction is unavoidable. Indeed, to believe this, it would be necessary to believe, not merely that the leading countries of modern Europe mean to keep themselves in a state of readiness for belligerency, but that they expect to be generally at war; that we are entering upon a new period of barbarism; and that peace is hereafter to be the exception. This we do not say; but it is important not to overlook the fact that the improvement of society, the amelioration of human affairs, and the interests of general peace, are from the point of view of the international philanthropist closely bound up with the rights of neutrals; that down to the time of the Declaration of Paris the development of international law was marked by a steady development of these rights; and that the increased belligerency of the world during the last twenty years indicates a danger of a barbarous reaction in an opposite direction. The abolition of war may be dismissed as a dream; but it is no dream to hope that in the future, as in the past, the two great nations whose interests are bound up with the peace of the world may not be led astray by visions of an impossible perfection from a path which has been hitherto one of steady and remarkable progress.

## SHALL I BE EXPATRIATED?

BERLIN, April 6, 1875.

I PUT this question in the first person singular simply to give clearness, directness, and emphasis to a case which is the cause alike of all true Americans sojourning abroad. Though Judge Hoar's bill, defining the status of citizens of the United States in foreign countries, failed of definite action in the last House, the Administration is likely to press upon the next Congress some legislation on the conditions under which Americans residing abroad shall retain their citizenship; and, considering the important and delicate interests to be affected by such legislation, the way for it should be prepared by timely and judicious discussion.

With the main purpose of Judge Hoar's bill I fully agree; and, indeed, no one can reside for a time in Germany without feeling the necessity for some such legislation as is therein contemplated. In time of war, as I witnessed here in 1866, Germany swarms with returned emigrants, largely of the Jewish type, who plead their American citizenship in bar of military service to their Fatherland. Now that the latest treaty between Germany and the United States has reduced the risk of such service to a minimum, this class of American citizens is prolific in expedients for evading the fourth clause of the treaty, which provides that "every naturalized subject, who, having no intention of returning to the country of his adoption, resides continuously during two years in his former country, is presumed to have renounced his naturalization." So far as this class of citizens is concerned, Judge Hoar's bill would simply embody in the form of a law of the United States what is already provided for by the Treaty of 22d February, 1868, between the then North German Confederation and the United States. My objection to the bill in its present form is, that it includes in the same condemnation native-born citizens, against whom no presumption of renouncing their citizenship in the United States can lie.

The class of persons who ply between Germany and the United States in a way to dodge their obligations to either, and who take up or renounce citizenship at will for their own interest or convenience, is constantly increasing, and the claim of American citizenship is often used as a cover of some iniquity or a protection against some obligation abroad. No doubt some native Americans, too, make a mere convenience of their citizenship to evade responsibilities or shield irregularities. The Government of the United States is bound to protect itself against this abuse of citizenship; and it was with a view to a clear definition of the status of such persons that the President, in August, 1873, sought the opinions of the several heads of Departments upon "the relations between the Government and persons who may claim its protection as citizens of the United States," and that he afterwards brought this subject before Congress in his annual message. Judge Hoar's bill is the proper sequel to this movement of the President and his Cabinet. But it should be borne in mind that the Government has largely brought upon itself the evil which it now seeks to remedy by special legislation. The Treaty of 1868 with Germany was more in the interest of demagogism at home than of international comity. To catch the German vote, the United States secured an important relaxation of the German rule of military service in favor of actual or intending emigrants to America; and the consequences of this the United States is now reaping in over-stimulated immigration and in the perversion of citizenship to mean subterfuges that plague the American Legation and Consulates in Germany, and disgrace the American name. So far as Judge Hoar's bill is a remedy for this evil, I would hold up both hands for it, as indeed I would for a remodelling of the Treaty of 1868. But I protest against the phraseology of the bill which would put me in the same category with impostors or indifferents, and would expatriate me upon a groundless presumption.

In Section 3, the bill describes the persons who "shall be regarded as not subject to the jurisdiction of the United States"; and among these specifies "citizens who may be domiciled abroad, unless registered as hereinafter provided." Section 1 declares that "the words *domicile* and *reside* are to be construed as implying a fixed residence at a particular place, with direct or presumptive proof of an intent to remain indefinitely." Section 3 declares that "citizens of the United States, of adult age, who shall remain out of the jurisdiction of the United States, and within the jurisdiction of some other power, continuously for two years, shall be held as *domiciled* in a foreign country, except as hereinbefore provided"; and this last clause refers to the requirement that the American citizen residing abroad, if he desires to retain his citizenship, shall register himself at the Legation of the United States, or at a Consulate, once in every two years, declaring in writing, among many specifications, "*whether he intends to return.*"

If I rightly interpret this, the mere fact of residing abroad in the same country for two years is construed as being "domiciled" in that country; and he who is thus domiciled ceases to be constructively "under the jurisdiction of the United States," unless he shall be at the pains of going to some official and declaring in writing his "intent to return." The plain inference is that if one cannot say positively that he intends to return to the United States his registration would avail nothing, and he would forfeit his citizenship after a two years' residence abroad, or after any subsequent term of two years. This is the clear intent of the fourth section of the German Treaty of 1868, after which Section 3 of Judge Hoar's bill is modelled; a returned emigrant who has no intention of going back to America as his home, is held to have renounced his American naturalization by a continuous residence of two years in Germany. There is a fair ground for this presumption in the fact that such a person has willingly returned to the land of his nativity. But no such presumption should apply to the American who is away from the land of his nativity, and has taken no steps toward naturalizing himself in the country where he resides.

Now, to what end should he be required to declare his intention to return, unless the want of such intention is to work a forfeiture of his citizenship? Unless every two years he can declare that intention, he is held to be domiciled abroad, and is expatriated *nolens volens*. Hence I protest against this feature of the bill, as false in principle and vexatious in its application. It is false to assume that an American, through a foreign residence, declines in the fervor of his patriotism and needs to have this revived by a prescribed visit to the American Legation or Consulate to register the fact that he wishes to continue an American; it is false to assume that one undervalues his nationality through lapse of years in a foreign land, and must be goaded into remembrance of his birthright by an official threat of expatriation, to the prejudice of his heirs; it is a false principle that would make the retention of a birthright, which one no more thinks of relinquishing than of parting with his name, to depend upon the punctual performance of some petty formality which he might at any time forget; it is a false principle that would make the country forward to ostracise her own sons, who are spreading her name and fame abroad, and who would die sooner than renounce her; it is injurious that the country should deprive herself of her just part in the fame of her cosmopolitan sons, by wantonly expatriating them for failing to make a written declaration that they "intend to return" in person to lay their service and their honors at her feet; and, above all, it would be the height of absurdity for a country that has sought by treaty to release the subjects of a foreign power from obligatory military service, to subject the sons of her own citizens to military service to that same foreign power, by expatriating their parents.

The case will appear more vivid and precise in the concrete. Residing abroad, not of choice but of necessity, being ordered by physicians of New York, London, and Berlin to keep aloof from the exciting atmosphere of American life, I surely cannot declare "whether I intend to return" to the United States. I have resided "continuously" in Germany for more than two years, and my library and house-lease are "presumptive proof of an intent to remain indefinitely." But nothing could induce me to transfer my citizenship to Prussia, though advantageous overtures on that point have not been wanting. To the best of my means and ability I have improved every opportunity for advocating or defending the United States in face of German ignorance and prejudice; and there is more of this sort of work in view for the Centenary. The private citizen abroad may say things through the press and from the platform that are forbidden to an official representative of the Government; and we privates flatter ourselves that we do more to cause our country to be respected in Europe than do some of the leaders at home.

The advocates of Judge Hoar's measure will say that all laws must be framed in general terms, without regard to exceptional cases. But Congress has no right, for a general purpose, or simply to avoid circumlocution, to enact a law which by its terms would deprive of his birthright any native-born citizen, innocent of crime. No general phraseology should cover a specific injustice.

It will be said again that registration would be no more unjust nor annoying than the present system of renewing passports. But there is a radical difference in principle between the cases. The passport is simply an *evidence* of citizenship, to be used in case of need against foreign governments; whereas the proposed registration would touch the *fact* of citizenship, and would require the citizen to establish and maintain that fact against a law of his own government which through his mere forgetfulness might deprive him of it. And registration would not save him without "intent to return."

It will be said that if one prizes his citizenship it would be no great hardship to go and register his claim. In many cases, however, where there is no resident consul, this would be a hardship; and the real hardship

lies in the presumption of the bill that one does not value his citizenship, and the requirement that he shall formally renew his claim every two years or forfeit his citizenship, and need to be rehabilitated. The hardship lies in the fact that a government which throws out its drag-net over all peoples, and sweeps in multitudes of all sorts to be naturalized as voters, should expatriate its true native-born sons for the accident of residing abroad, unless they shall swear to an intent to return. If they cannot swear this, they are cast out of the protection of their country—one of the greatest hardships a true patriot could suffer.

My heart yet thrills with pride at the tribute of Bismarck to my country when he said that no foreign power would dare offer to a citizen of the United States the insult that the Carlists had offered to a German. He would bring Germany up to the noble standard of the United States in caring for her sons. Yet, by this bill, I might be dropped here in Germany, and find myself "a man without a country." No; the thing is absurd and impossible. My citizenship was not derived from the Fourteenth Amendment, and cannot be touched by any legislation based upon the phraseology of that Amendment touching "jurisdiction."

I deny the power of Congress to expatriate me, and I deny the right of Congress to throw upon me the *onus* of proving and retaining my citizenship. If need be, I would contest this before the Supreme Court, and, if defeated there, would still live an American, and die with the proud satisfaction that I had been more faithful to my country than she to me.

J. P. T.

## M. LE PLAY.—THE FRENCH LAW OF SUCCESSION.

PARIS, April 9, 1875.

FRANCE has often been in need of reform, but never of reformers. Among those of the present day, one of the most original and the most interesting is M. Le Play. He is no ordinary man. Educated at the Polytechnic School, he became a state engineer of mines. He spent several years in the Ural Mountains, in some gold-mines belonging to Prince Demidoff. He returned to France to become a professor of metallurgy at the School of Mines, and under the Empire he was made a councillor of state. I need hardly add that he was the president of the Commission of our great Exhibition. He has been in contact, during all his life, with manufacturers and employers of labor, as well as with laborers, and he has taken a keen interest in the study of the peasants and of the workingmen in all the districts which he has visited. He entered into his studies with a truly scientific spirit. He studied the social state of the working-classes as minutely and as carefully as a naturalist. He did not start from any general principles, but tried to extract some principles from a great collection of facts.

It is a pity that M. Le Play is not a good writer. His style is cumbersome, ponderous, and fatiguing; yet, notwithstanding the absence of all art in his works, his book on 'Social Reform in France' has already had several editions, and has attracted the notice of all those who are not contented with a superficial view of history. For the living forces of history are only the outward expressions of the hidden forces which are constantly at work in a society. M. Le Play does not belong to what I may call the Revolutionary school; he has studied the past of France as well as the present, and he has no unlimited faith in the famous declaration of the rights of men. The preparation for the 'Social Reform in France' is to be found in two great works, one called 'The European Workingmen,' the second 'The Workingmen in Both Worlds.' In the first he has described, in the most minute details, the condition of thirty-six families of laborers, examined their budget, and shown their relations with their superiors in society. The 'Ouvriers des Deux Mondes' is the work of a society of which M. Le Play is the president, and which publishes monographs concerning laborers in various countries and conditions.

M. Le Play's chapter on property has attracted much attention in France. He maintains that the best form of property, the most likely to promote social progress, is the free and individual possession, debarred from any servitude. There are now in some countries, and there have been at all times, other modes of property, but the laws of succession, in their immense variety, can be brought under three heads: 1st. Conservation can be forced by law. Such is the case wherever there are strong traditional feelings, and the system may work well as long as virtue is transmitted in the blood; but when the stock of the original possessors becomes corrupt, the system becomes intolerable. 2d. Partition can be forced by law; this is the régime proper to the countries which are imbued with a revolutionary spirit, adverse to tradition. The system is a reaction against the abuses of privilege; it is the system enforced in France since the Revolution of 1789. 3d. Testamentary liberty is complete. This system characterizes the countries where liberty as well as tradition is respected, and where the individual will is not subservient to the state or to privilege. This last system has the preference of M. Le Play; and he is a bold man who dares to confess in France that the father of a family ought to be completely free in the disposition of his property. The reaction against the right of primogeniture of the old régime is not yet exhausted, and the intense love of equality which has taken possession of the French mind has completely destroyed the old Roman notion of the *paterfamilias*. The law of succession in France has passed through all possible stages. Under the domination of Rome, the testamentary liberty was complete in the southern provinces, which had been the first conquered. In the north, Rome allowed the traditional and Germanic habit of partition between the sons. After the invasion of the Franks, the crown domains themselves were long considered as capable of division. The whole history of France may be said to be the struggle of the Latin ideal of government and legislation with the Germanic ideal. The *coutumes*, which are the collections of local laws made after the Middle Ages in all parts of France, are more or less Germanic, or more or less Latin, according to the latitude and sometimes according to the character of the feudal chiefs of the provinces. The archives of our notaries contain the elements of a new social history of France. I have myself studied the *coutumes* with great attention, and tried to form a correct opinion of the state of division of the land in France before the Revolution. The subject is very difficult and very obscure. It was the opinion of Tocqueville that land was already much divided in France before the Revolution. M. Le Play does not throw any new light on the subject. He contents himself with regretting that after the reign of Louis XIV. the noble families became impoverished; the great estates were divided in consequence. By the ordinance of 1747 no entails were allowed for more than two generations. The right of primogeniture has never been in France what it is in England; it only applied to what was called the manor and the *vol du chapon*—that is, land round the manor, limited by the extent of the flying of a cock. The rest of the land was subdivided; the oldest son had only a variable fraction of it, according to the *coutume*. It happened, therefore, that younger sons often had a bit of land without a manor. When they lived on it, they built a small house and ran in debt; when they were in the army or the church, they let it out; and this land, losing its feudal or noble quality, became *roturier*, even though it belonged to a nobleman, and *roturier* land ceased to be submitted to the law of primogeniture. It is easily understood that, under such circumstances, land became divided in all the countries where the *coutume* had a Germanic origin and where the habit of entails and of wills did not prevail. It is a curious fact that under Louis XIV. very few wills were made; the resident proprietors had their rights more and more reduced by the intendants. The aristocracy had in reality lost its social importance to a very great extent when the French Revolution broke out.

The first law on the subject of succession was passed in 1791. It instituted complete equality between all the sons and daughters, and destroyed all the distinctions established by the local customs between movable and immovable property, patrimonial estates and acquired estates, etc. All entails were strictly forbidden, under threat of confiscation. In 1793, a decree was passed which abolished the right of making a will in the direct line. Not only did the sons and daughters become the equal heirs of their father and mother, but all the descendants of the same degree had their formal rights to an equal division of the property of their ascendants. Under the Empire, there was a slight reaction against this tendency. A law of 1803 (29 Germinal, year xi.) fixed the rules of succession as they have been in force ever since. It excluded the bastards, whom the French Convention had admitted on the same footing as the legitimate children; it allowed the testator to keep the disposition of a variable part of his property. This portion becomes more and more reduced as the number of the children gets larger. It is equal to one-half of the property when there is one child only, to one-third when there are two, to one-fourth when there are three. The freedom of the father becomes, therefore, more and more nominal when his family increases, and this is undoubtedly the reason why there is a marked tendency in France towards the limitation of the family. Every time a father has a child more, he knows that his power of disposing of his fortune becomes smaller. The law has left him free to use this variable part (it is legally called the *quotité disponible*) as he chooses; in this respect, his freedom is unlimited. He can leave it to his wife, or to his eldest son, or to any other child, or to a perfect stranger. The only remainder of the old habit of entail is this: a father may leave the disposable part to a child with the provision that it must be kept for his heirs, giving him only a life-interest, while all the rest of the property becomes immediately free and

individual. The law is, however, so jealous of equality that this life-interest cannot be transmitted to one child only—it must go in equal parts to all the heirs of the second generation. This law of succession, which is a very original one, is not well known out of France, though it has now been in application for half a century. It has had the most important results, and the political philosopher may almost see in it the principal cause of the present state of a country which is half revolutionary and half conservative. The love of property is intense in all classes, but it accompanies a continual desire to break up settled estates.

It is hardly worth while to speak of the law of the Empire which re-established entails, under certain conditions, for the great dignitaries of the state, under the name of *majorats*, as this law was abolished by the Revolution of July. Practically, of course, great efforts are made towards the preservation of some estates, but these efforts only produce ruin in the end. Let us take, for instance, an historical estate like the Broglie estate in Normandy. The present Duke kept the castle and as much as he could of the land; he received the benefit of the *quotité disponible;* but he had sisters, and he was obliged to indemnify them by selling many farms. He is himself the father of five children; when he dies, the eldest son, the Prince de Broglie, will undoubtedly keep the château; but he will have to sell more farms to indemnify his younger brothers. After some time, when marriage does not bring much money into a family, the largest estate must become reduced to an expensive manor-house. In the year 1865, a proposition was made in the French Corps Législatif towards the establishment of a new régime, but the principle of testamentary liberty was only supported by 41 deputies against 197. M. Le Play is a strenuous advocate of this liberty, and he considers that this measure alone can give to the family the character which it ought to preserve, and which it has lost for a century. The relations of husband and wife are not satisfactory, in his opinion. The law allows two modes of relation—when no contract is made, everything is held in common, but the husband becomes the only administrator of the fortune, even of the part which was brought by the wife. The contract system is most generally employed among people who own some property; in M. Le Play's opinion, it diminishes the moral sense of the population. It consists essentially in this: the dower forms a property the fee-simple of which is not possessed by the husband and the wife, but is reserved to the heirs, either the heirs-at-law or the heirs named beforehand in the contract. Under the contract régime, what constitutes the dower cannot be sold or exchanged or increased without difficult formalities. To propose to your son-in-law to make a contract is to tell him that you do not consider him capable of administering the dower of your daughter. The law does not even give to husband and wife, after a long term of years, the right to change in unison the provisions of the contract; it is binding for a lifetime; and there is no provision like that which allows two parties in England to break an entail.

Marriage in France no longer exhibits the disorders of the time of Louis XV., and there is much morality in the French bourgeoisie; but M. Le Play does not consider the institution, as it is now established, as perfect. The majority of men are obliged, he says, to ask from their wives the fortune which their brothers and sisters have taken away from them. "This calculation is founded upon such ingenious motives that public opinion sees in it a mark of wisdom; and those who marry girls with the greatest accomplishments, but without fortune, seem to give a proof of imprudence or to acknowledge their own inferiority." I do not accept this judgment without reserve, but it is true that the consideration of the dower has become somewhat too important, that calculations are too openly made on what are called the *hopes* (*espérances*)—that is, the future successions which will come to the young ladies. Marriage is, in a measure, too subordinate to questions of interest; but, in one form or another, the same may probably be found everywhere. A long sojourn in England has convinced me that a girl with a good fortune knows her advantages there as well as she would in France.

The work of M. Le Play is very suggestive: it is rich in details and original views. I have only pointed to the questions which seem to me to have the most practical bearing. The French law of succession needs amendment, and I believe that M. Le Play has not exaggerated its importance in a social point of view.

# Correspondence.

## SECOND STAGE OF WISCONSIN RAILROAD LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The first letter with the above caption, over the initials "F. R. L."—in which signature there was a typographical error—called down upon its writer a small storm of abuse, which, though vehement enough, has hitherto been entirely vague and general. Now, however, Mr. Commissioner Hoyt comes out with a charge of misrepresentation and falsehood so specific and grave that I am sure you will allow me to reply.

I read his charge with some amazement, for the statement which he quotes was the last one which I should have thought any one conversant with the facts would venture to deny. The Commissioners' bill was explained both to the Senate Committee on Railroads and to the Lower House by the Commissioners themselves. In each case, Mr. Hoyt took up the bill section by section, and explained its provisions. In each case, Commissioner Joseph H. Osborne followed with remarks of a more general character, the drift whereof was that, in pursuing their enquiries and in framing their bill, the Commissioners had aimed to contribute something toward the establishment of a system of legislative control which would not be confined to Wisconsin nor to railroad corporations alone, but which should become national and extend to all corporate capital. This idea—of course I do not pretend to quote the precise language—was elaborated by Mr. Osborne at some length, and received from Mr. Hoyt, the only other member of the board present, the endorsement of silence, which was construed to mean approval. After first hearing this somewhat significant idea advanced, I conversed with several gentlemen who had been present, who fully confirmed my belief that I understood him correctly. Subsequently I met Mr. Osborne, and, in the course of a conversation on the subject, he restated their—or at least his own—position to the same effect. I cannot think that I misunderstood him. As corroborative of this conviction, it may be mentioned that he began this portion of his remarks by saying that I, being engaged in banking, would not be likely to look kindly on such a system, nevertheless, etc., etc.

Of these repeated statements I gave the version that Mr. Hoyt quotes, viz., "that the Commissioners stated, not only in the Assembly, but before the committees and privately, that their bill was intended as a step towards the inauguration of a system under which the earnings of capital should be regulated by legislation." I had warrant for saying this. I have seen no reason to modify it. If it be worth while, I desire to reaffirm it as emphatically as may be.

The relative values of this affirmation and of Mr. Hoyt's courteous denial are of no sort of consequence, as Mr. Osborne's remarks were made so publicly that the truth or falsity of my assertion concerning them need not become a question of veracity between Mr. Hoyt and myself.

Very respectfully, E. R. Leland.

Eauclaire, Wis., April 27, 1875.

## TACTICS OF BOOK-CANVASSING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In spite of some manifestly objectionable features, the trade in subscription-books appears to be increasing rapidly in magnitude and importance. It cannot escape attention that there has been of late a vast improvement in the quality, literary and mechanical, of works published and circulated by subscription. Our most respectable publishers have thus issued some of their most important works. Yet there is great opportunity for abuse in the hands of enterprising publishers and unscrupulous canvassers. It will do no harm to subject their methods of operation to close scrutiny. I believe these facts will justify the following statement.

Looking over a small volume of 'Instructions to Agents,' issued by a firm publishing some subscription-books of much merit, I find these among other directions:

"*Always secure the most influential men first. Never fail to do this, as your success depends wholly upon it. If in no other way, get them conditionally—i.e.*, have them sign your canvassing-book, even if on condition that they may take the book or not when you come to deliver it. . . . The getting of *leading names* is the GREAT TURNING-POINT OF SUCCESS IN CANVASSING. . . . The INFLUENCE OF EXAMPLE is of incalculable advantage to the canvasser. . . . If any of these leading people are unable to buy or assist as a helper [*sic*], then ask for their names to head your list for the sake of their INFLUENCE; the *condition* being that they are at liberty to take the book or not, when you bring it. . . . The object is to get their names to head the list, and, having thus got well started, the thing will go like an epidemic."

I have reason to think that similar instructions are given by some other publishers. The object seems to be to make *common people* suppose that "influential men" think enough of the book to buy and pay for it—whether they do or not. Does not this virtually contemplate a conspiracy between publishers, canvassers, and these important "influential men" to obtain money under false pretences from the general public? It looks very much like that to a Country Minister.

April 22, 1875.

# Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, have in press 'Storms: their Nature, Classification, and Laws, with the Means of predicting Them'; a reprint of J. Hain Friswell's essays entitled 'The Better Self'; the first volume of an American translation of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War'; and 'The American Centenary'—a review of the national progress—by Benson J. Lossing.——In the new edition of Prescott's complete works (Lippincott) we have remarked that the introduction to 'Charles V.,' so admirable for the time when it was written, is left untouched by the editor, not even the notes giving any intimation of the great progress made in the knowledge of the Middle Ages within the last hundred years. The editor may have chosen to regard the work as a literary monument to be preserved as it stands, and certainly it would require very extensive if not entire recasting.——Dr. Joseph P. Thompson, in continuance of his laudable efforts to enlighten the Germans with regard to his native country, purposes delivering next winter in Berlin a course of lectures for the Centennial. They will be given in English but reported and published in German, and will embrace the following topics: Grounds and Motives of the Revolution; Doctrines of the Declaration; Adoption of the Constitution; Washington as General and President; Vicissitudes of the Government; Territorial Expansion; Slavery and the Civil War; Inventions and Discoveries; Education and Religion; Service of the United States to Mankind; Criticisms and Prophecies.——On the 1st of April the London *Times* began the daily publication of a small chart of the weather. Doubtless the same thing would be practicable here, but it may seem unnecessary in view of the wide distribution, in public places, of our signal-service charts. ——Schoenhof & Moeller send us the first number (for February) of a new Italian periodical called the *Giornale Napoletano di filosofia e lettere, scienze morali e politiche.* It is to be issued bi-monthly under the direction of Prof. Francesco Fiorentino, with the aid of a number of his colleagues in the University of Naples and in Parliament. The opening article is an anti-Darwinian dialogue on the origin of things; the others are on the neglect into which the Neapolitan dialect has fallen ('Il Gran Basile,' by Professor V. Imbriani); on Campanella's views of religious reform (by the editor); on Savîtrî and Alcestis, a study in comparative mythology; a wholesome criticism on Dumas's preface to the new edition of 'Manon Lescaut,' etc., etc. There are numerous book reviews, and notes on a variety of topics of public and literary interest. The *Giornale* seems to offer a full return to its subscribers.——F. W. Christern has received a few copies of a pamphlet on the 'Famine in Asia Minor,' consisting mainly of articles on the subject from the *Levant Herald* (March—November, 1874). The reading of this history will both stimulate and discourage the benevolent. The famine is not yet a thing of the past, and the late winter will probably have renewed the ravages caused by that of 1873–4. Moreover, the Turkish misrule by reason of which "the vitality of the country burned so miserably low in the socket that the first puff of adversity extinguished it," remains, and must continue as long as Turkish finances are what they are. Here are a few figures: Population of the 160–170 agricultural villages belonging to the Caza of Keskin: 52,000 (1873), 25,000 (1875); the dead being estimated at 20,000. Pairs of oxen, 2,206 (1873), 427 (1875).

—Two annuals are before us whose character is so well established that they call for little comment from year to year. One is the 'Annual Record of Science and Industry,' edited by Prof. Spencer F. Baird (New York: Harper & Bros.) This most useful work, which seemed all-embracing before, now takes on a department of bibliography—in the present edition, a mere catalogue of titles; hereafter, to be accompanied by a critical discrimination. The editor also calls attention to the increased space allotted to the "General Summary of Progress," which precedes the detailed mention of the facts. The index which harmonizes the rather unsystematic arrangement, maintains its excellence. The meritorious 'Annual Register of Public Events at Home and Abroad' (London: Rivingtons) shows no change of scope or arrangement. We have commonly chosen to confine our criticism of it to the chapter or section devoted to the United States. This year the country is honored with ten pages instead of eight, and the perspective of events here is more satisfactory than formerly. The struggle with the inflationists, the disorders in the Southern States—particularly in Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana—and the fall elections, certainly determine the physiognomy, so to speak, of the past year. They are all noticed in the 'Register,' and so is the death of Mr. Sumner; but, in accounting for the Democratic successes, it would have been in order to allude to Sanborn and Simmons; and the Potter Law might have been used to cast a side-light on inflation and repudiation tendencies. Perhaps we ought to feel obliged to the editor for overlooking all these disgraces. We would nevertheless suggest to him, as we did once before, that the United States would be more intelligently treated by some one who paid special attention to its politics, and was not obliged to substitute extracts from the London *Times* for his own knowledge and judgment of affairs on this side the water. Such an observer would probably have recorded the Beecher-Tilton scandal, and it will be strange if the present suit does not figure next year among the "Remarkable Trials" of the 'Register.' The public documents and state-papers collected in the appendix relate to the Ashantee war, the Bengal famine, the International Postal Convention, the Brussels Conference, the purchase system, the imperial census of 1871, British patents, judicial and police statistics, etc., etc.

—Messrs. Diossy & Co. of New York, and Messrs. Callaghan & Co. of Chicago, publish a digest of railway cases by John F. Lacey, of the Iowa bar, which will be found a useful book for lawyers. The title "Railways" has in modern times become so well accepted in the profession that not even the most puritanical theorist can object to it. Undoubtedly, the multiplicity of titles of a purely practical as distinguished from a purely legal character, is an indication in a small way of the chaotic condition of the law; and the scientific modern student, educated in a proper scorn for the unphilosophical Blackstone, may tremble when he hears from time to time of ever new and more voluminous divisions and subdivisions of the law, threatening to make the titles of jurisprudence conterminous with those of the dictionary. Objections of this sort, however, do not apply to railroads, and there can be no doubt either that, as all law has a practical basis, the practical divisions of it, determined by changes of circumstances, are necessary, unavoidable, and useful. Railroads are corporations, as they are also common carriers; but they are a sufficiently peculiar kind of corporation and common carrier to have developed a body of law peculiar to themselves, and for this reason a digest of this law has long been much desired. Mr. Lacey's digest includes "all reported American cases in which a railway company is a party, and all other cases in which railway law is determined."

—A correspondent writes us as follows: "As your readers are aware, there has been publishing for some months in England a series of manuals called 'Epochs of History,' which Scribner, Armstrong & Co. are reprinting here. In the original programme of the series, along with such names as W. Stubbs, James Gairdner, and G. W. Cox, appears that of William O'Connor Morris, who, if equally deserving, certainly does not enjoy the same reputation as the others for careful and tested scholarship. Now, it seems that when Mr. Morris got his book ready (his subject was the French Revolution) it was rejected by the editor of the series, Mr. E. E. Morris. Thereupon the former gentleman issued his book as an entirely independent publication, and with entirely different mechanical get-up, stating in the beginning of his preface that the work had been rejected as one of the 'Epochs,' and giving as the reason that in the opinion of the editor it was too mature for the students for whom the series was designed. The American publishers immediately reprinted it as one of the 'Epochs,' suppressing the part of the preface from which I have quoted, and thus give it whatever advantage may be derived from association with the other authors and the responsibility of the editor. The too great maturity of the work certainly appears in a curious shape. No mention whatever is made of the meeting of the Notables; it is stated (p. 20) that 'the Court *had consented* that the number of the representatives of the people should be double what it had been formerly'—the truth being that the Court, of its own will, had overruled the decision of the Notables against this. These are specimens of the graver errors; there are hosts of slighter ones, due to the author's fondness for sound. Thus he speaks of 'the Estate composed of more than 1,200 deputies.' The number was 1,145. The author also adopts the old *serf* mistake, telling the story (p. 32) in a way that would do credit to Wendell Phillips himself. In his version it is the peasant's blood, instead of his entrails, in which the lord warms his feet. On the whole, I am inclined to think the editor may have had other reasons than the one given for rejecting Mr. Morris's work."

—A large collection of intaglii and cameos is on exhibition in Philadelphia, for the benefit of the Women's Centennial Committee. The gems are selected from the cabinet of Mr. Maxwell Sommerville, and number more than nine hundred. Among them are portraits of every Roman emperor, from Augustus to Posthumus, except the son of Philip the Arabian, and Posthumus (replaced by a coin). A head of Ajax—agate-onyx (389), very fine in colors and workmanship—a modern turquoise with the Death of Cleopatra (776), a

rare jacinth with one of the Ptolemies (760), a vintage incident in amber (475), a curious Persian portrait with tiara in reverse (372), a ruby with child's head (511), and an emerald showing Maximinus Pius in relief on obverse and Victory in intaglio on the reverse (495), are among the curiosities of the collection, which includes many other rarities in antique and cinque-cento glyptic art. A number of family portraits have been lent for the same exhibition, interesting for their subjects as well as the names they bear, among which are those of Kneller, Stuart, and West.

—The geographical publications of the year, November, 1873–74, are as usual very fully recorded, with the proper classification, by Dr. W. Koner, in the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society (No. 54). The number is also made valuable for reference by Henry Greffrath's statistical article on the progress of the South Australian colonies. Among other items, the cost of the overland telegraph, 1,785 miles long, is set down at $1,860,000, or, nearly enough, $1,000 a mile. For a stretch of six hundred miles it was necessary to use iron posts, in order to avoid the destructiveness of the white ants, and this alone involved an outlay of $250,000. A communication on some recent measurements of altitudes in South America, by Drs. W. Reiss and A. Stübel, gives 6,310 metres (20,702 feet) for Chimborazo, and 5,943 metres (19,498 feet) for Cotopaxi. The same heights are given by Mr. Henry Gannett, in his recent 'Lists of Elevations,' as 21,440 and 18,875 feet respectively. The chief feature of Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for March 2 is the beginning of a condensed itinerary of Livingstone derived from his 'Last Journals,' and illustrated by a remarkable map, which represents the latest stage of our knowledge concerning the country in which he laid down his life. Asia and Oceanica are mostly regarded in the *Geographical Magazine* for April, the leading article being by Col. Henry Yule, on "Trade Routes to Western China." The accompanying map is of Farther India and Southwestern China, and indicates the route of the recent unfortunate expedition up the Irawadi to Tali-fu. Col. Yule is not sanguine as to the chances of this line competing with the Yang-tse as a channel of commerce.

—Collectors of choice photographs should have an eye to the fifty taken by Herr Remelé on Gerard Rohlfs's late expedition to the Libyan Desert. Unfortunately, the Khedive, at whose charge the album has been got up, with the luxuriousness habitual to that monarch, allowed but a hundred sets to be made, and none of these are for sale. They are of course unique, as no photographer had ever penetrated into this wilderness. The desert landscapes are said to be singularly effective ; the vegetation of the oases is also very picturesquely rendered. Five plates are devoted to the temple at Dachel, uncovered by Herr Remelé himself, and there are several other architectural subjects, besides a few views from Siut and Homra on the Nile. To any one aware of the difficulties of photographing in a hot climate, the high artistic excellence of this album will seem above praise. Some account, by the way, of the geographical results of the Rohlfs expedition is given by one of its members, Professor W. Jordan, in an address which has been printed in the Virchow and Holtzendorff collection of popular scientific essays (No. 218 ; Berlin : Carl Habel). Incidentally, Dr. Jordan discusses the feasibility of converting part of the Libyan Desert into an inland sea. It was discovered that the oasis of Siwa lies in a basin from 75 to 100 feet below the sea-level, and from one to two days' journey in width. This could undoubtedly be flooded from the Mediterranean by leading a canal from the Syrtis Major, but the channel would have to be of enormous dimensions to overcome the evaporation of the Sahara, and, after all, the saline products would render the lake valueless, and the region for ever uninhabitable. Dr. Jordan anticipates a similar fate for the experiment which the French seem bent on trying in the salt-marshes lying to the south of the Atlas of Constantine, with a view to modifying the climate of Algeria. He doubts if it is possible to establish in a canal leading from the Gulf of Gabes such an inward and outward flowing current, of salt and fresh water, as exists in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb ; and the inward-flowing stream, he calculates, would have to deliver at least five times as much water as the Rhine. Were the proposed lake created, even of the size of the Grand-Duchy of Baden, it would not exercise (as has been feared) any appreciable influence on the climate of Europe. In the Libyan Desert the depressed basin is too limited to excite apprehension from changes in the land and water in that quarter. On the other hand, in Algeria, the moisture would probably kill the date-palm, the most useful product of the soil, while it could hardly have more effect in reclaiming the surrounding country than the Red Sea and Mediterranean have had on the Sahara which touches their shores. Some enthusiasts have discovered on the west coast a sahara basin 250 feet below the sea-level, and lying between the Atlantic and Timbuctoo. They propose to make a canal of the river Belta, whose embouchure is near Cape Bajador, cut a short canal of five miles to connect with the basin, and so produce an inland lake which will carry the trader to the Niger at Timbuctoo, and open up the interior of Africa to gain, Christianity, civilization, etc., etc. This enterprise might be recommended to capitalists who have lost faith in railroad speculations.

—One of the most productive and profound students of the philology and literature of the Romance languages is Adolph Mussafia, Professor in the University of Vienna, and amanuensis at the Imperial Library. He has especially distinguished himself by his researches in the dialects of Northern Italy, which he has illustrated by a number of texts and philological studies. One of the most important of the latter is entitled 'Beitrag zur Kunde der Norditalienischen Mundarten im XV. Jahrhunderte' (Vienna, 1873). The author has presented a picture of the North Italian dialects in the fifteenth century, drawn from a number of MSS. and printed Italian-German glossaries of the same date. One of these appears to be the work of a German teacher living in Venice by the name of George of Nürnberg, whose address is given, and who is praised for having "*ein clugen sin ze leren an alz verdriessen.*" Mussafia has arranged his materials in the shape of a glossary, richly illustrated by references to the other Italian dialects. The volume will prove a welcome addition to Italian glottology as well as to general Romance etymology.

—Two more recent contributions by the same author to old Italian literature are : 'Zur Katharinenlegende' (Vienna, 1874), and 'Cinque Sonetti antichi tratti da un Codice della Palatina di Vienna' (Vienna, 1874). The first-named work contains the text (with philological remarks) of an Italian version in the Veronese dialect of the legend of St. Catherine, found in a MS. of the fourteenth century, in the library of St. Mark in Venice. This version, curiously enough, is closely related to an old French poem on the same subject, preserved in a MS. of the library of the Arsenal at Paris, written at Verona in the thirteenth century. The editor proposes in a future work to examine the poem in its literary relations to the other versions of this favorite mediæval legend. The five old Italian sonnets in the second-named work were found by the editor on the parchment lining of a cover of a MS. of the fourteenth century. These sonnets are in the handwriting of this period, but from internal evidence would seem to be much older, probably of the previous century, although Mussafia hesitates to pronounce on this point with certainty. They are interesting philologically and from a literary point of view, not being found in any Italian collection so far known. The last four of the sonnets form a continuous narrative very characteristic of the age. The first of the five is noteworthy from the fact that it contains the *rimalmezzo,* or inner rhyme, besides the usual end rhyme.

—Of interest to students of Provençal literature is another late work by the same author : 'Ueber die Provenzalischen Lieder-Handschriften des Giovanni Maria Barbieri' (Vienna, 1874). Barbieri was, as is well known, the author of a valuable work entitled 'Dell' Origine della Poesia rimata,' in which considerable attention is paid to Provençal lyrical poetry, and several MS. collections are cited. Mussafia endeavors to reconstruct these authorities, and discover whether they are identical with any of the well-known Provençal MSS. of Italy or Paris.

## MEMOIRS OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.*

WE have already called the attention of our readers to the first two volumes of this important publication. Three more have since been added to it, covering the whole ground from the author's first entrance into public life to his second term as Secretary of State, in May, 1822. The third volume is devoted to the Negotiation for Peace, The Hundred Days, and the Mission to England. The negotiations for peace brought Mr. Adams into intimate relations with Henry Clay, and the collision of these two fiery and imperious natures is worth a careful study. In natural, spontaneous eloquence Mr. Clay was the superior ; but in broad culture and in accurate method and untiring industry, Mr. Adams holds the first place in our civil history. Both were subject to sudden bursts of passion, which deprived them for the moment of all self-control. Mr. Adams confesses his weakness with a frankness which commands respect. If Mr. Clay had kept a journal he might, perhaps, have made a similar avowal. "In discussing with them (Gallatin and Bayard)," writes Mr. Adams, "I cannot always restrain the irritability of my temper." On one occasion he used the word "trick" in a manner at which all his colleagues took umbrage. "The use of the word 'trick,'" he confesses, "was harsh and unnecessary. The cor-

* 'Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Edited by Charles Francis Adams.' Vols. III., IV., V. Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co.

rect principle in this case is to do nothing that may not be boldly avowed. I should have said this, and no more."

The preparation of notes is a severe trial to his patience :

"We had a short meeting of the mission in the morning to consider the new draft of the answer to the British note ; but Mr. Bayard was not present, and Mr. Russell wished to make a revision of the paper before it was finally discussed. The meeting therefore was adjourned until immediately after dinner, and we then sat until eleven at night, sifting, erasing, patching, and amending, until we were all wearied, though none of us was yet satisfied with amendment. On the part of my own draft, which had been left for consideration, two-thirds were now struck out. The remnant left of mine certainly does not form a fifth part of the paper as finally settled, and it is patched with scraps from Mr. Gallatin, and scraps from Mr. Bayard, and scraps from Mr. Clay, all of whom are dissatisfied with the paper as finally constructed. Each of us takes a separate and distinct view of the subject-matter, and each naturally thinks his own view of it the most important."

The close of the negotiation was marked by a bitter discussion, in which Mr. Clay took the lead. What was to be done with the papers of the commission, which contained the record of the negotiation ? Mr. Clay started the discussion by claiming them for himself. Mr. Adams thought that if they went to any one they should go to him as first commissioner. The other members took part in the discussion, and much unbecoming warmth was displayed. "Mr. Clay," writes Mr. Adams, "now lost all the remnant of his temper, and broke out with 'You *dare* not, you *cannot*, you *shall* not say that there has been a cabal of three members against you ; no person shall impute anything of the kind to me with impunity.' . . . I replied, 'What I *dare* say, I have dared to say in writing. Gentlemen may draw from it what inferences they please. I am not answerable for them.'" Mr. Adams had felt early in the discussion that he was not a favorite with his colleagues. In September he had written :

"In this debate I had continued evidence of two things. One, that if any one member objects to anything I have written, all the rest support him in it, and I never can get it through. . . . This is a severity with which I alone am treated in our discussions by all my colleagues. Almost everything written by any of the rest is rejected or agreed to with very little criticism either verbal or substantial. But every line that I write passes a gauntlet of objections by every one of my colleagues, which finally issues for the most part in the rejection of it all. I write and propose a great deal more than all the rest together, Mr. Gallatin excepted. I have in the end, I believe, not more than my fifth part in the papers as we dispatch them."

"This," he adds, with a frankness which almost amounts to naïveté, "must be in a great measure the fault of my composition, and I ought to endeavor to correct the general fault from which it proceeds." Every note renews the painful experience :

"In repelling an insolent charge of the British Plenipotentiaries, against the Government of the United States, of a system of perpetual encroachment upon the Indians under the pretence of purchases, I had taken the ground of the moral and religious duty of a nation to settle, cultivate, and improve their territory, a principle perfectly recognized by the laws of nations, and in my own opinion the only solid and unanswerable defence against the charge in the British note. Gallatin saw and admitted the weight of the argument, but was afraid of ridicule. Bayard, too, since he has been reading Vattel, agreed in the argument, and was willing to say it was a duty. But the terms God and Providence and Heaven Mr. Clay thought were canting, and Russell laughed at them. I was obliged to give them up, and with them what I thought the best argument we had."

Another point upon which Mr. Adams differed from his colleagues was the tone of their correspondence with the British commissioners. "The tone of the British notes," he writes in October, "is arrogant, overbearing, and offensive. The tone of ours is neither so bold nor so spirited as I think it should be. It is too much on the defensive, and too excessive in the caution to say nothing offensive. I have seldom been able to prevail upon my colleagues to insert anything in the style of retort upon the harsh and reproachful matter which we receive." On another occasion, he writes on receiving the British note : "We received this day the fifth note from the British Plenipotentiaries. It has the same dilatory and insidious character as their preceding notes, but is shorter."

At last the negotiations are completed, the treaty is signed, and Mr. Adams bids adieu for ever to Ghent, January 26, 1815, and, pushing straight on to Paris, reaches the city in time to be an eye-witness of the Hundred Days. He is presented to Louis XVIII., but not to Napoleon. Louis asked him if he was "in any way related to the celebrated Mr. Adams." This was a distinction ; for "the King, Prince, and Princess seldom speak to any one presented to them" But far more interesting are the friends, old and new, whom he meets in the circle which his diplomatic rank opens to him. First among them is Lafayette, unconscious of the part he is yet to play in that memorable year. There was De Tracy, George Lafayette's father-in-law, whom Lady Morgan called the Locke of France. There was Marbois, French Consul in the United States during the war, and who, in his history of Arnold's conspiracy, imitated St.-Réal. He calls on Madame de Staël, who is not yet up, but sends him, through her son, an invitation to dinner, which he accepts. Among the guests is Benjamin Constant, of whom he draws an unflattering portrait :

"The conversation was not very interesting—some conversation between the lady and M. Constant, who seemed to consider it as a principle to contradict her. At one time there were symptoms of a conversation arising upon a subject of political economy, upon which she said : 'J'interdis tout discours sur l'économie politique. Ah ! je crains l'économie politique comme le feu.' Immediately after dinner she left us, saying, 'Je vous laisse mon fils, qui est très-aimable,' and went to the Théâtre Français, to see the tragedy of 'Esther.' She invited me to come and see her again, and said she was at home almost every evening. She also apologized for being obliged to leave her company soon 'pour aller au spectacle.'"

Mr. Adams visits the halls of ancient sculpture, and feels that "the Apollo, the Venus, and the Laocoön absorb the consideration of everything else ; the eye of the enquirer begins and ends with them." Of modern sculpture as compared with the ancient, he modestly observes : "I am still not prepared for committing to paper my remarks." If he had always been of this mood, we should not have seen Persico's very bad statues disfigure our National Capitol. He attended the sessions of the courts with a professional interest, particularly in the trials by jury, to which the French mind was not yet accustomed. His days were passed in sight-seeing, his evenings were given up to society, and above all to the theatre. This, indeed, was his favorite recreation, which his early familiarity with French manners and the French language enabled him to enjoy as few foreigners can. Suddenly, it is known that Napoleon is in France. The morning *Moniteur* declares him "a rebel and a traitor," and soon the newsboys raise the cry, "Ordonnance du Roi concernant Napoléon Bonaparte." The news seems to have fallen lightly at first on Parisian ears, for at the opera to which he goes in the evening, the audience call for "Henri Quatre" before the play begins, and, when the Duc de Berri enters, shout "Vive le Roi." Two days pass, and the cry of "Vive le Roi" is still heard at the theatre and "Henri Quatre" is still called for. But Mr. Adams notes as an inauspicious circumstance that his next-door neighbor at the hotel, "the Count de St. Antonio, whose wife is an Englishwoman, left the city this day, having intended to remain here two months longer." At three he goes to the bookseller's to complete his copy of the Bibliothèque des Théâtres and notes on his way a "great number of post-horses, apparently going to take travellers leaving Paris." In the afternoon come the tidings that the British had been totally defeated before New Orleans.

The restlessness invades the theatres, though cries for "Henri Quatre" and "Vive le Roi" are still heard :

"In the box next to me," he writes, "there was a man, his wife, and their son, a boy of nine or ten years of age. The man was in great agitation and anxiety ; he left the box at the end of the second play, and returned after the first act of the third was over. His anxiety was then much increased, and during the rest of the performance he was telling his wife, in short, interrupted sentences, what he had heard. He spoke in a low voice, and I heard only fragments of what he said. He had been to see some friends whom he had found 'très-abattus.' 'It was said that —— [I could not hear the name] was killed.' Then some other names. 'Ils croyent aller à la fortune.' Then, the 'Duc de Berri a dit qu'il resterait à Paris avec le Roi.' Then, 'on dit que Cambacérès est parti.' Then, 'on attend avec inquiétude les nouvelles de demain.'"

He passes the next evening also at the theatre, where Bourbon songs are still called for. On his way home he meets "numerous patrols of soldiers, national guards, and sentinels at the corners of the streets ; news placarded on the pillars, and clusters of people collecting and attempting to read them by the light of the lamps. I stopped a moment at one of these clusters, when a patrol came up, and the patrol at their head said, in a low voice, 'Dispersez-vous, messieurs, dispersez-vous.' Another patrol, meeting two soldiers in a red uniform, made them stop and all cried 'Vive le Roi.' . . . A handbill of news—'très-satisfaisante'—from Monsieur was circulating, promising the speedy deliverance of Lyons. The agitation in the city has much increased within these two days." The next day he sees Gallatin, and while he was with him General Lafayette came in. "It is ascertained that Napoleon was at Lyons on Friday last, the tenth. The Duke of Orleans, Monsieur, and Marshal Macdonald have returned to Paris. Napoleon had only twelve or thirteen thousand men at Lyons." Mr. Adams still goes to the theatre, the best school for the study of Frenchmen—"the house very thin." "'Henri Quatre' was once played without being called for. The pillars of the Palais Royal are plastered with appeals to arms against Bonaparte." On the 14th he writes, "Met the Baron Bielefeld, who concurred in the opinion prevailing that the Government will be maintained." "A strong spirit has yesterday and this day appeared. The moment of

consternation has passed away, and that of confidence and energy has succeeded. The number of volunteers who have offered themselves at Paris to march against Bonaparte is greater than the Government could accept. A corps of five hundred men has been formed of the students of law, who offered themselves in a body." He sits next to one of them at the opera.

"He appeared to be in great anxiety. He said that he was enrolled in this corps of students at law; that they had been inspected this day, and were to be reviewed to-morrow. They were ordered to appear in uniform, but it was impossible to get a uniform in one day, and he did not think they ought to be required to clothe themselves at their own expense. He did not know what was to happen; he had just finished his studies at the law, and was to have maintained his thesis next week for admission to the bar. Now, God knew what would become of him. He had come to the opera 'pour s'étourdir'; that the disposition of the nation was very good; an immense number of volunteers had offered their services, but 'il n'y a que les militaires.' 'And not all of them,' said the neighbor. 'Several officers dined with me on Sunday. They said they had faithfully served Bonaparte when he was emperor, and would faithfully serve the king now. Many others have the same sentiments, and you may be assured you will have very little to do. It will be all over in a very few days.' This same person speaking to me said, before the play began, 'Perhaps they will announce to us some news from the theatre this evening.'"

"The house was very thin." "'Henri Quatre' was called for and played with the usual applause." Mr. Adams is struck by the contrast between the crowded benches of his first coming and the empty benches of the present. Others observe it also, and a discussion goes on near him whether it was owing to the state of public affairs or not.

"The public spirit of Paris now is confident and sanguine. It does not appear that Napoleon has advanced from Lyons. He is undoubtedly then very weak, and formidable forces are marching from all quarters. It is ascertained that a part of the troops as well as of the highest officers are faithful to the king, and Napoleon's soldiers will probably desert him in the end. There is but one sentiment to be heard in Paris."

The theatre is again rapturous over Bourbon songs. Three days later he finds himself in company with Mr. Gallatin and General Turreau. Mr. Gallatin had "heard that Bonaparte would be last night at Auxerres, and he supposed there would be a battle to-morrow. Turreau smiled, shrugged his shoulders, and said: "Une bataille—allons donc!" Next day came tidings that Ney with all his troops had gone over to Napoleon, who will be here to-morrow. There is a great crowd pushing on towards the Carrousel, where the king is to review "the troops who are to march to-morrow morning to meet Napoleon." No appearance of anything like defection to the royal cause was discernible; but the countenances of the attendants at the Tuileries marked dejection. Mr. Adams is told that when "the officers of the garrison of Paris attempted to prevail upon the troops to cry 'Vive le Roi,' the soldiers would say, 'Oh, yes! vive le Roi!' and laugh. They had not a hope that the soldiers would fight for the king." One more night and the doubt passes away. "Mr. Beale came in and told me that the king and royal family were gone. They left the palace of the Tuileries at one o'clock this morning, and took the road to Beauvais. It was but last Thursday that the king at the séance royale talked, before the two legislative chambers, of dying in defence of the country. . . . The crowd on the boulevards cry 'Vive l'Empereur!'"

## EARL RUSSELL'S RECOLLECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.*

"LASTLY, to speak of my own work, I can only rejoice that I have been allowed to have my share in the task accomplished in the half-century which has elapsed from 1819 to 1869. My capacity, I always felt, was very inferior to that of the men who have attained in past times the foremost place in our Parliament, and in the councils of our sovereign. I have committed many errors, some of them very gross blunders. But the generous people of England are always forbearing and forgiving to those statesmen who have the good of their country at heart; like my betters, I have been misrepresented and slandered by those who know nothing of me; but I have been more than compensated by the confidence and the friendship of the best men of my own political connection, and by the regard and favorable interpretation of my motives which I have heard expressed by my generous opponents, from the days of Lord Castlereagh to these of Mr. Disraeli."

In these words the English statesman gives his own estimate of his own career. They might serve for his best epitaph, for they present a truthful account both of his defects and of his merits. It is undoubtedly true that Lord Russell has played a great part in the politics of half a century marked by great political changes. It is undoubtedly true that he has throughout his career had the good of his country at heart; and it is equally true that he has commanded the confidence and esteem of the best men of his "connection." This, and more than this, may be said in his praise, but his character and career have, as he himself points out with dignified candor, their weak as well as their strong side. In point of capacity he will never take rank with statesmen of the first class. He never possessed the impressive, marked individuality of Brougham; he could not pretend to rival the administrative talent of Peel. In later life he was found wanting in the versatile flexibility of Palmerston, and during his last ministry was completely outshone by the brilliancy of Mr. Gladstone's powers. It is, again, an undoubted fact that Lord Russell has committed "gross blunders." He blundered in not committing himself to the principle of free-trade; he blundered (though he does not yet see the blunder) when he wrote the Durham letter about the titles of the Catholic bishops; he blundered, as he frankly admits, in his dealings with Lord Palmerston in 1852. His whole connection with the Aberdeen Ministry was, as he himself avows, a mistake. He showed little sagacity when, on the eve of great changes, he recommended the public to "rest and be thankful"; and the greatest of his blunders—the failure to seize the *Alabama*—cost his countrymen some millions of money and no small amount of diplomatic trouble. Add to all this, that Lord Russell has from his youth upwards labored in the service of the people, yet has never been popular. His reward has been, as he himself feels, the esteem of the best men of his "connection"; but though he has gained the respect he has never gained the affection of the nation. How comes it, then, that a man not of first-rate talents, not a great administrator, not a very sagacious politician, not one endowed with the gifts which captivate popular favor, has nevertheless played a leading part for half a century in English public life? The question is a curious one, and the answer to it throws some light on the character both of English politics and of Lord Russell.

The most obvious cause of Lord Russell's success has been the strength of his "connection." Even now, at a time of what is called "democratic progress," the Liberal party choose as their leader a man who, as far as the public knows, has no one quality for leadership except that he is the representative of the Cavendishes. If this is the course adopted by a meeting presided over by John Bright, it is easy to estimate the importance of "connection" at a time when Birmingham had no members and no Quaker had ever sat in Parliament. In 1813, a Whig magnate who thought fit to take up popular principles was felt to perform an act of condescending patriotism, and this feeling was not unnatural at a period when to be a Whig was to sacrifice all chance of ever becoming a minister. This was the time when Lord Russell entered politics, and he was exactly the man for his day. From the very first he took up the attitude which he has occupied throughout his life. One of his earliest utterances was delivered at a dinner to commemorate the birthday of Mr. Fox. In reply to the toast, "The houses of Russell and Cavendish, and may they be ever united in the cause of freedom," "It is a satisfaction to me to reflect," he said, "that your favor is obtained not by the *accidental qualities of talents and power*, but by a steady adherence to those principles which animated Mr. Fox through life, and holding it on that tenure I trust it will never be forfeited." The words we have underlined are remarkable, especially in a young man of twenty-one. He bases his claim to favor not on talent, which he regards as an "accidental quality," but on strict adherence to the Whig tradition, which is, in his mind, the essential qualification for a statesman. Thus, at the opening of his public life, Lord Russell bound himself to his connection, and the party rewarded his devotion by their fidelity; what, however, must be remarked is that this policy was perfectly honest and natural on his part. He clung to the Whig party because he believed in Whig principles, and was by character, quite as much as by connection, a Whig to the core. Belief in Mr. Fox, belief in the Revolution of 1688, belief in civil and religious liberty, belief in Whig statesmen, and, above all, belief in himself, are so closely blended in Lord Russell's mind that, though they may be distinguished, they cannot be separated. Nor should it be imagined that this strict faith in a particular political creed (and we must add one of the best political creeds which the world has known) shows a want of intelligence or independence. Lord Russell has no doubt preserved tenaciously the sentiments of his youth; but the views which are now received by every sensible Englishman were, when he learnt them, startling paradoxes, rejected by almost every statesman of respectability and weight. Lord Russell was, moreover, prepared to think for himself; and at a time when most of his associates were opposed to the war with France, gave all his sympathies to the national struggle with Napoleon.

But neither the support of a powerful connection, nor even the capacity for seizing and adhering to a definite body of political principles, would of themselves account for Lord Russell's political success. He has always possessed two qualities which, if they do not constitute a great man, yet go far to raise a man of average talent above the level of his associates. These are boldness and honesty. Lord Russell has been assailed with as

* 'Recollections and Suggestions, 1813–1873. By John Earl Russell.' London: Longmans; Boston: Roberts Bros.

much abuse as most men, but no one ever ventured to question his courage. Sydney Smith's remark that his lordship would be prepared to take command of the Channel Fleet at a moment's notice, loses nothing of its point when it is discovered to have originated in a joke of Lord Russell's own; and though the *mot* may have been prompted by spleen, it has been remembered because all the world felt that it hit off the salient trait of Lord Russell's character. His natural intrepidity comes out oddly enough in his last work. He writes quite naturally with reference to the resignation of the Reform Ministry in 1832: "This was the only time during my whole political life in which I have felt uneasy as to the result." Let any one reflect for a moment on all that this sentence implies. Here is a man who has been at the head of affairs for years; who has conducted the English nation through more than one crisis; who, knowing himself to be liable to commit "gross blunders," has been compelled to make the most momentous decisions; yet, reflecting calmly on the events of his career, he can remember but one moment at which he felt uneasy, and that was a moment when England appeared on the verge of a revolution. The statesman who has never but once "felt uneasy" as to the result of his action certainly possesses one at least of the qualities which fit a man to be a leader of men. Nor is this fearlessness in any way affected. The writer who in his old age provokes Mr. Lowe to literary combat, and criticises the policy of Mr. Gladstone in a tone of severe censure which might certainly call forth a bitter rejoinder from a not very patient controversialist, cannot at any rate be called timid. This absence of fear is, moreover, closely allied with the honesty which after all constitutes the strength of Lord Russell's character. It costs little for an ex-minister to acknowledge that he has committed errors; but when Lord Russell says, in so many words, that he and he alone was responsible for the escape of the *Alabama*, and that he sees clearly his mistake in not having arrested the ship, even those who most regret his error cannot help feeling a respect for the manly honesty of his character.

In analyzing the causes which enabled Lord Russell to take a leading part in English politics, it is impossible not to separate his position and his character, but, in matter of fact, the two are hardly separable. There is much to be said against party connection and party tradition, but they have their good side. A minister who relies on the favor and friendship of the best men of his connection feels that he has firmer ground on which to rest for support than can be afforded by the uncertain and transitory good-will of the people. He may very likely be narrow, haughty, unsympathetic, but he is not likely to be wanting either in firmness or boldness. Dependence, again, upon the good-will of a connection is, if the connection be anything better than a gang of adventurers, certain to produce adherence to fixed principles or, at lowest, fixed prejudices. It is impossible to conciliate the respect of friends, and yet day by day change one's principles to suit the convenience of the moment. The influence of a party may to some characters be a source of vigor and an aid in adhering to fixed principles, and that the Whig connection has fostered all Lord Russell's virtues will, we think, become apparent to any one who reads with intelligence the wordy and diffuse but not uninteresting autobiography which he has placed before the world in the form of recollections and suggestions. No doubt the party bonds which, so to speak, sustained his character, have also been fetters by which its development may have been checked. His nature and connections have made him a most patriotic Whig, but he has never, like some few English statesmen, been able to convince the country that he could forget his party and think only of the nation. This defect has not arisen from any want of patriotism, but from the simple fact that, rightly or wrongly, Whig principles and patriotism have always seemed to Lord Russell to be one and the same thing. Nothing sets his character in a clearer light than a comparison of him with his great opponent. Peel, though educated a Tory, and the founder of the English Conservative party, was in character, as we pointed out the other day, a middle-class statesman imbued with the spirit of modern politics. His greatest act was to break with his party, and he thereby became the statesman of the nation. Lord Russell passed his youth fighting an up-hill fight in favor of popular principles, and owes his fame to having, at the age of forty, carried through what seemed at the time a measure of revolutionary reform. But Lord Russell, though he broke down by his measures a great system of aristocratic government, has remained to the end of his life an aristocratic statesman. In spirit and in tone of mind he belongs to the past generation. The reward of his patriotic services has been the friendship and esteem of the "best men" of his "connection." For this he looked and this he has obtained, but the very fact that he has never ceased to be the statesman of a party has prevented him from becoming a national minister. Yet even this want of widespread popularity need not be entirely the subject of regret either for him or for his admirers. He and his party have shared the same fate. They labored for the right of the people when to serve the people was to incur unpopularity. When the popular power had increased, they disdained to captivate popular applause, and in carrying such measures as the new Poor Law, conferred an immense benefit on the nation whilst incurring an amount of odium which few modern statesmen would have the courage to meet. Lord Russell and his associates have already gained their reward in the esteem of the wisest and best of their contemporaries, and rational and generous liberals on both sides the Atlantic will in the long run easily forgive the errors of statesmen who certainly have at heart the cause of human freedom as well as the good of their country.

## TAINE'S NOTES ON PARIS.*

THIS is a very clever work, but it is by no means one of the author's most successful. Indeed, though a brilliant failure, no one, we believe, has ever pretended that it was anything but a failure. The author has tried a *tour de force*, and missed his effect. He has attempted to force his talent, but his talent has resisted and proved fatally inflexible. He has wished to be light and graceful, but he has succeeded only in being most elaborately and magnificently grave. For M. Taine to attempt lightness was, it seems to us, a most ill-advised undertaking. It is true that he has been charged, as the historian of English literature, with a certain presumptuous levity of judgment; but in form, at least, he is always solid, weighty, and majestic. There are few writers whom, as simple writers, we prefer; his style is full of color and muscle and savor; but we never suppose ourselves, in reading it, to be dabbling in light literature, and we rarely take it but in moderate quantities at a sitting. If M. Taine treats a subject at all, he bears heavily; the touch-and-go manner is a closed book to him. Here he has tried the touch-and-go manner, and the effect is very much like hearing a man with a deep bass voice trying to sing an air written for a thin tenor. There is such a thing as being too serious to succeed in a *jeu d'esprit*, and this has been M. Taine's trouble. A writer of half the value would have done much better with the same material, and, indeed, we remember that at the same time that M. Taine's work appeared, eight years ago, and was voted by all good critics a rather melancholy mistake, M. Gustave Droz was making his literary fortune with 'Monsieur, Madame et Bébé,' being acknowledged to have hit the nail on the head with his little silver hammer far more justly than the historian of English literature with his formidable battering-ram. Yet one reads the book, as a failure if not as success, and, all abatements made, we feel ourselves to be dealing with a man of extraordinary talent. It is very possible that it may have even more readers in English than in French, and to the American public seem decidedly entertaining. We apparently are capable of consuming an inordinate quantity of information, veracious or the reverse, about Paris, and the present volume is sufficiently free-spoken as to those social mysteries which are deemed typically Parisian. Many readers will take much satisfaction in reading in English what could not possibly with decency have originally been written in English. M. Taine is not easy to translate; but, well translated, he need be but a trifle less effective than in his own tongue. He loses very much less in a foreign version than his great fellow-critic Sainte-Beuve; for his chief characteristics are not subtlety and fugitive, idiomatic grace, but vigor and amplitude and a certain imaginative splendor, such as the English language is peculiarly qualified to render. To translate Taine, indeed, is in a measure to make him restore what he has borrowed, for there is a large English element in his style. The present translation has been very cleverly done, and the right word often found where some taste was required to select it.

Exactly what M. Taine desired to do we hardly know; what he has done is to produce a singular compound of Stendhal and Théophile Gautier. Stendhal, as all readers of our author know, is the divinity of whom M. Taine is the prophet. Stendhal invented a method of observation which, in M. Taine's opinion, renewed the whole science of literary and social criticism. This method M. Taine has constantly applied—first to authors and books, then to works of art, and at last, in this case, to men and women, to a society. It was in this last fashion that Stendhal himself chiefly used his method; he was not a literary critic, he was a practical psychologist; he lived most of his life in Italy, and his work was the study and description of human nature in Milan, Florence, and Rome. He accumulated facts and anecdotes; he judged that there were none too trivial to serve as a stroke in the portrait; and he has left a storehouse of good, bad, and indifferent ones. M. Taine has proposed to do for Paris what Stendhal did for

* 'Notes on Paris. The Life and Opinions of M. Frederic-Thomas Graindorge, etc. By H. A. Taine. Translated by John Austin Stevens.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1875.

Milan; but he has come fifty years later, and he is consequently much more complex and needs a great deal more machinery. He is picturesque, for instance, both by necessity and by taste, which Stendhal was not at all, in intention; his book overflows with the description of material objects—of face and hair, shoulders and arms, jewels, dresses, and furniture—and it is evident in all this description that, although M. Taine is a man of too individual a temperament to be an imitator, he has read Théophile Gautier, the master in this line, with great relish and profit. He is shooting in Gautier's premises, and when he brings down a bird we cannot help regarding it as Gautier's property.

M. Taine has endeavored to imagine a perfect observer, and he has given this gentleman's personality as a setting to his own extremely characteristic lucubrations. His observer is M. Frederic-Thomas Graindorge, a Frenchman, a bachelor, a man of fifty, who has made a fortune by hog-packing in Cincinnati, and returns to Paris in the afternoon of his days to take his ease, see the polite world in epitome, and systematize a little his store of observations. He has gone through the mill and been ground very fine; he was at school at Eton, as a boy; he was afterwards at the University of Jena; he has passed twenty years in our own great West, where his adventures have been of the most remarkable description. In his local color, as to this phase of his hero's antecedents, M. Taine is very much at fault; and this is the greater pity, as he has never failed to profess that one should speak only of that which one directly and personally knows. He knows the manners and customs of our Western States in a very roundabout and theoretical fashion; he seems to be under the impression, for instance, that the picturesque art of hog-packing (up to the time of our late war) was carried on in Cincinnati by slave-labor. "I desire only to listen and to look," says M. Graindorge; "I listen and I look; no woman is displeased at being looked at; nor any man at being listened to. Sometimes, as I button up my overcoat, an idea comes to me: I write it down when I go home; hence my notes. You see that this is not a literary matter." It is much more literary than M. Graindorge admits; and his notes have been for M. Taine quite as much an exercise of style as an expression of opinion. He writes admirably; he writes too well; he is simply the very transparent mask of the real author. He is, therefore, as a person, a decidedly ineffective creation, and it was hardly worth while to be at so much labor to construct him. But the point was that M. Taine desired full license to be sceptical and cynical, to prove that he had no prejudices; that he judged things not sentimentally but rationally; that he saw the workings of the *machine humaine* completely *à nu*, and he could do all this under cover of a fictitious M. Graindorge more gracefully than in his own person. M Graindorge is the most brutal of materialists, and the more he watches the great Parisian spectacle, the greater folly it seems to him to be otherwise. He finds it all excessively ugly, except in so far as it is redeemed by a certain number of pretty women in beautiful dresses, cut very low. But though it is ugly, it is not depressing; exaltation and depression have nothing to do with it; the thing is to see—to see minutely, closely, with your own eyes, not to be a dupe, to find it very convenient that others are, to treat life and your fellow-mortals as a spectacle, to relish a good dinner, and keep yourself in as luxurious a physical good-humor as possible until the "machine" stops working. That of M. Graindorge ceases to operate in the course of the present volume, and the book closes with a statement of his "intimate" personal habits by his secretary, in lieu of a funeral oration.

*Mendelssohn: Letters and Recollections.* By Dr. Ferdinand Hiller. Translated with the consent and revision of the author. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—These recollections can hardly be called more than agreeable and smooth reading. There is nothing in them that is exciting or very new. Mendelssohn's life was not full of incident, and his character was so simple, so natural, and so pure that it is impossible to imagine anything in the nature of revelations about him from any quarter. Not, indeed, that Dr. Hiller promises revelations; for he does nothing of the sort. But we have been surprised in looking over his book, and going again through the brief story of Mendelssohn's life, to reflect how little striking it was. He was born, he wrote beautiful music, he loved his family, his friends, his wife, he died, and was mourned by them and by all lovers of good music. There is hardly anything in Mendelssohn's life that to a person not musical would not be profoundly uninteresting; and we can easily imagine a person "without an ear" convincing himself by the perusal of Dr. Hiller's book that there was, after all, "nothing in it" beyond an organized conspiracy on the part of half the world to persuade the other half that, of the two, it had the higher and more delicate perceptions—for no other reason than that it could pretend to discover a beauty in what to the unmusical is merely a disorderly succession of sounds. But we would advise all lovers of music and of Mendelssohn to read Dr. Hiller's recollections, as they are those of an intimate friend, whose attachment and interest were founded no less on professional than on general sympathies, who understood Mendelssohn thoroughly, and is therefore well qualified to stand as intermediary between the memory of his friend and the public.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* | |
|---|---|---|
| Baird (Prof. S. F.), Annual Record of Science and Industry for 1874 | (Harper & Bros.) | |
| Baker (G. A., jr.), Point Lace and Diamonds: Poems | (F. B. Patterson) | |
| Berners (Dame J.), Treatyse of Fysshynge | (H. K. Van Sicklen) | $1 50 |
| Calvert (G.), Essays Æsthetical | (Lee & Shepard) | 1 50 |
| Cazelles (Dr. M. E.), Outline of the Evolution Philosophy | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Charles (Mrs. E.), Conquering and to Conquer: a Tale | (Dodd & Mead) | 1 25 |
| Cooke (M. C.), Fungi: Their Nature and Uses | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Cooke (Commander A. P.), Text-book of Naval Ordnance and Gunnery | (John Wiley & Son) | |
| Locke (D. R.), The Morals of Abou Ben Adhem | (Lee & Shepard) | |
| Lockyer (J. N.), Astronomy (Science Primer) | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Papillon (F.), Nature and Life | (D. Appleton & Co.) | |
| Sargent (N.), Public Men and Events, 1817-1853, 2 vols | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Schem (Prof. A. J.), Statistics of the World | (Lee & Shepard) | 0 50 |
| Spangler (Helen K.), The Physician's Wife: a Tale | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) | |
| Smith (R. B.), Mohammed and Mohammedanism | (Harper & Bros.) | |
| Thomas (J.), Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China | (Harper & Bros.) | |
| Workshop, No. 4, swd | (E. Steiger) | 0 50 |
| Westropp (H. M.) Ancient Symbol Worship, 2d ed | (J. W. Bouton) | |


## *Taine's Notes on Paris.*

Notes on Paris. The Life and Opinions of M. Frederic Thomas Graindorge, Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Jena, special partner in the house of Graindorge & Co. (oils and salt pork), Cincinnati, Ohio. Collected and published by H. A. Taine, executor. Translated by John Austin Stevens. Large 12mo (uniform with the recent edition of Taine's 'Italy,' 'England,' etc.), $2 50.

"One of M. Taine's brightest works. . . . The suppositious observations of one M. Thomas Graindorge, . . . who, having amassed a fortune . . . in America, returns to his native France, and jots down with a free pen [and] delicious wit what he sees. This outside view of their city greatly amused the readers of *La Vie Parisienne*."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"Some of the brightest and wittiest sketches of Paris life that have ever been written."—*Boston Globe.*

"There are books which invite and fascinate, just as nuts are said to be fascinating. It is hard to leave off eating walnuts, and having begun such a book as Taine's 'Notes on Paris,' it is difficult not to turn just one more page."—*N. Y. Evening Post.*

## *Walford's Mr. Smith.*

Mr. Smith: A part of his Life. A Novel. By L. B. Walford. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

"The best novel of the spring."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"'Mr. Smith' is by no means an ordinary production. . . . There are satisfactory, even delightful, bits—passages which one reads over and over again, sayings one would be glad to remember, traits of shrewdness and humor which strike one with a pleasant sense of their aptness."—*London Spectator.*

RECENT STANDARD PUBLICATIONS.

Sainte-Beuve's English Portraits. $2.
Maine's Early History of Institutions. $3.
Jones's Africa. $5.
Sumner's American Currency. $3.
Moscheles's Recent Music and Musicians. $2.
Deutsch's Talmud and other Literary Remains. $4.
Conway's Sacred Anthology. $4.
Chesney's Military Biography. $2 50.
Gautier's A Winter in Russia. $2.
Adams's Democracy and Monarchy in France. $2 50.
Mill's Three Essays on Religion. $2 50.

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES OF THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

Price $1 25 each.

Alexander, Mrs.—Ralph Wilton's Weird.
Fraser-Tytler, C. C.—Mistress Judith.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't.
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall It Be?
Alcestis, A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About, E.—The Nose of a Notary.
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

## *Art-work in Silver*

### *The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

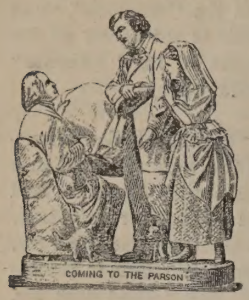
The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.


*THE "READER," page iii, notices Professor Cairnes's recent lectures on Political Economy, 'Cambridge Sermons,' by Rev. Dr. Edward A. Abbott, and 'The Gospel and Modern Life,' by Rev. J. Llewellyn Davies. Messrs. Macmillan's announcements for the week are on the same page.*




*STATUARY*

FOR

*House and Lawn.*

Enclose 10 cents for illustrated catalogue and prints of lawn subjects, to

JOHN ROGERS,

212 FIFTH AVENUE,

NEW YORK.


## *SPECIAL NOTICES.*

TERMS: In advance, four weeks, 10 cents per word; one year, $6 24 per line. Letters forwarded.


*MME. M. DE MALTCHYCE, of Boston, wishes to* take charge of several young ladies, for an educational turn in Europe, during a whole year. For particulars, please apply at her residence, 102 Mt. Vernon Street.

*A YALE GRADUATE desires pupils to fit during* the summer for fall examination. Refers to the College Faculty. Address M., office of the *Nation*.

*A LITERARY GENTLEMAN, late Assistant Editor* of a London Journal, is desirous of a similar appointment in the city or immediate neighborhood. Address ENGLISHMAN, *Nation* Office.

*LUCRATIVE POSITIONS FOR TEACHERS. Apply* for Circulars, WESTERN SCHOOL AGENCY, Box 99, Chicago, Ill.

*DIONÆA MUSCIPULA (Venus Fly-Trap).*—Healthy growing specimens of this and other indigenous insectivorous plants can be had on application to H. TALLICHET, Wilmington, N. C.

*WANTED.—A position in a High School or Academy,* by a Harvard graduate, who has already taught successfully. Enquire of T. W. HIGGINSON, Newport, R. I.

*BOYS AND YOUNG MEN privately fitted for College.* Conditional or rejected candidates coached. Stockbridge, Mass. F. HOFFMAN.

*BOSTON UNIVERSITY.—W. F. Warren, LL.D.,* President.—Co-operating Faculties at ATHENS and ROME:

School of All Sciences—Post-Graduate Department.
School of Theology—Dean, Rev. J. E. Latimer, S.T.D.
School of Law—Dean, Hon. Geo. S. Hillard, LL.D.
School of Medicine—Dean, I. Tisdale Talbot, M.D.
School of Oratory—Dean, Lewis B. Monroe, A.M.
College of Liberal Arts—Dean, Rev. J. W. Lindsay, S.T.D.
College of Music—Dean, E. Tourjee, Mus. Dr.
College of Agriculture—Dean, Wm. S. Clark, Ph.D., LL.D.
Preparatory Academy—Princ., F. D. Blakeslee, A.M.

For information concerning any Department, address the appropriate DEAN, Boston, Mass.—The University Year-Book (pp. 128) will be sent by the Registrar, Dr. D. Patten, on receipt of 25 cts.

*CHANDLER SCIENTIFIC DEPARTMENT of* Dartmouth College. Entrance Examination, June 22 and August 31. Address Prof. E. R. RUGGLES, Hanover, N. H.

*DREW THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, Madison,* N. J. Address the President, JOHN F. HURST, D.D.

*IOWA COLLEGE, Grinnell, Iowa.—For catalogue,* etc., address the President, GEORGE F. MAGOUN, D.D.

*MRS. W. G RYAN'S Boarding-School for Young* Ladies, Batavia, N. Y.

*SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL of Yale College.* Address PROF. G. J. BRUSH, New Haven, Conn.

*SCHOOL OF MINES, Columbia College.—Courses in* Mining and Civil Engineering, Geology, Mineralogy, Chemistry, Assaying, etc., etc. Send for catalogue. C. F. CHANDLER, Dean of Faculty, East Forty-ninth Street, New York.

*ST AGNES SCHOOL, Albany, N. Y., under direction* of Rt. Rev. W. C. Doane. Circulars sent on application.

*SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, for both Sexes, under* the care of Friends. For catalogue address the President, EDWARD H. MAGILL, Swarthmore, Penn.

*WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, Middletown, Conn.* President, Joseph Cummings, D.D., LL.D. For catalogues, etc., address the PRESIDENT.

*WORCESTER FREE INST. of Industrial Science.* Address Prof. C. O. THOMPSON, Worcester, Mass.

*WILLIAMS COLLEGE, Berkshire County, Mass.*—Every facility for thorough College education. $6,000 given annually to aid indigent students. Next examination for entrance, July 5 and 6. For catalogues or additional information apply to the President, P. A. CHADBOURNE. Williamstown, Mass., March, 1875.

*WILLISTON SEMINARY, Easthampton, Mass.* Complete in its equipments for Classical and Scientific study. Apply to M. HENSHAW, Principal.

*YOUNG LADIES' INSTITUTE at Brussels. Tuition* in all branches of education, Modern Languages, and Music by Professors of the University and the Conservatoire. Large house and grounds in a healthy location. For further information apply to MISS E. VENT, 211 Avenue Cortenbergh, Brussels, or Mrs. E. NOEGGERATH, 42 West Thirty-fifth Street, New York.

*GEO. E. WARING, Jr., Consulting Engineer, for* Sanitary and Agricultural Works, Newport, R. I.

*J. WEIDENMANN, Landscape Gardener and Engi-* neer, 110 Broadway, New York.

*A VACATION HOME, Portsmouth, N. H.—Miss A.* C. MORGAN will remain at her Boarding School during the summer, and receive a few young ladies into her family. For full particulars, apply as above.

*A FAMILY OF ADULTS can find board, for the* summer or permanently, in a quiet household, pleasantly placed in a healthful part of Orange, three minutes' walk from a railway station, and conveniently near to many churches. References are to be exchanged. Address B., *Nation* Office.

*LAKE DUNMORE HOUSE, Salisbury, Vt. E. P.* Hitchcock, Proprietor, at No. 1 West Thirty-eighth Street, until May 1.

*THE CLIFF COTTAGES, Newport, R. I.—These* Cottages, eight in number, are located on the Cliffs near the famous beach. They have ample grounds in lawn and flowers, are fully furnished, and are supplied with meals and service from the hotel on the premises. Everything is strictly first-class. For particulars address L. D. DAVIS, Agent.

*TO RENT in Brooklyn—The Three-Story Brick House,* No. 362 Henry Street. All improvements, and in good order. A large house (4 stories in rear), convenient to ferries. Immediate possession and a low rental. Address J. CORNELL, corner Court and Joralemon Streets, Brooklyn.

*TO LET, Unfurnished, for two years, at a low rent,* to a good tenant, the house 10 West Forty-eighth Street, nearly opposite the Reformed Dutch Church. Full width, with dining-room extension; three stories and an attic; in perfect order. Apply to HOMER MORGAN, 2 Pine Street, or at the *Nation* office.

*FOR SALE, at Englewood Cliffs, Palisades-on-the* Hudson, a country residence, with about four acres of ground. This property extends to the bluffs, and includes the first prominent point above the Palisades Mountain House, and within five minutes' walk of it. This point commands one of the finest views on the Hudson River, modern well-built house, 32x46, high ceilings, pleasant rooms, carriage-house, garden, pasture grounds and lawn, with abundance of fine shade-trees. This high plateau of the Palisades has precipitous bluffs, a well-sunned southeastern exposure, and is washed at the base by the salt water without marshy foot-lands. It has for these reasons commenced to attract the attention of wealthy citizens who particularly desire a healthy situation near New York and within sound of her church bells. Its great elevation, overlooking the Sound and almost in view of the ocean, gives a fine combination of sea and mountain air. For maps of the property and further information, apply to LEWIS W. LEEDS, on the premises, or at 110 Broadway.

READY THIS DAY.

## *A Satchel Guide*

FOR THE

VACATION TOURIST IN EUROPE.

Revised to April, 1875. With Maps.

In one volume 16mo, roan, flexible, $2.

This invaluable guide-book, which was first issued in 1872, has quickly taken its place as the most accurate and comprehensive compact guide yet published for American use. It includes the British Isles, Belgium and Holland, Germany and the Rhine, Switzerland, France, Austria, and Italy. It gives the traveller the precise information he requires, and indulges in no waste of words. The maps are excellent.

"We know of no European guide-book which so admirably combines brevity, accuracy, completeness, convenience of shape, and tasteful mechanical execution."—*Independent.*

"It is pleasant to come across a book perfect of its kind."—*Washington Chronicle.*

*** For sale by all booksellers. Sent, post-paid, on receipt of price, by the publishers,

HURD & HOUGHTON, NEW YORK;
H. O. HOUGHTON & CO., BOSTON;
THE RIVERSIDE PRESS, CAMBRIDGE.

SECOND EDITION.

## *HELPS TO PRAYER.*

A manual designed to aid Christian Believers in acquiring the Gifts and in maintaining the Practice of Prayer in the Closet, the Family, the Social Gatherings, and the Public Congregations. By Rev. D. P. Kidder, D.D. 12mo, $1 75; Red-line edition, toned paper, gilt edges, bevelled boards, $3 50.

COMMENTS OF THE PRESS.

"We believe no earnest person can read this volume without gaining great benefit."—*Christian Union.*

"It has been prepared with intelligence, judgment, and care."—*Christian at Work.*

"We commend it to the attention of all."—*St. Louis Christian Advocate.*

"Its spirit is excellent, its tone elevated."—*Morning Star.*

"It must do good among all intelligent, thoughtful, and devout Christians."—*Christian Intelligencer.*

NELSON & PHILLIPS, PUBLISHERS,
805 Broadway, New York.

NOW READY.

## *Home Sketches in France*

BY THE LATE

MRS. HENRY M. FIELD.

With biographical Sketch and Portrait. 12mo, cl. ex., $1 50.

"Mrs. Field was a type of the best that France produces, and the best of France is simply exquisite."—*Boston Commonwealth.*

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,

Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street, New York.

*G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,*

Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street,

Have now ready:

## *The Religion of Humanity.*

BY O. B. FROTHINGHAM.

Third Revised Edition. Square 12mo, cloth extra, $1 50.

The 'Religion of Humanity' is a marked book, a cause of admiration and satisfaction to those who hold with the author, a target for the keenest shafts of those who differ from him. . . . It impresses the thoughtful reader as profoundly sincere, the work of one who has read largely, studied thoroughly, reflected practically. The book is a model of scholarly culture and of vigorous and finished style."—*Boston Globe.*

"Nobody can peruse Mr. Frothingham's book without respect for his learning, for his mental honesty, for his skill in stating his convictions, and for the essential integrity and philanthropic tendency of his spirit."—*Springfield Republican.*

## *Mr. Frothingham's Sermons.*

SECOND SERIES.

Published semi-monthly, price 5 cents each, or by mail, paid, 10 cents. Subscriptions received for the year at $2.

Complete lists of both series mailed on application.

JUST PUBLISHED.

## *A CHILD'S ILLUSTRATED FIRST BOOK IN FRENCH.*

BY PROF. JEAN GUSTAVE KEETELS,

Author of 'An Elementary French Grammar' and 'An Analytical and Practical French Grammar.'

The aim of this book is to make the study of the French language attractive and interesting to children who have no knowledge of the English grammar. The object-lesson plan has been adopted, the volume being fully and handsomely illustrated by engravings especially prepared for the book.

144 pages 12mo, handsomely bound in cloth. Price, $1.
A specimen copy sent to teachers for 50 cents.

PUBLISHED BY

CLARK & MAYNARD,
NEW YORK.

## *The Bible Educator*

Is now complete in 2 vols., clo., $10; in 4 vols., price $3 each.

The work needs no recommendation other than the mere mention of a few of the contributors: The Dean of Canterbury (Payne Smith); The Dean of Chester (Dr. Howson); Rev. F. W. Farrar, B.D. (Marlborough); Rev. Dr. Vaughan (Temple Church); Rev. H D. M. Spence, M.A.; Rev. W. Houghton, M.A., F.L.S. (Preston); Rev. Stanley Leathes, M.A., King's College; Rev. Geo. Rawlinson, M.A.; Major Wilson (Palestine Exploration); W. Caruthers (Botany Department British Museum); Jno. Stainor (Organist St. Paul's Cathedral). Edited by Rev. E. H. Plumptre, M.A.

For prospectuses and information apply to

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN,

596 Broadway, New York. | 83 West Fourth St., Cincinnati, Ohio. | 90 Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 13, 1875.*

## The Week.

FROM the exposure of the whiskey frauds perpetrated in St. Louis and other Western cities, as given by the *Tribune*, it seems that for a number of years a Ring of distillers and rectifiers have, in collusion with an unascertained number of employees of the revenue, been defrauding the Government of about a million a year. There is nothing very surprising about there being plenty of people ready to engage in the illicit manufacture of whiskey, but some of the facts connected with the discovery of the frauds by Mr. Bristow, and his measures to put a stop to them, are indeed remarkable. The existence of the Ring was communicated to him in the first place, not by any member of the force employed by the Government for such purposes, but by a St. Louis editor, and the case in that city was "worked up" by an agent selected by the latter. In Washington, the great point on which everything hinged was that, whatever happened, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue should not suspect that a movement of any kind was on foot, not because he was dishonest, but because the Department was so honeycombed by the Ring that news of any hostile movement undertaken by it was sure to be communicated to the Ring. The arrangements for conveying intelligence were so complete that, even as it was, before the St. Louis agent had received his appointment a man had appeared in Washington and had interviews both with the Secretary and the Commissioner, for the purpose of finding out what was going on. The influence and political power possessed by the Ring were shown by the revocation of an order transferring all supervisors and special agents all over the country to new posts. This order was issued by direction of the President a good while ago, after consultation with the Commissioner and Secretary, they all being agreed that a screw was loose somewhere, and actually revoked by him subsequently—no doubt on representations as to the welfare of the party by "prominent men." All this shows the very complex nature of the obstacles thrown in the way of an honest Secretary of the Treasury, and the wonderful perfection to which the arts of corruption have been carried.

The most gratifying thing about the discovery of these frauds is that it is no mere exposure by unauthorized persons of half-real and half-imaginary facts, but consists in the most complete and overwhelming accumulation of evidence, with names, amounts, and dates. We may say also that it gives us a good deal of satisfaction to reflect that the agent appointed to carry out the work of detection, and who did it with great thoroughness and a skill which internal-revenue officers do not appear as a general thing to possess, was a member of that reckless and abandoned class, the journalists—he being no other than the financial editor of the St. Louis *Democrat;* and that the person who gave the information upon which the Secretary of the Treasury acted was his employer, the editor of that sheet. This can hardly be considered regular journalistic work, but Mr. Bristow was certainly fortunate in having it done. The press of this country has done a great work in the last ten years in arousing the public mind and conscience to a sense of the corruption of the times, and has received a great deal of abuse for doing so. It has pointed out particularly that the civil service was rotten; and so this case and a good many others have proved it to be. The newspapers, however, cannot be expected to undertake, as a regular thing, to collect the revenue for the Government. We shall watch with curiosity and interest to see who will be the next person to advise the President not to mind "what the newspapers say."

Mr. Wheeler, of the Louisiana Committee, who arranged the compromise which goes by his name, has satisfactorily settled all questions as to the good faith of the Conservatives by publishing a letter giving the facts. He says that there was no bad faith shown in unseating the four members after the adoption of the compromise; that the Democrats were right in doing it; and that he received notice from them long ago that it would be done. The facts as he gives them are these: After the expulsion of the Democrats by the troops in January, the Republicans unseated four Democratic members who had received certificates from the Returning Board, and as to whose election there was really no question, putting in four Republicans in their place. The case of these four members did not come within the scope of the Committee's enquiry, and the award did not touch them. Therefore, as soon as the compromise was accepted, these four men were reseated. Mr. Wheeler, whose letter is full of good sense, strongly deprecates the heated accusations brought against the Conservatives by Northern Republicans, and he points out that the great merit of the compromise is that under it, for the first time in years, the State has a government "admitted and recognized by the people." He says that the change for the better which has manifested itself in Louisiana affairs in the last few months is very marked, and that evidences of returning prosperity are to be seen on every side.

When Professor Marsh made his statement before the Board of Indian Commissioners, he must have known that he was disturbing a hornet's nest and might expect a good deal of angry buzzing as well as attempts to sting. He therefore was probably not surprised that even a Congressional delegate from one of the Territories should endeavor to break the force of his testimony by denying the veracity of Red Cloud. But if Professor Marsh was not surprised, it is quite likely that the delegate will be very much astonished when he reads the Professor's cool assertion, in a recently-published letter, that even if "Red Cloud occasionally draws a long bow," nevertheless, "in a question between Red Cloud and the Indian Ring, where both were interested, I should decidedly prefer the testimony of Red Cloud," supposing the testimony to agree with his own observations. The letter also contains additional evidence of the poor quality of the cattle furnished the Indians and of the insufficiency of their food and clothing; and the evidence is backed by the names of several army officers from whom information was received, one of the officers stating that "the poor wretches have been several times this winter on the verge of starvation through the rascality of the Indian Ring. They have been compelled to eat dogs, wolves, and ponies." The Professor attempts no answer to the statement that the agent at the Red Cloud Agency is very kind to the Indians, further than to say that the Indians certainly came near being killed by this kindness, and then adds: "What Indians need is not so much kindness as justice and firmness—qualities which are apparently wanting at the Red Cloud Agency."

The loss of the *Schiller*, last Friday, on the Scilly Islands will probably need a very close investigation before we can say exactly on whose shoulders the blame for so awful a calamity should rest. The captain has gone down with his ship, and is universally admitted to have behaved with all the bravery and coolness possible after the vessel struck; whether there was any negligence in not keeping a proper watch for the fog-bell, which, according to the telegrams, was "not heard," is another question, as is also how the vessel came, in bad weather and with the sea rising, to be close upon some of the worst and at the same time best-known reefs on the English coast. When we remember that an accident of exactly the same kind occurred on this side of the water not very long ago, and also that there is one line of steamers on which, for some reason

or other, no loss of life ever occurs, we are forced to the conclusion that there is a great deal of the grossest kind of negligence and incapacity in the management of a business which is by no means necessarily less safe than that of transporting passengers by land. The only valuable suggestion of a practical remedy has been made by the *Tribune*—we mean that of holding the steamship companies pecuniarily responsible for every passenger they lose or injure by negligence. The statutes which have been passed on this subject with regard to railroads have had a most beneficial effect, and we can see no reason why they should not have an equally good effect on ocean companies. Criminal statutes would be of very little use, because in any bad accident some of the most important witnesses are apt to be lost with the others, and, besides this, the punishment of the officers is not felt by the company. The pocket is the centre of the nervous system of a company, and if every one of these accidents entailed a heavy loss on the owners, we should hear of fewer cases.

---

For the press the week has been, on the whole, an unusually happy one. No editor has been subpœnaed to Washington that he might be tried there for libel, nor has any bench-warrant issued out of the Supreme Court; while the retirement of Mr. Williams from the Attorney-General's office and the appearance on the scene of Mr. Pierrepont make it pretty certain that less time will be devoted by the courts to the protection of the character of Mr. Shepherd in the future. Besides this, the verdict in the case of Phelps against Bowles will no doubt do a great deal to open the eyes of people—if there are any such left—who believe that all would be well if only the "floodgates of calumny," as Mr. Williams calls them, could be closed. The torrent of calumny kept flowing by Mr. Bowles, of the Springfield *Republican*, was turned by him some time since in the direction of Mr. Willis Phelps, a railroad contractor, active in Springfield politics. The *Republican* recklessly and injuriously declared that Mr. Phelps was corrupting the politics of the city, tampering with the purity of elections, carrying them indeed by aid of ballot-stuffers or repeaters; that he, being a rich man, was using his money to get money fraudulently out of the public; and that, in short, Mr. Phelps was the "Boss Tweed of Springfield." This was too much for human endurance, and so Mr. Phelps avowed his determination to put a stop to the thing at once, and brought an action against Mr. Bowles for $200,000. The case was not tried by a jury, but by a judge of the Supreme Court who has the reputation, we believe, of being extremely able. Before him Mr. Bowles went, refused to pay anything, and, to the amazement and chagrin of Mr. Phelps, substantially proved all the charges he had made. The court, considering that on one of the charges Mr. Phelps was entitled to a verdict, gave him a hundred dollars. The result of this suit ought to be an awful warning to all persons of shaky reputation who think of suing newspapers. If any one contemplates proceedings of this kind and is in doubt whether his reputation is or is not shaky, we should advise him in all cases to settle the doubt in his own favor by not bringing the suit; the chances are that there will probably be not enough of his reputation left at the end of the trial to be worth having.

---

The outflow of specie is now at full tide, the exports during the past week having amounted to $3,670,352, making the total since January 1 $26,620,327—the largest amount on record. The nearest approach to this total was in 1871, when the figures were $25,143,055, and in 1868, when they were $25,803,848. Last year we had, up to this time in the year, sent out only $13,229,608, and in 1873 $18,238,097. The chief cause of this heavy drain is the calling in by the Treasury of so many five-twenty bonds. If the European holders of these bonds were taking, in equal amount, the new Fives, or, for that matter, any other kind of American securities, of course there would be no necessity for sending gold to Europe to pay for them. Unless there is a renewed demand in Europe for our securities, an unusually heavy drain of specie from us during the summer is inevitable. The fear of a war in Europe has within the past week shown itself in the foreign money markets, and there is less reason than a week ago to expect that we shall be able to negotiate many securities in Europe this summer. During this month there are subscriptions to American loans falling due in London to the amount of only £280,000; last year the May subscription payments on the same account were £1,753,750. Naturally, therefore, there is little foreign exchange offering in this market, except such as is made against the export of coin. The New York banks now hold about $10,100,000 specie, and of this they gained $580,000 during the week—the Treasury, in addition to its heavy disbursements, having sold $1,500,000 on Thursday. Last year the banks held $27,300,000 specie. In legal-tender notes, however, the banks are exceptionally strong; they now hold $58,000,000, which is more than they have reported since last November, and is about $1,500,000 more than they held last May. These facts point to a low and easy money market during the summer, and to a possibly stringent money market next autumn, when the legal-tender notes will be wanted in the interior, and the bank reserves will be dependent on whatever specie the banks have. General trade during the week has been dull. In Wall Street, general speculation has been quiet, with the exception of an active bear movement in Erie. For all classes of investments there is a continued strong demand, owing mainly to the difficulty experienced in employing money profitably outside of securities. The New York banks have during the week taken about $5,000,000 of the city revenue bonds. These bonds are issued by the Comptroller to anticipate the collection of taxes already levied; they will be paid off in the late autumn, and bear five per cent. interest.

---

The Legislative Committee on the Canals has made its first report, and the Removal Bill has been defeated. The report has attracted very little attention, chiefly because the Governor's Commission is the only committee to which the public really looks for information on the subject, and also because the popular interest which was excited by the exposure is wearing out, and most people think they already are possessed of sufficient information as to the canals to be able to converse intelligently about "unbalanced bids," "slope" and "vertical" walls, to have an opinion upon the merits of Mr. Tilden as a Presidential candidate, and so on. We are sorry that this should be so; for the decline of popular interest deprives the Governor of a good deal of moral support, which he needs so much, and strengthens "Jarv." Lord and his fellows in their belief that, if only they can get time enough, they will carry the day and keep possession of the contracts they plunder the State with. Still, it is an inevitable phase of any reform movement; and popular excitement on the subject even of gigantic frauds cannot be expected to be of any great permanence. What we do expect, however, and what it is essential that we should have sooner or later, is some power to deal with the canals lodged in responsible hands not elected to office nor owing their appointment to any such misty body as the "people," or else the State should cut loose from the canals altogether, and dispose of them. This cannot be done, we suppose, without a constitutional amendment, and meanwhile we must have the canals at any rate taken away from the reach of the legislature, on the members of which they seem to have almost as bad an effect as the jingling of money has on a pickpocket.

---

Mr. Bowen took the stand last week in the Beecher trial as one of the plaintiff's witnesses in rebuttal, and would have made the mark we predicted for him in that rôle if more latitude had been allowed him or if his memory had served him better on the cross-examination. He contradicted Mr. Beecher in several important particulars—so important that, if his word had commonly the weight of Scripture, the defendant's case would have been irreparably damaged, at least in the opinion of the public. What his reputation is was indicated by Mr. Evarts's manner toward him, which was unusually harsh, and almost as if inspired by personal experi-

ence of Mr. Bowen's character. The point on which we had hoped the latter would shed some light was the true nature of the Tripartite Covenant; but his assertion that it had nothing to do with the arbitration of Tilton's money-claims against him is opposed both to the previous testimony and to the probabilities of the case. On the whole, his evidence could not be called ingenuous, though this might not have been apparent to the jury. His kind of moral obliquity exacts considerable study from those who encounter it for the first time; and we can never admire sufficiently the sympathetic appreciation of it shown by Mr. Samuel Wilkeson in framing Bowen's affirmation in the Covenant. It was so like this good man's own composition, it so anticipated the disingenuous defence of himself to which he would naturally resort when cornered, that it must have made him almost blush to read it fresh from Mr. Wilkeson's hand. That Mr. Beecher could, without blushing, put his name to the same paper has always seemed to us one of the least excusable of his acts in all this unmanly business.

---

A great deal has been said in the Kenealy debates on the subject of the "Prittlewell" petition—a petition in aid of Dr. Kenealy's attack on "caste," which came from a place called Prittlewell, with fourteen hundred signatures. This seemed to prove a tremendous excitement on behalf of the Claimant in Prittlewell, as did also the existence of a "Magna Charta Association," interested in the same cause and having its headquarters in Prittlewell; for it is a small place, and not much accustomed to getting excited about anything. To discover the exact extent of the popular feeling on the subject, a correspondent of the *Daily News* made a tour of inspection, and found, as he informs that paper, no traces of any sentiment whatever:

"The water-carrier who sells water from the old priory well at a farthing a pailful was going about with his old cask drawn by two long-tailed donkeys just as usual. The smith was at work in his smithy behind the old walnut-tree; the Primitive Methodists' preaching-room was being scrubbed out in a leisurely way; and at the door of the 'Peculiar People's Chapel' there was an old man consoling himself for an unmistakable touch of the east about the wind by enjoying the sunshine in a sheltered corner. But where were the banners and flags? Where were the committee-rooms? What had become of the Prittlewell Magna Charta Association—if such an institution ever existed?"

Not even in the public-houses could this correspondent discover anybody who knew or cared anything about Dr. Kenealy or the Claimant, except that if any one wanted information on that head he must "go and ask Mr. Howard." This Mr. Howard turned out to be a small grocer, who had "organized" the Prittlewell petition himself, got the signatures, and without committees or societies or associations of any kind had been fighting, in his own proper person—with the assistance of fourteen hundred obliging persons who gave him "the use of their names," apparently merely because he asked them to—the entire aristocracy of Great Britain. This seems to show that petitions for a redress of grievances may be got up in England much as they can be here.

---

An extraordinary balloon ascension recently made in France has attracted, both there and in England, a good deal of notice. The French Aeronautical Society appears to have organized it, and three aeronauts were found ready to risk their lives in an attempt to go up as high as possible, with somewhat vague scientific objects in view, or, at any rate, with a somewhat vague notion of how far scientific studies could be carried on during an aerial voyage at a distance of two or three miles from the earth. One of them, on starting, observed that he of the three who should return would be a fortunate man—and this gloomy anticipation was fulfilled to the letter, one only of the three returning to the earth alive. Few precautions seem to have been taken by the balloonists as to their physical condition, one of them having had little or no sleep for three nights, and another having taken only a cup of coffee before starting. At four o'clock in the afternoon the balloon came down, bringing with it two corpses and one man half alive to tell the story of the expedition. The balloon had gone up very high—several miles—into regions of the atmosphere in which breathing was an impossibility, and, the artificial means provided not proving sufficient for the purpose, the men died. The scientific results do not appear to amount to anything more than what we knew before—that if the air is rarefied enough, human life cannot be supported by it. We must mention also that some of the inhabitants of the village of Courmenin, who had no connection with the balloon and no interest in the scientific results, came very near being killed by the falling through the air of "an iron instrument of circular form," which was nothing else than the *aspirateur* of the aeronauts, thrown out as ballast. What is commonly used as ballast by balloonists we do not know, but in a crisis anything may be, and it is not at all pleasant to think that the ordinary dangers of life on land and sea are likely to be increased, should ballooning become general, by the chance of being suddenly killed or maimed for life by *aspirateurs*, spectroscopes, empty boxes, stones, or other kinds of ballast thrown out by balloonists in difficulties. At common law, rolling a stone off the top of a house into a crowd, and thereby causing the death of some one, would be murder in the first degree; but the legal responsibility created by dropping an *aspirateur* on the head of some inoffensive person from an altitude of eight thousand metres, has, we believe, never been settled. To complete the account of the ascent of the Zenith, it is only necessary to add that the occasion of the death of the two unfortunate men (who happened to be Republicans) was improved for political purposes, one of the orators at the funeral dwelling upon their courage and self-sacrifice as a renewed proof of the qualities possessed by members of that party.

---

There is no doubt that the Pope is infallible, but that he is not invariable has for some years been amusingly manifest. He has a weak side for Italy, and never curses her quite so heartily as he does the rest of the civilized world; and every little while he startles his stiff-necked adherents with moderate and benignant expressions which show the artificial nature of the Vatican thunder. The profane, it is said, would oftener see this phase of him if accurate reporting were in favor with the Curia; and the very fact that his most recent utterance has been permitted to go out as it stands, is regarded as a stroke of policy on the part of the more prudent managers. The occasion of it was an address by Prince Windischgrätz on the 12th of April. The Pope in reply spoke in his usual fashion, though more in sorrow than in anger, of the evil times upon which the Church had fallen, and of the duty of proclaiming to those in high places the divine retribution which was sure to overtake her oppressors. Then, by way of example, as he said, he addressed himself directly to the King of Italy, reminding him that there had been saints in his royal family, and exhorting him "with a father's affection" to consult his own interest by refusing to validate any further legislation injurious to the Church. He called the King's attention to certain features in the new penal code and in the military levy affecting priests, which tended to the Church's destruction, and concluded by begging him not to get deeper into debt with the Almighty. In the same deprecatory and imploring strain, he besought other rulers to pause in their downward course, and regretted that he had not, although the Vicar of Christ, the persuasiveness of Tertullian and other early apologists of the Catholic religion, who had practically solved the question of civil allegiance while maintaining their faith before pagan and idolatrous sovereigns, and diminishing persecution. If Christian princes would not likewise listen to him, he could only remind them of the plagues of Egypt. Such was the substance of a discourse which inveterate Ultramontanes are so far from thinking inspired that they have begun to ask themselves whether paternal feelings toward one's jailer do not furnish an argument for a non-Italian Pope as successor to Pius IX. It is, in fact, a curious paradox that to a nation as far off as Germany the Pope appears the most formidable of enemies, while at home he is wholly unfeared and mostly disregarded; and, on the other hand, that in his eyes the Emperor of Germany is one of the beasts of the Apocalypse, while the sovereign who keeps him in what he is pleased to call captivity seems not past saving, and decidedly worth a kind word or two now and then.

## THE CONTRACT SYSTEM IN PUBLIC WORKS.

TWO American gentlemen recently in London had their attention drawn to the new sewers of that city. The one, well versed in mechanical matters, was charmed with the masonry and construction, which he thought superior to anything he had ever seen of the kind. The other, who had been combating for some years what are popularly known as "jobs" and "rings," was still more charmed by finding that the construction had cost a trifle less than would have been paid for such work by private persons. During the last year, any one who has chanced to visit Washington has probably noticed in front of the Arlington Hotel a superb piece of asphalt pavement, apparently new, and at either end of it on the adjoining streets some more asphalt pavement, not superb and apparently old. If he made enquiries as to these, he was doubtless surprised on learning that that which appeared to be new is comparatively old, having been laid in the spring of 1870, while the other, which has been repaired and patched, is really new, having been down only about half the time. If the traveller prosecuted his enquiries further, he may have been astonished at learning that the worn-out pavement was petitioned for by the adjoining property-holders on account of the excellence of the former, and that the contractors who laid down the latter agreed that the worthless article should be in all respects as good as the other. But it will be a sufficient explanation for every rational American to be told that the good pavement was laid down by Mr. Corcoran, Governor Morgan, and a few other gentlemen, owning contiguous property, at their own cost and through their own contractors, and that the bad pavement was laid down by the public authorities in Washington at the public's expense, through the "Ring's" contractors.

It is this element of fraud in our public works which is creating considerable alarm and causing unknown loss. There is one class of public works where the fraud can be measured by the price, and where the loss consists almost entirely in paying more for the thing than it is worth—that is, paying more for it than an individual would pay if he had dealt with the contractor. Public buildings are generally of this character. The lumber may be badly seasoned, the brick of inferior quality, the glass defective, the ornamental work unsightly—everything charged for as first-rate may be in fact second-rate, and yet the edifice will keep the rain out and house its official occupants. Good citizens will be mortified at its poor condition, and good taste will be offended at its tawdry or shabby appearance, and still it will stand without requiring any serious outlay until, in the progress of events, we pull it down to make way for a larger or more sightly structure. But with another class of public works the conditions are different. Roads and streets and canals we begin to destroy the moment we begin to use them. To travel upon a roadway is literally to hammer it to pieces, and its durability means nothing less than its power of resistance. The excellence of such work depends almost wholly upon the honesty of its construction. Appearances when the contractor turns it over as completed mean nothing. The Washington contractors turned out a piece of work ostensibly of the same material and looking precisely like the pattern, and yet as nearly worthless as a pavement constructed of such materials could be. The price paid for the article which they agreed to furnish may not have been exorbitant, but the article which they did furnish may be little more than valueless. Hence it may be laid down as a rule, which few persons will question, that in roads, streets, and canals the public had better be cheated in the cost than in the construction.

With regard to the streets of large towns, it seems as if some effective reform must soon be forced upon city communities. Considering the heavy cost to property-holders, the inconvenience and injury to business during periods of rebuilding and repairing, the detriment to travel while they are in bad order, and the immense power which our present system places in the hands of professional politicians, it may be a question worth considering whether we cannot arrive at a system which shall take the construction out of the hands of the local authorities and place it under the supervision of the men who pay for it. In some towns, as Philadelphia, every man is allowed to do his own paving. But this is a want of system rather than a system, and the result is that the pavements are of the poorest, and that there is an unsightly patchwork of different kinds, one man laying cobble-stones in front of his house to the centre of the street, and his opposite neighbor putting down Belgian. Good roadways in town or country are essential to civilization, and the loss occasioned by bad ones is a loss which cannot readily be computed. It is indispensable to anything worthy of being termed a system that there be some directing intelligence to secure unity and a desirable result. The authorities of a town must determine the grade of the street, the width of the sidewalks and carriage-way, the depth of the gutters, and the general style and character of the pavement. It is also indispensable that there be some legal obligation imposed upon the property-holders. In small communities there may be enough of public spirit to secure the voluntary contribution of every one. But in large communities this cannot be reckoned upon, and the system which puts the work of construction into the hands of the property-holders must also carry with it the legal power of enforcing payment from each. The first step in such a system would be to divide a street into small sections, say of city blocks, and then to give the property-holders in each section the privilege, for it could not be obligatory, of selecting the contractor, fixing the price, and supervising the work, if a majority of them were so inclined. As it now is, the property-holders are responsible for the work—*i.e.*, when it falls to pieces they must pay for a new pavement, though they have not the privilege of employing the builder nor of supervising the construction. But, under a system which would enable them to contract and to supervise as well as to pay, we might expect that every one would be a very effective supervising agent, and that every contract would be as faithfully carried out as though the contractor were dealing with A., B., and C. individually. If, for illustration, our authorities should determine that Fifth Avenue should now be repaved with an asphalt pavement, the owners between Thirty-fourth and Thirty-fifth Streets might readily meet and determine whether they would do it themselves or allow the city to do it for them. If they chose the former course, and appointed as chairman of their construction committee Mr. A. T. Stewart, would not a block of pavement speedily appear on Fifth Avenue better than New York has ever seen, and would not its prime cost compare favorably with the "poultice pavement," which crumbled and dissolved almost as rapidly as it could be built?

But the general evil remains to be dealt with, and it is that the contract system has grown up to be an immense system of skilful and complex fraud. The ability and ingenuity developed in it excite surprise, just as the chemical and mechanical resources of counterfeiters awaken astonishment. People ask each other by what perversity of things it is that such talents and industry are spent in a criminal pursuit, and they are beginning to ask the same question with regard to a public contractor. The "contract system" came into fashion in this country about the time that our civil-service was falling to pieces. It was a specific designed to do away with the evil termed paternal government, and to furnish a sure remedy for getting on economically with dishonest and incompetent public officers. Now, paternal government is really a government undertaking to do things which can be accomplished by individual enterprise, and it makes very little difference whether the work be done by this agency or by that—by public officers or through the intervention of contractors, so long as it is the Government which is planning and paying. Contractors are generally men "inside politics," and there are no politicians in office more zealous and effective in caucuses and elections than public contractors. The Board of Public Works in Washington carried out all of its ambitious designs through contractors, and the contractors brought in thousands of country field-hands, and managed the political as well as the mechanical details of the city. The contract system, which has been enjoined upon us by statutes and constitutions, was really an effort to escape from danger by the simple process of running away from it. It was

perceptible to every one that if the civil-service, State and national, was to be handed over to every incompetent man who chanced to be a successful politician, public works could not be carried on directly by the Government. Erroneously it was thought that we could order our public officers to make bargains, and circumscribe them with impassable bounds; that we could secure cheapness by inviting competition; that our officials would have nothing to do with contractors, and our contractors nothing to do with politics; and generally, that we could have a paternal government in grand results, and a limited government in simplicity and integrity.

The "contract system," like everything else, has its proper uses, and, like everything else, when carried out of its limited sphere becomes a worthless or mischievous agency. How men ever could have supposed that the public officer who was not honest enough to carry on a public work, would be honest enough to enforce the rigid performance of a public contract, we do not undertake to explain. Neither can we tell for what reason it was hoped that the ignorant and incapable place-holder would suddenly become sagacious and circumspect enough to perform that most delicate task of making a discreet and effective contract. Every man who has ever built a house by contract knows how difficult it is to embrace everything and guard against everything, and how much really depends upon the honesty and business character of his contractor. Furthermore, the contract system, carried beyond its proper bounds, makes dishonesty easy; for it reduces stealing from a crime to a fraud. It lessens at the same time the chances of detection; for there is nothing so difficult to establish legally as fraudulent collusion. Half of the officials who have colluded with contractors in defrauding the State out of thousands would have shrunk from embezzling hundreds. The system as we have abused it is really one of the many nostrums of the world for making something out of nothing—for accomplishing a magnificent result without giving the inevitable consideration of honest, hard work. It has caused us ruinous outlays of money beyond any other system that was ever devised; it has produced, at its best, miserable results, and it has extended and intensified the interference of Government with the political concerns of the people to an almost despotic degree. After thirty years of trial it brings us around the circle to the starting-point, which may be briefly defined in these three conclusions: 1st, That whenever a government sees fit to carry its labors into the field of individual enterprise, it must expect to lose in money and to lose in morals, and it must understand that no instrumentality can ever be devised which will shield it from these losses. 2d, That everything in the way of public works which can be remitted to the vigilant supervision of individual citizens, disinterested, or interested only in its thorough performance, is just so much evil subtracted from the Government, and is tolerably certain of being well and cheaply done. 3d, That, as to those public works which must necessarily be done by the Government, an intelligent and respectable civil service is just as conditional to success as honest and capable agents are conditional to success in any ordinary undertaking; and that such a service can be secured only by the unwearied efforts of those who prefer the general welfare to the triumph of a political party, and are resolved to exact a decent administration of governmental affairs from whatever party chances to be in power.

## DR. KENEALY'S SUPPORTERS.

THERE is something about the Kenealy, or rather Orton, agitation in England which to lookers-on at a distance is extremely ludicrous. It has, however, for the English themselves a very serious aspect, inasmuch as they see, or think they see, in the return of Orton's advocate, *as such*, to the House of Commons an ominous sign both of the ignorance and light-mindedness of the class of voters which has been created by the late Reform Act. Whether, however, Kenealy is or is not a fair specimen of the kind of man the new constituencies are likely to take up, or whether his cause is or is not a fair specimen of the kind of causes which is likely to enlist their sympathies, is a question on which it is hardly yet possible to speculate with any profit. There is a not unnatural readiness among the opponents of the late extension of the franchise to draw conclusions unfavorable to its working, but it must be borne in mind that very little is as yet known about its working. It is only in two or three cases that the new voters have really shown any desire to emancipate themselves from the old political traditions, and it is fair, even under the most favorable circumstances, to expect a certain amount of folly and absurdity from the mere novelty of their situation. As yet, they have no policy, are hardly conscious of their power, and have furnished no means of judging what their steady bent will be. The election of Kenealy and of the author of 'Ginx's Baby' are probably the mere capering of a herd of colts which have been suddenly released from long confinement.

The question which interests foreigners is how any large body of men, with enough social training to earn their bread in a country on the whole as civilized as England, can possibly take up with fervor, or even a show of fervor, the cause of an impostor so thoroughly exposed as Orton has been. For it must not be forgotten that the question of his guilt has not been in the least affected by the bearing of the judges at the trial. The Lord Chief-Justice may have been unfair to him and his counsel, but there is and can be no pretence that the rulings materially affected the evidence in two of the longest judicial investigations on record, and before two different juries. Orton's claims were examined by a process too minute and protracted, and with too much publicity, to make the behavior of the judges of any real consequence as regards the final result. Nevertheless, there is undoubtedly a large body of the English people who do believe that the Claimant is Roger Tichborne. There is another large body whose state of mind was well illustrated by a picture in *Punch* the other day, in which one slightly intoxicated citizen, rapping his cane on the ground, says vehemently to another, who cordially concurs, "I don't care whether his name is Tichborne or Orton or Castro—what I say is, that I don't like to see a poor fellow kept out of his property."

The explanation of the muddle is, as it seems to us, simple enough. It does not arise, as many people seem to suppose, out of any new or deep-seated hostility of the populace to the aristocracy; indeed, the nature of the Claimant's pretensions makes this theory almost absurd. Earnest republicans are not ready to rise in revolution over a dispute between pretenders to a throne, and ardent democrats are apt to find better materials for an agitation than the claims of a butcher to a baronetcy. The more intelligent of Orton's supporters are persuaded of his genuineness simply because the proofs he offered in support of his claims were such as they were capable of appreciating, while those which were offered against him were such as they were not capable of appreciating. His triumphs, it will be remembered, were all achieved at the moment of his first appearance, and they were of a kind that was likely to strike the popular imagination. He was, in the first place, "recognized" by Lady Tichborne as her long-lost son, and with the aid of this incident, and of the cramming he had received about Sir Roger's history, he was able to carry by a sort of *coup de main* the recognition of some officers and men of Sir Roger's old regiment and of a few other persons. These things constituted to ninety-nine ignorant men and women out of a hundred a palpable, glaring demonstration of his good faith, and the popular disposition to believe was stimulated by what appeared to be the romantic, but by no means improbable, nature of his career. The young nobleman who goes off in quest of adventures, and conceals his rank in order to enjoy them in greater perfection, and marries the low-born girl of his heart, and then turns up to claim his patrimonial acres at the right time, is not only an attractive character, but one with which the frequenters of cheap theatres and the readers of popular fiction in England are very familiar. Thus far, therefore, Orton had everything in his favor, and secured a place in the popular heart from which it would have been difficult for *any* kind of proof to oust him.

But the kind of proof which was brought against him on subsequent investigation consisted, in the main, in the application of

tests the force of which was only visible to educated men and women, or, in other words, to the upper classes of English society. It was shown that he did not know things which a person in Sir Roger Tichborne's position would be sure to know, and that he had forgotten things which such a person would be sure to remember; but the cogency of this kind of proof was not perceptible to English peasants or mechanics, owing to their ignorance of the manners and customs of the Tichborne circle. Orton's educational defects, too, fatal as they were to his pretensions in the eyes of professional and university men and members of Parliament, were mere trifles to the persons who voted for Dr. Kenealy. That he should have been educated at Stonyhurst and have not only forgotten all about the "Quadrangle," but not have known what a quadrangle was, was incredible to an Etonian or Harrow boy, or, in fact, to any boy who had "school days" to look back on; but to a man who had worked in a mill or colliery from the age of six, and who did not himself know what "a quadrangle" was, it was the most natural thing or the most trifling thing possible. In like manner, his peculiar translation of the Latin motto, "Laus Deo semper," was nothing surprising to a man who had never learnt Latin; and his total loss of French, after having used it for twenty-five years as his mother-tongue, was a very conceivable misfortune to a British mechanic or small tradesman, who thought French awfully hard to learn, and therefore very easy to forget. We might, in the same way and with the same result, run over a large part of the evidence which ruined the Claimant's hopes in the eyes of the educated British public. It would be found to be of a kind which the constitution of English society and the depth of English popular ignorance deprived of all weight in the eyes of "the masses."

With the small-shopkeeper class, in which the Claimant has many supporters, another influence, in the shape not only of a profound hatred of "Popery," but profound belief in the capacity and unscrupulousness of the Jesuits, has also told in his favor. The upper classes in England have of late years, and not without some show of reason, incurred great suspicions among the lower middle-class of a leaning to Catholicism; and the fact that Orton was a jolly fellow, who had emancipated himself from ecclesiastical influences in the Australian bush, and that the estates were held by a fatherless infant minor whose mother was presumably surrounded by priests, was enough of itself, in the eyes of a great many of that half-taught and narrow-minded class which in every country most faithfully preserves the national traditions, to make his cause the cause of all true-born Englishmen, and his defence a protest against the introduction of "Popery, brass money, and wooden shoes." The power of this old and, in its origin, not ignoble prejudice is well but comically displayed in one member of Parliament, the pious Whalley, who has supported the Claimant faithfully from the beginning, and firmly believes that the trial was directed by the Roman Propaganda. The working of English public opinion about the affair, in fact, furnishes a social study of greater interest than Orton's own career.

## ENGLAND.—TORY MISMANAGEMENT.

London, April 24, 1875.

MR. DISRAELI is trying the patience both of the House of Commons and of the country at large by his eccentric conduct of public business. He has thought fit to take up the rôle of Lord Palmerston, but, up to the present time, with only partial success—his sardonic appearance, his enigmatic turn for mysterious surprises, and his unaffected satire being incongruous elements in a make-up of one whom England delighted to reverence as "jolly old Pam." I never see him in one of his Palmerstonian poses without being reminded of a current anecdote of the times. A new religious sect has sprung up in this country—I dare say you may have branches in America—called Devotionalists. Their tenets, so far as I can comprehend them, seem to combine the extremes of Spiritualism with the extremes of Evangelicism. At one of their recent functions it is narrated how a lady was troubled by a large portrait of Lord Palmerston in the room, which always followed her with its eyes, and, as she imagined, winked at her during the most thrilling moments of the ceremonial. Mr. Disraeli must be grateful that he is not confronted with a similar phenomenon in the House of Commons. If anything could perturb his composure it would be the continual presence of such a dumb witness of his eccentricities, winking in silent criticism at his strange manœuvres. But, in the absence of any such troublesome agency, Mr. Disraeli goes down night after night to the House of Commons, whose serious deliberations he is supposed to conduct, and, having assumed the comic mask of his predecessor of ten years ago, with a mocking air which sat so cheerily on Lord Palmerston but so differently upon him, confounds both friends and foes by the audacity of his sallies and the jauntiness of his jests.

This did well enough just at first. Members who had heard with unfeigned anxiety alarming rumors as to the Prime Minister's health, welcomed his quizzing way as a practical contradiction to the rumors. But they begin to think that they have had too much of this sort of drollery, and even to cast back some longing looks towards the days of the Gladstonian dispensation, when it was all work and no play, and when earnestness unrelieved by the faintest glimmer of merriment was the order of the day. Just consider the proceedings in the lower House since the reassembling of Parliament after the Easter recess, three weeks ago. How have the best hours of almost every day—the hours, namely, between half-past four and dinner-time—been occupied? While grave questions, involving possibly the peace of Europe, have been discussed in most of the legislative assemblies on the Continent of Europe, what have been the subjects of the deliberations of the British House of Commons? The Government have been spending hours wrangling with Dr. Kenealy about the reception of a petition from an unknown village, prepared and manipulated as such things can be by an illiterate publican in the interests of the convict Orton. The thing should never have been noticed, and no human being would have heard of its existence. Mr. Disraeli, however, thought otherwise. He made up his mind to regard it as a matter affecting the stability of the constitution, and invested it with a factitious importance which its own merits could never have secured. During these same three weeks the supporters of the Government, and notably a country member called Sir Lawrence Palk, have been openly endeavoring to burke an enquiry, set on foot by one or two members of the late administration, into some of the glaring corruptions of the City; and the Government, led on by the First Minister of the Crown, instead of resisting these endeavors, have thrown the weight of their majority and their influence into the same scale with them, and have encouraged their supporters to sacrifice hours of valuable time in unseemly squabbles about the privileges of the House. Personalities, trivialities, questions of privilege, wrangles with Kenealy—these are the matters that have engrossed the attention of Government and the House of Commons, while the diplomatic relations of the Great Powers have been hanging in the balance. And when Mr. Disraeli was questioned, during one of the more lucid intervals, on these relations, shortly after the reassembling of Parliament, he thought it consistent with his own dignity and with the dignity of a great country to snub the questioner, and to shelter himself from an awkward interrogatory behind the laughter of his followers who sat around him, and are ever ready to play the *claque* to all his sallies.

In the early days of the session this sort of polished buffoonery did well enough. Members of Parliament felt that they had several months before them to get through the legislation of the year. But here we are close upon the Whitsuntide recess with next to nothing done, and no abatement to the Christmas pantomime which has usurped the place of the sober work of the session. Members are getting weary of a constant pantaloonade. "The work of the House of Commons," as one of them said to me the other day, "under this Administration, reminds me of nothing but a bad breakfast at an inferior French restaurant. You know the sort of thing—radishes, olives, prawns, crayfish, and the like, to whet the appetite—'fiddlings,' I call them—and then the substantial food at the end, when you have had so much of the 'fiddlings' that you cannot touch it." It is all "fiddlings" in the House of Commons nowadays, and when the substantial food comes on no one remains to take part in it. In the old time, when Mr. Gladstone was Chancellor of Exchequer—nay, even when Mr. Lowe was Chancellor of Exchequer—the House used to be crowded to the doors on the budget night; the lobbies were full of politicians and mercantile men, thankful for the faintest echoes which came out to them; and places in the galleries were bespoken for days, and occupied at the earliest moment. Last Thursday week the budget was introduced. But before it came on, a motion was made by the Prime Minister on a question of privilege, and the petition for the release of Orton was debated with all the solemnity of a vote of confidence previous to a ministerial crisis. The House was crowded

enough during these discussions; but when Sir Stafford Northcote rose to unfold his budget, the House and galleries were cleared, the lobbies left untenanted, and he spoke for two hours, elaborating a great scheme for the payment of the national debt, to a sleepy gathering of about fifty members. The "fiddlings" had been too much for the representatives of the people, whose main duties, theoretically at least, are fiscal; and, exhausted by the personalities elicited by the discussion on the question of privilege and the release of a convict, they left the taxation of the country and the national debt to take care of themselves.

But it is not only in the conduct of the formal business in the House that the tendency to frivolity and trifling is so manifest. In the graver matters of legislation the determination to play at law-making rather than to work at it prevails. The Queen's speech, as you will remember, was full of promises of beneficial reform, and many, I myself among the number, were deluded into the belief that it would be a useful session, and that the administration, with its "despotic and insolent majority" (to borrow the epithets addressed to it on Thursday by The O'Gorman), intended to leave its mark on history as an administration which had put to rights many domestic grievances of a real and tangible kind. These hopes have been blighted for this session. The severe winter which has made such havoc with all green things has not spared the ministerial blossoms. It has nipped them all, and the prospect of fruit is nil. The measures, as Lord Granville put it the other day in the House of Lords, have, one and all, been like the painted balloons which children play with in the street—very pretty to look at but without anything inside them. A measure was introduced to clear away the city "rookeries," and give good cottages to the artisan classes. But the bill contains no adequate machinery to set the authorities in motion to carry out these clearances, no provision for the rooks when cleared, and no certainty that the new cottages will ever be built. Another measure proposes to take in hand the accounts of friendly societies, and prevent the poor from being robbed by the officials connected with those societies. But the officials are to audit their own accounts—"The cat is to watch the cream," to quote Mr. Lowe's criticism—or leave them unaudited if they prefer to do so, and the poor are to go on being robbed as heretofore, the only difference being that the robbery is henceforth to be carried on under sanction of an Act of Parliament. Dazzling promises are dangled in another bill before the eyes of the tenant-farmers of England and Scotland. They are offered compensation for improvements made by them in their farms, longer tenancy than formerly, and a better tenure of their holdings. These simple acts of justice sound satisfactory; but by a sweeping provision at the end of the bill any landlord may, by an ordinary writing under his hand, withdraw himself and his farms from the operation of the act, and so leave his tenants in the lurch; and it was announced in the House of Lords that the great majority of landlords had already made arrangements to take advantage of this provision if by any chance the bill became law. We were promised a bill to put a stop to the pollution of rivers, which would secure pure drinking water for the lieges and unpoisoned streams for the fishes. But the manufacturing interest would have been alienated from the Government if such a measure had been pressed, and so we have heard, and shall hear, no more of it. The courts of justice, again, in the United Kingdom were to be put in harmony with the times, and the obsolete jurisdiction of the House of Lords as a court of appeal was to have been abolished, and a bill was introduced for the purpose both last session and this, the measure being really the coping-stone upon the legislation of the previous Government. But a caucus of Tory peers and lawyers met in some obscure house in an obscure street near Lord Salisbury's residence upon a Saturday, and on the following Monday the Lord Chancellor announced that the bill was likely to meet with opposition, and therefore the Government had no alternative but to withdraw it.

I need not weary you with further instances to prove that, both in the formal conduct of affairs and in the grave matters of legislation, Mr. Disraeli and his Government are not maintaining their position in the estimate which was formed of them. The superstition prevalent in England, and, like many more deeply-rooted superstitions, sedulously fostered by the Tory party and the Tory press, that Mr. Disraeli, in the rôle of Lord Palmerston, is a heaven-born leader of the House of Commons, is fast dying out. People are awakening to serious doubts of his infallibility. It does not require a Political Expostulation to proclaim it to the world. He makes small mistakes almost every night, and large ones almost every week. But he has the knack of recovering himself by a happy hit from time to time, and these recoveries prolong the death-bed of the superstition of his infallibility. On Thursday last, by snubbing Mr. Sullivan when he asked a modest question as to the proposals of Government upon the anomalous relations of the House of Commons and the press, he committed a grave error. Mr. Sullivan is an Irishman, but he is also the proprietor of a newspaper, and there are several other proprietors of newspapers in the House, some of them not uninfluential. By snubbing Mr. Sullivan, when a civil answer would have satisfied him, Mr. Disraeli offended all these men, and, unless Lord Hartington had come to the rescue yesterday, and offered to bring the matter formally before the House, reporters would have been excluded for the rest of the session, and, putting the matter on the lowest grounds, the public would have been deprived of their morning reading.

Mistakes like these soon begin to tell against an administration. From the recent by-elections, it has been made manifest that the feeling in the country is turning back, slowly perhaps, but surely, to its natural current in favor of a Liberal rather than a Tory management of affairs. In the House itself, the division of last Wednesday on the second reading of the bill to permit Dissenters to be buried according to their own rites within the precincts of the parish church-yards is looked upon by many as full of happy augury for the party in opposition. It will seem strange to you in America that Englishmen should, in this the latter part of the nineteenth century, still persist in excluding the bodies of those who have not been baptized according to an Episcopal ceremonial, from burial in the church-yard of the parish according to the observances of the Dissenting sect to which they belong. But such is indeed the case, and it seems impossible to make it otherwise. For some years past, efforts have been made to provide a remedy by law. But the church is too strong. In former sessions the bill has been always thrown out by considerable majorities. On Thursday, in one of the largest houses of the session, it was again thrown out, but only by a majority of 14—238 voting in the minority against the Government. The question was no doubt a good one to bring together the forces of the Opposition. But the number of defections from the Tory to the Liberal side, and the number of Tory absentees, in the face of strong Government pressure, indicate that some of the Ministerial team are not sorry to take an opportunity of kicking over the traces, even at some risk, if not of overturning, at least of shaking, the Ministerial coach.

## BELGIUM AND GERMANY.

PARIS, April 23.

NEUTRAL countries are the dangerous places in our old Europe, where the Great Powers make their trials of strength before the great struggles of war. The Crimean war did not break forth suddenly: it began in the Holy Places, which constitute a sort of neutral ground, divided between the various Christian communions. Every time the name of Belgium is pronounced, Europe naturally becomes uneasy. Belgium ought to be always, like good children, seen but not heard. It is not to be wondered at if the recent exchange of diplomatic notes between Prussia and the Cabinet of Brussels has produced much uneasiness in Europe. The text of these notes is now before the world, and there is not much to be said about it from a technical point of view. Germany complains of some attacks made against her sovereign, not only in the Belgian press, but by persons who are under the control of the Belgian Government, these persons being no less than the Catholic bishops of Belgium. The German note at once touched the difficult question of the relations of church and state, and gave a weapon to the Opposition, as the Catholic party is now in power at Brussels.

The question was brought only two days ago before the Parliament at Brussels in a very practical form. Monsignor Deschamps, of Malines, is among the bishops who were promoted some time ago to the rank of cardinal at the same time as Archbishop Manning. There is an old decree of Messidor, in virtue of which some military honors are due to the cardinals in Belgium, and the Catholic ministry, headed by M. Malon, ordered these honors to be rendered to Cardinal Deschamps on his return to Malines. The Opposition objected to this, by the mouth of the late Minister of Justice in the Liberal cabinet. How can you tell the Cabinet of Berlin, he enquired, that the Belgian bishops are not public functionaries, if you recognize them as such yourselves? and how can you say that you are not responsible for their sayings and doings? In virtue of the Belgian constitution, which is posterior to the decree of Messidor, church and state are kept quite separate in Belgium. The Cabinet made a very feeble answer; but a member of the Catholic party, who bears a name dear to all patriotic hearts in Belgium, reproached the Liberal Opposition with being in alliance with the "triumphant force which rules in Berlin."

The waters, as you see, are much troubled in Belgium. So they are in Italy. I was speaking a few days ago with an Italian gentleman of great distinction, who said to me: "We intend to remain faithful to the noble motto of Cavour, 'Libera chiesa in libero stato.' During the last wa-

between Prussia and France we entered Rome without the help of any foreign power, and we voted in our Parliament the law which is called 'the law of guarantees,' which allows a complete spiritual independence to the Church of Rome. After this law was passed there was a Cabinet council, in which it was discussed whether we should or not make a diplomatic communication of this law to foreign powers. After much discussion, it was decided that we should not; we considered the question of our relations with the Pope and the Church of Rome as a purely internal question, and we did not wish to give any power the right to express an opinion on the solution which we had freely found for this question." I asked my interlocutor if the Italian Government intended to remain on that ground, and he told me that he thought it would. Italy wishes to keep for herself all the advantages of possessing in its new capital the spiritual head of the Catholic Church, but in virtue of the law of guarantees she will not bear the responsibility of the action of the Pope. This position is a very difficult one to maintain. Deprive the Pope of all his provinces, as long as you leave a square foot on which he can stand, and stand independently, he will be in a spiritual sense as independent as ever. The actual Pope has not, in my opinion, overstepped the limits of the power which the confidence of the Catholic Church has placed in him. He spoke a short time ago with much moderation of the sovereign who has deprived him of his provinces; he reminded Victor Emanuel that there had been saints in his family, and seemed to offer him the olive-branch of pardon. Strange as it may appear to many, there are bonds of secret sympathy between him and the head of the House of Savoy.

But suppose for a moment that a Pope comes forward animated by the spirit of old times, who speaks to the new German Emperor in the style of the Middle Ages, and uses such words as are used in all bulls—"Race of vipers, serpents, etc.," what will the German Emperor do? He will ask the King of Italy to shut the mouth of the spiritual sovereign who would excommunicate him and sunder the bonds of fidelity between him and his Catholic subjects. And if the Italian King says that he cannot do so, the German Emperor will, like some of his predecessors, ask leave to do it himself; he will claim the right to go himself to the Vatican and to punish the offender. Renan, who is so much hated by the Catholics since his 'Life of Jesus,' remarked to me yesterday: "The Germans have never understood the force of the spiritual power; their ideal is not the Catholic ideal, superior to all questions of race, of color, of nationality. Bismarck speaks of the Pope as a man who only believes in the force of strong battalions. He comes forward, not as an infidel, an unbeliever, an exegetist; he would be sorry to see the Germans become a nation of philosophers. What does he really want? It is to make of his master a new Pope, an evangelical Pope. He would not like to suppress the Catholic Church in Germany. He would be satisfied if Catholicism was reduced to ceremonies and to the preaching of the famous formula: Give unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's. He hoped that under the excitement created by the war he could reduce the Catholic clergy of Germany to mere tools of the German Emperor; he has found that there is a passion even stronger than patriotism, more irreducible, more impenetrable; and in his wrath he is taking measures which go directly against his object. The Catholic churches, which were much neglected, are now full in Germany; all the forces which are hostile to him have taken the Catholic flag. A real crusade has begun, and who knows who will be the conqueror?"

I repeat to you what I hear, confessing that I feel much perplexed at the present aspect of things. I could not have imagined a few years ago that the *rabies theologica* could have seized the men of my generation as it has done lately. The character of Prince Bismarck seems to be a riddle. It becomes more and more clear to me that he does not belong to the ordinary class of statesmen; what he has done is something almost stupendous, but it seems as if all he has done were only a stepping-stone for something else. He is aiming at nothing else than the destruction of an immense church, which counts millions of adherents in all parts of the world; and he has so entangled the spiritual question with the ordinary rivalries of nations and races, that the world may feel itself on the eve of a hundred-years war. I have been told that the intolerance and impetuosity of his character are such that he cannot look with patience on a Catholic priest or ceremony. He would not say, like your serene Emerson,

"I love a priest, I love a prophet of the soul."

No; he is the representative of a high-and-dry state, surrounded with an army, a police, and with functionaries and professors who have become the functionaries of the mind. And a great country is adopting this ideal; the National Liberal party can no longer see anything except through this prosaic ideal. Fifteen hundred thousand men stand ready to fight for it at any moment; and the law of nations, which hitherto has only been intended to stop the movements of armies and of fleets, will now be remodelled so as to become the instrument of it.

I said a few days ago to a diplomat: "How is it that you have always claimed for neutrals the right to deal in all the materials of war: to sell powder, charcoal, arms, cloth—all that goes to constitute an army and a fleet? You have only objected to the actual instrument of war, all ready for action, which could leave the neutral territory or the neutral waters and take part in the struggle. You have not thought it possible in the present state of the world to do more than this; and now you are discussing quietly the means of stopping the expression of hostile thoughts. Louis XIV. made war on Holland, but he could never hinder the Dutch presses from publishing the innumerable pamphlets directed against him. Has the world become so small since the invention of telegrams and railways that there should be a sort of international police, and that the strongest power can make itself feared and obeyed throughout the world?"

My personal feelings may blind me in this case. I have often been offended abroad by the coarse and brutal expression of hostility to my country. Only this summer, I remember buying before the Cathedral of Milan a pamphlet in which MacMahon was attacked with the most cruel animosity. I read in it that he had never been wounded at Sedan; that he made believe that he had been, in order to avoid the responsibility of the capitulation. I have read in England the most outrageous libels against all the potentates of the world. I have never opened the *Times* without reading some article which might have become the subject of a diplomatic correspondence if governments could be made responsible for the press. And I ask myself in all sincerity: what the meanest reporter can do, what an anonymous journalist does every day of his life, shall I refuse this to a man merely because he is a priest, because he has a faith and defends it, for the reason that he receives a pittance from the state? Under Napoleon III., some bishops in France delivered charges on the Roman question; and he allowed himself to be compared to Diocletian, and to the worst Roman emperor, by men who were actually salaried by his government. He was right; generosity can hardly be excessive when it is applied to men who, though they may fight for a bad cause, do it for honorable and noble motives. But I dare say I am behind the times; we have entered an age of iron and blood, and generosity is not the order of the day. *Væ victis* has become the motto of our age. The religion of force is dominant; it has so many devotees that it may perhaps be more indulgent towards the religions which can only wield spiritual weapons.

How strange our struggles must appear to you across the Atlantic, and how jealous we might feel of a country like yours where truth believes in its own intrinsic value, and is not dependent on the powers of the state. Our Old World, with its five millions of men in arms, its kings and its republicans, its decayed aristocrats and its corrupt democracies, has become an object of pity and of terror. It is always ready for new convulsions, and it can find no rest. Old statesmen who have fought a lifetime for religious liberty are now attacking it, consciously or unconsciously; sovereigns have become the propagators of revolution; and revolutionists have made themselves the instruments of a new tyranny. "Alas!" said one of my friends a few days ago, "I have spent my life in being more conservative than our millionaires, more royalist than our royal princes, and more French than France!" Victor Hugo has called the year of the war "the terrible year"; every year has now become so to a patriotic Frenchman. We see the storm gathering round us on all sides; we are obliged, in order to save ourselves, to tie our fate to things condemned by destiny.

## CONSTITUTION-MENDING IN PRUSSIA.

BERLIN, April 26, 1875.

*KLADDERADATSCH* has a picture representing two men, one snuffing the air and saying: "There is a smell of something burning, like powder"; the other answering with an ironical smile: "Only newspaper" (*Zeitungspapier*). From a certain point of view there is no objection to seeing the war-alarm treated in such a manner even by that part of the press whose vocation it is not to crack jokes and manufacture puns. For a long time business of every kind has been, all over Germany, in such a condition that any alarm is to be seriously deprecated. It is therefore a matter of congratulation that, thanks to the exertions of the press, the uneasiness created by the letter written to the Cologne *Gazette* "from Vienna," and more particularly by the famous article of the *Post*, has almost entirely disappeared. Yet it is even more certain now than at first that the latter had its origin in the office of the Chancellor, and that it was meant to be a warning hint to the supposed eventual "Catholic League" of France, Aus-

tria, and Italy. The journey of the Crown Prince is, contrary to the first intention, made "in the strictest incognito," and those who are not without experience in such things point to this as a further proof of a significant reserve in the attitude of our Government towards Italy. The letter of the Emperor to the King, and the rumor, busily circulated by the press, that the former is still thinking of going some time to Italy, these political augurs are inclined to take merely as signs that the German Government has not yet renounced the hope of renewing the friendship in all its former cordiality and sincerity. The same view is pretty generally taken with regard to our relations with Austria. Yet there is a feeling that the air is filled with mists which, at not too distant a day, may form into clouds. The main reason of this belief is the conviction that in Austria, as well as in Italy, there are powers at work which render it quite possible that, under certain circumstances, their policy will not be decided by their obvious interests and according to the wishes of the majority of the people when in a sober mood, but by the rancor and the ambition of a faction or a momentary impulse of the passions of the day. One of the principal questions is, how much skill the Vatican and France will show in playing on these strings.

On the other hand, one also very frequently meets with the opinion that Bismarck overshot the mark in the article of the *Post*, allowing himself to be carried away by his nervousness and irascibility. In the same circles—and they are decidedly friendly to the Empire and to the Chancellor—the course pursued by him towards Belgium has caused much regret, and is ascribed to the same reasons. They refuse to discuss at all the merits of the principles involved, simply saying that it is unworthy of a great power to make a fuss about such things; Bismarck should consider Germany so strong that she can afford not to notice the kicking of the Belgian Ultramontanes. My impression is that the public are really gratified to learn that this comedy of "much ado about nothing" has come to an end, and one often hears the wish expressed that the Prince were less apt to lose his temper.

With regard to the question which becomes every day more and more the all-absorbing one, this reproach does not apply, though it would perhaps sometimes be better if Bismarck were somewhat more guarded in his language. It was my good fortune to be present at the delivery of his two great speeches in the House of Representatives, on the motion of the Government to strike out Articles 15, 16, and 18 of the Constitution. A picture of more absolute calmness and at the same time utter firmness and resolution, could not be imagined. To have heard and seen him on this occasion, and to harbor any doubt that he feels as if he already had the final victory surely and safely in his pocket, is impossible. The majority of the House showed the same temper, the most violent thrusts of the Ultramontanes exciting only a good-natured hilarity. But though one entirely approves of the motion and of the temper in which it is being carried through in both Houses of the Landtag, one cannot help feeling a deep concern in looking beyond the immediate future to a more distant day. The most important of the three articles in question is the first, which provides that the regulation and management of their internal affairs shall be left to the different churches; the second leaves free the intercourse between the clergy and their ecclesiastical superiors; and in the third the state renounces, with certain limitations, its rights of patronage. At first view, all the three articles appear to be dictated by a spirit which every liberal-minded man would and should be exceedingly loth to disavow; in fact, however, they have from the first never served any purpose but to promote the pernicious pretensions of Rome. The reason of this is very plain, and it is stated with great precision in the "motives." Article 15, of which Articles 16 and 18 are but applications, is, to borrow an Americanism, a "glittering generality," and therefore any consequences one pleases may be tortured out of it. This is what the Ultramontanes have been doing from the first, and what they would go on doing to the end if the article were allowed to stand. At first they affected to believe the expression "church" to mean not the concrete religious association and corporation, but the mysterious abstraction which, in their creed, is called "the church." Now, as this "church" is as high above the state and the whole world as the sky is above the earth, it was of course not for the state to decide what are and what are not internal affairs of the church. In this respect the state had to receive the law from the church, and, since the Œcumenical Council, the law of the church is the *dixit* of the Pope. Bismarck spoke the sober truth when he said: "By our constitution—*i. e.*, since we are constitutional—there is in Prussia hardly anybody personally and autocratically so powerful as this high Italian prelate, surrounded by his council of Italian priests." And "the firm point" on which the levers for the erection of this *imperium in imperio* have been fixed is the "glittering generality" of Article 15 of the constitution. The striking out of Article 15 does not mean that henceforth the internal affairs of the churches shall not be regulated by themselves; it only means that the relations between the state and the churches shall be determined by special laws, so that it can no longer, in any given case, be a debatable question what are the internal affairs of the churches which by the laws of the state are left to their own regulation. Bismarck called this "the way to peace," on which it will be possible "to change the aggressive warfare into which we have been forced for a while into a defensive one, leaving the aggression more to the enlightening influences of the schools." It is the way, and the only way, to real peace; for without certainty of the law there cannot be peace, and there is no possibility of the law being certain so long as it is left doubtful where the power of ultimate decision of the questions in dispute rests. This power, which the state had never intended to renounce, but which to a great extent had been actually wrested from it by means of these three articles of the constitution, is now reclaimed in such a manner that the possibility of a foul truce is precluded. The state is irrevocably binding itself to know but one way of ending the war—viz., the full acknowledgment of the supremacy of the laws of the state on the part of the Ultramontanes. This has nothing whatever to do, as the Ultramontanes are pleased to pretend, with the question of religious liberty. Article 12 of the constitution remains untouched, and that secures to everybody "the liberty of his religious creed" and the liberty "of associating in religious societies." It is not in this respect that exception can be taken to this last and, as I think, decisive stroke of the state. The weak point before alluded to, which in the course of time might easily grow into a serious danger, lies in quite a different direction.

Every liberal-minded American will applaud the Chancellor's declaration that, in a short time, he hopes to be so far along that "the aggression can be left to the enlightening influences of the schools." But the Chancellor, as well as the majority of the Landtag, has failed to propose doing the one thing without which it is impossible to attain this desirable end. Article 24 of the constitution lays it down as a principle that, as far as possible, the confessional character of the schools shall be maintained. Remember the untiring exertions of the Catholic clergy in the State of New York to get a part of the common schools into their hands, and the earnest warnings addressed by you to the people not to let this plot succeed, and you will readily agree with me that this Article 24 leaves to the Prussian Ultramontanes the very citadel of their power. This opinion was forcibly urged in the caucus of the National Liberals, but the proposition to introduce a motion in the Landtag that Article 24 should share the fate of Articles 15, 16, and 18 received only the vote of the mover, although the great majority of the party certainly do not controvert the correctness of the principle involved in the proposition. This action of the party seems to me to indicate a really alarming political shortsightedness, the consequences of which may be of a very grave character. It appears to me in the highest degree likely that, in a very short time, the Government will be forced to move, in response to the continued resistance and attacks of the Ultramontanes, the striking out of this article. The majority of the Landtag will then, as readily as they are now doing, adopt the proposition of the Government, but in doing so they will sap one of the most important principles of true constitutional liberty, which they would leave comparatively unhurt if they were to strike it out now, together with the three other articles. It is the worst feature of our constitution that the changing of it is as easy a thing as the passing of the most indifferent law, and that the people at large have no influence whatever upon it. A change of the constitution is effected by the concurrence of the King and the two Houses of the Landtag, only 21 days being required to elapse between the different stages the bill has to pass through. Dr. Falk, answering Mr. Richter of Sangerhausen, thought the concurrence of the "three factors of legislation" an amply sufficient security against hasty and pernicious changes of the fundamental law of the state. Would you, looking at the experience of the United States, admit the correctness of this assertion? It is a constitutionalism of a rather doubtful character not to permit the people at large to participate in the decision of the most important questions which possibly can be presented to any people, by at least holding a general election between the proposition and the adoption of a change in the fundamental law. But there being as yet no chance of getting thus much conceded, our representatives should at least do everything in their power to prevent the establishing of a loose practice with regard to the changing of the constitution. We are in a state of war, and the liberal parties are entirely agreed that a purification of the constitution is needed, but a clean sweep should be made of all the untenable and obnoxious provisions.

There is perhaps no greater danger for the consolidation and growth

of real constitutional government in Germany than for the people to get in the habit of regarding the constitution as an instrument, the single articles of which may be thrown overboard with a light heart whenever they are found to work badly. And there is danger lest the Government, the Landtag, and the people get deeply involved in this dangerous way just because we are in the midst of a war of enormous magnitude, the exigencies of which are apt to present further changes in an exceedingly plausible light. This danger is considerably increased by the great superiority of Bismarck over the other members of the Cabinet as well as over the members of the Landtag. It is true the conservative bent of his mind affords a certain guaranty; but on the other hand he is as revolutionary as he is conservative, and his temper makes him more inclined to short and sharp cuts than to the slower and more laborious but safer process of disentangling. His genius and his good luck may carry him safely through all difficulties to the last, as they have done heretofore; but he will have entailed on the people a bad inheritance if he accustom those who have neither his genius nor his good luck to consider this the best manner of dealing with political problems, the satisfactory solution of which can only be the fruit of the best and most strenuous exertions of generations. My ambition is not to play the ungrateful part of Cassandra; I have full confidence in our future, but we are far from being out of the woods.

# Correspondence.

## PACIFIC MAIL AND ITS SUBSIDY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the evident purpose of the supporters of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company to use every effort to secure a renewal of the portion of the subsidy withdrawn by the recent act of Congress, will you kindly furnish us, through the columns of your valuable paper, some information as to the extent of the obligation of the people of the United States to that Company, which must of course be made the basis of an application to Congress? If the Company has, while doing a really good work, forced the country to pay an extravagant price for it, the weight of the obligation would certainly not seem oppressive. Aside from the gift of the subsidy, it seems to some of us that the people of the United States have contributed a sufficient amount to the treasury of the Company to enable it to return very respectable dividends, notwithstanding some severe losses.

It is often said that the Company is obliged to demand high rates for freight and passage on account of the light cargoes which the outward steamers carry through the scarcity of freight for China and Japan. If this is true, why is not some effort made to encourage shippers? There are now four sailing-vessels en route for Japan, and probably more than as many more for China; and there is no doubt but that a large part of the cargoes of these vessels might have been taken by the steamers of the Pacific Mail Company had they cared to reduce their rates; but, instead of so doing, freight by steam from New York to Japan has been as high as $40 and $50 gold per ton, against less than $16 from London to Japan. After making all due allowance for the unsettled state of business on the comparatively new route, it certainly ought not to cost nearly three times as much to transport cargo from New York to Japan as from London. The necessary inference would seem to be that freight is not, and of late has not been, scarce.

As to homeward cargo, the problem seems to be how to find room for it on board the steamers. Though two steamers per month have sailed for San Francisco the past year, freight has accumulated at the Asiatic ports. Even now, in what is usually considered as the dullest season of the year, the *City of Peking*, large as she is, will leave over 500 tons of freight at the port of Yokohama alone.

Owing to the nearness of the American market and to other reasons, it has been possible to open a very promising trade in American drugs and hardware, notwithstanding the exorbitant rate of freight; but, since the recent combination of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company and the railroad companies, telegrams received indicate a very great increase in the tariff. One telegram puts the rate of freight apparently as high as $80 per ton. What chance have our American merchants and manufacturers to compete with those of England and the Continent against such odds? Does not this rate mean the almost entire suspension of trade in American goods, excepting so far as it can be carried on by means of sailing-vessels? Before this combination, relief might have been looked for from English steamers; but, with the railroads against them, English capitalists will hesitate about entering upon so hazardous an enterprise.

Is it wise to strengthen the hands of a combination which threatens to inflict so serious a blow upon American commercial interests? In case an additional subsidy is granted, would it not be well to offset it by another to the merchants, tea-drinkers, etc.? The latter should in justice be five times as great as the former; and if it should be intended to cover constructive damages to the American trade, no one but a Fourth-of-July orator would venture to compute its proper size. An American.

Yokohama, April 9, 1875.

# Notes.

THE pirating of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' by a Philadelphia house has compelled resort to the same measure of protection adopted in the case of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' viz., the insertion in future volumes of copyrighted articles by American writers.——A club whose object is "the association of authors, artists, and men of science, and amateurs of music, letters, and the fine arts," has just been formed in Philadephia. It is called the Penn Club, and is limited to two hundred members.——In the same city, the committee on public health of the Social Science Association has memorialized the General Assembly in behalf of a State Board of Health. A bill to create such a board was favorably reported to the Senate at the last session, but failed to become a law.——The Centennial Exhibition will, in addition to its line of agricultural implements and machinery, undertake a display of live stock (chiefly in September and October) and of fruits. Enquiries should be addressed to the Chief of Bureau of Agriculture, Philadelphia.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press a new edition of 'The Romance of Natural History,' by Philip Henry Gosse; and 'The Abuse of Maternity, through its Rejection and through its Unwise Acceptance,' by an anonymous writer.——'A Standard Temperance Prize Essay' is in request by the National Temperance Society of this city. It is to be in three parts, and prizes are now about to be awarded to competitors for the first, viz.: "The Scientific; embracing the Chemical, Physiological, and Medical aspects." The other two parts are "The Historical, Statistical, Economical, and Political," and "The Social, Educational, and Religious." For the best essay under each of these two heads $500 will be paid, and $300 for the second-best. The offer remains open till July 1, 1876. Further information may be had of Mr. A. M. Powell, 58 Reade Street.——B. Westermann & Co., 524 Broadway, announce that they are the American agents for a new English periodical, *Hallberger's Illustrated Magazine*, to be issued shortly in Stuttgart by the publishers of the popular illustrated German weekly, *Ueber Land und Meer*. It will be edited by the poet Freiligrath, and will appear every three weeks.

—A committee of the Boston City Council has, in answer to a petition, been examining the state of the city's records of births, deaths, and marriages previous to the year 1849. Their conclusion is that from 1630, the date of settlement, to the date just mentioned, "not more than seven per cent. of the births are preserved, about the same percentage of the deaths, and probably about two-thirds of the marriages." The deficiencies in regard to the births occur mainly in the century 1744–1849; the unrecorded deaths, owing to the increase of population, mostly took place during the eighteenth century. The committee then point out the sources from which these lacunæ may be filled. The church records are of course the most important. Although these relate chiefly to church members and their families, "this class during the last two centuries embraced by far the greater part of our (Boston) citizens." The custom of infant baptism gives an especial value to this branch of the records, it being possible to obtain from them "the births of a great number of children with an accuracy of date sufficient for all purposes. In fact," continues the report, "it is to be remembered that in England nothing but baptisms are recorded, and the system of town records of births, like the system of registering deeds, was practically employed in New England as a new plan." Besides making copies of the oldest church records, the inscriptions on the tombstones in the three old graveyards in the city deserve to be carefully collated (they have already been published) and revised; and newspapers (for marriages and deaths), deeds, family records, printed directories, etc., will also repay research and contribute something to the collection of facts. This task is recommended to be entrusted to an unpaid commission of gentlemen skilled in such matters. We are not informed of the action of the Council.

—An esteemed correspondent writes us from Washington: "In noticing Mr. Justice Bradley's proposed arrangement of the calendar, you did not explain the manner in which, by his plan, the year would be divided into four quarters of three months each, exactly corresponding with the four natural divisions of the year made by the sun's arrival at the two equinoxes

and two solstices. Thus, beginning at the winter solstice, when the sun is at the extreme southerly point reached by him, where he commences his return to the north, Judge Bradley would place the new year, or January 1, on the present 21st day of December. Then, giving to January, February, and March each thirty days, the 1st of April, or beginning of the second quarter, will, in common years, fall on the 21st of March, and in leap-years on the 20th of March, or exactly at the vernal equinox, when the sun is on the equinoctial line and the days and nights are equal. Then, giving to the next six months each thirty-one days, the 1st of July, or beginning of the third quarter, will fall in common years on the present 22d of June, and in leap-years on the 21st, which is the summer solstice, when the sun is at his farthest point north and the days are longest; and the 1st of October, or beginning of the fourth quarter, will fall in common years on the 23d of September, and in leap-years on the 22d, which is the autumnal equinox, when the sun recrosses the line and the days and nights are equal again. Then, giving to October and November each thirty days, and to December twenty-nine in common years, and thirty in leap-years, the 1st of January will again fall on the present 21st of December in all cases. This allotment of days to each month is easy to remember, is as convenient as any, and makes them correspond to the great natural phenomena of the sun's annual circuit. It is a lesson in astronomy in itself, and is generally approved as the best plan that has been proposed. The placing of the intercalary day of leap-year at the end of the year would be a great advantage in all astronomical calculations and arrangements of the calendar. And the conformity of the entire civil year to the natural year would of course be an advantage amply sufficient to compensate for any temporary inconvenience arising from the change. No alteration in the recurrence of leap-years from the arrangement of the Gregorian calendar is proposed. That is sufficiently accurate for many centuries to come. The law prepared by Judge Bradley to effect the proposed change, and which was read to the National Academy of Science, is extremely simple and comprehensive, and would obviate all inconveniences of a business character that could possibly arise."

—*Lippincott's* for May is in point of interest an improvement on its predecessor, though we cannot say that there is anything in it which one need regret having missed. The opening paper (one of two), called "Up the Parana and in Paraguay," has attractive illustrations and a disappointing text. We are led to expect a well-garnished tale of personal adventure, and presently discover that we are reading a guide-bookish condensation of a matter-of-fact narrative from the French. A really clever translation from that language is made by Mr. T. S. Perry, who selects an amusing trifle by Gustave Droz, "Behind their Fans." There is an interesting account, full of anecdotes, of the French actor Frédéric Lemaître, by Wirt Sikes; and interesting may be called Mr. Vincent's "Northward to High Asia," though it shares the limitations and defects of his 'Land of the White Elephant.' It is not every one, for example, who is favored with a sunrise view of the second highest mountain on the globe, nor every one who is capable of painting the scene or expressing fitly the emotions excited by it. "A Story of American Chivalry" is worth reading for the moral of it, but its literary merit is not high. The number of serial articles in *Harper's* gives it a familiar appearance from month to month. We should as soon think of reading Castelar's seventeenth paper on "The Republican Movement in Europe" as the Hon. S. S. Cox's second and final paper on "American Humor." But Professor Rau on the "Stone Age in Europe," and Professor Brewer on "Agricultural Progress" in the instructive and timely series called "The First Century of the Republic," will well repay perusal. The latter is naturally the fresher and more original of the two, but both are clear and popular in style, and exactly in the line of this magazine. Mr. Parton's account of caricature deals this time with the Puritan period, and is curiously illustrated from old prints. Chief of the illustrated articles, however, is Mr. Frederic Hudson's ample story of the Concord fight, with its maps, plans, and pictures of the locality, and autographic facsimiles of Emerson's matchless hymn and of Longfellow's "Midnight Ride of Paul Revere." In his Easy Chair the editor celebrates the twenty-fifth anniversary of *Harper's*, its 300th number, and 50th volume, and justly remarks that if in this long period its general character has not been essentially changed, "it is because the original conception of what a magazine in America should be was so felicitous and accurate." The even editing of *Harper's* has been, perhaps, hardly less remarkable. Of no other of our monthlies is extended criticism so unnecessary, or brief mention so little to be construed as a slight—so much, as a compliment.

—In the *Contemporary* for April, Prof. W. D. Whitney has replied to Prof. Müller's attack upon him (noticed in the *Nation*, No. 504). He separates the confused mass of current linguistic theories into two groups, the positive and the metaphysical: the latter starting with grand views of humanity and language and proceeding deductively to its conclusions—the former starting from the audible signs and proceeding inductively to their laws. The first is the critical, the second the imaginative school. Prof. Whitney is of the first; but he admits that the second, to which Müller belongs, is at present the more influential among philologists. According to Prof. Whitney, language is altogether conventional. We call a thing a *book* because other people do, and we can so best convey what we mean; and not because the word is akin to *beech*, and our rude ancestors cut their runes on beechen staves. When we want a word for a new conception, we take a word that we have used with something connected with it. As language grows now, so it always grew; and we are not to fancy that the savage foresaw in his instrument of communication the indispensable means of his mental growth Language is a body of usages gradually worked out in the strife of the race with its surroundings. It is an institution. It had its origin when sign-making by instinct became sign-making by intelligence. The dog which barks to be let in and then quietly waits our coming, has taken that step; he has some feeble general ideas, but he lacks the capacity to improve. Prof. Müller's personal criticisms Prof. Whitney answers with studied calmness. The charge of abusiveness he of course denies; and he easily shows the weakness of the attack upon him. One instance only we can give. Prof. Müller quotes him as making the startling assertion that "language is almost as little the work of man as is the form of his skull," omitting the modifying clause, "so far as concerns the purposes for which he [the linguist] studies," etc., the whole being part of a statement that "the absence of reflection and conscious interest takes away from the facts of language the subjective character that would otherwise belong to them as products of voluntary action." Garbled extracts such as this are injurious only to the maker.

—By this time we may suppose the semi-annual change of weather consequent on the shifting of the area of greatest cold (from the continent to the sea for the summer, from sea to land for the winter), to have taken place. The approximate date for the summer alternation is May 3, and as evidence that it has taken place in any year the following signs will be found helpful: 1. The sky begins to be often hazy. 2. The temperature never falls below 45°. 3. The temperature is lowest with SE winds, instead of, as during the preceding six months, with NW winds. 4. Rains usually begin with the wind at SW, and clear off with the wind at NE, instead of beginning with wind at SE and clearing off at NW. 5. The regular breeze of clear weather is from ESE, instead of WNW. 6. Snow becomes impossible. 7. Rain comes from the lower clouds, and therefore much more rain falls from the same amount of cloud (so that the intervals of fair weather are longer); whereas, previously, rain fell from higher clouds, and was mostly reabsorbed in the lower strata before reaching the ground. 8. Electric clouds begin to precede storms, and are known by their compact, globular form.

—The Hungarian transit expedition met with a droll mishap, or rather series of mishaps, at Klausenburg. In the first place, the weather was bad, a nasty rain prevailing for days till the night before the transit; then the battery for their chronograph would not work. However, when the day came they managed to get their telescopes in position, their photographic apparatus in order, their heliometer set up, and, with clocks and chronometers clicking and ticking, waited in breathless suspense for the sun to rise. The first contact of Venus and the sun was to be before sunrise, so that only the emersion could be observed. The anxiously-expected sun at last rose, and rose clear. But to their dismay it rose in a very bad place, immediately behind the great tower of the church, and as there was no time to move either instruments or church, the two principal observers were obliged to abandon their observations altogether. All this is recounted, in the gravest scientific language, in the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, apparently without a suspicion of the humor of the situation. "Mr. Nagy, the assistant," says the *Nachrichten*, "who had a portable instrument, clapped it under his arm, went to a place south of the church-tower, and set it up. That instant he saw the limb of the sun and Venus run together." If these worthies should ever go on another scientific expedition, they had better learn the meaning of that expressive verb, *s'orienter*, *sich orientiren*, or "finding out," as Lowell well puts it, "what is *about east*, and acting accordingly." As for poor Mr. Nagy, the assistant, instead of scuttling round with his portable instrument under his arm, he would do well to imitate Professor John Phœnix, A.M., who "set up his instruments permanently," as he says in his 'Official Report on the Central Route,' "in a mule-cart, which was backed into the plane of the true meridian when required for use."

—A French law-professor at Dijon, M. Capmas, has discovered a large number of letters—original, and copies—of Mme. de Sévigné, which will afford the means of correcting and enlarging the best edition of this author's works yet published. Hachette is to have the privilege of bringing them out. A more precise account is now given of a similar discovery made about a year ago, namely, of inedited manuscripts of Bossuet and Mlle. de la Vallière. Bossuet's portion consists of the remainder of works hitherto known only in part, and of letters to Mlle. de la Vallière concerning her conversion. The La Vallière MS. is a work composed at this turning-point of her life, and entitled 'Gémissements.' It is said to be remarkable for elevation of thought and for its charming style. The possessor of these interesting papers is a Colonel Ferrel, who had already had the good fortune to discover at Meaux the tomb of Bossuet. Still another *trouvaille* has been the intimate correspondence of Charles VIII. with Louis II. de la Trémoille, having reference to the campaign of 1488 in Brittany. Three hundred copies of these letters, together with five by Anne of Beaujeu and some other pieces, have been printed in the choicest manner by the present Duc de la Trémoille.

—The Paris *Polybiblion*, reviewing the new Index of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, states that the name of F. De Lagenevais, to which sixteen articles are ascribed, is the *nom de guerre* of several different writers, some of whom are revealed in Quérard's 'Supercheries littéraires dévoilées,' and that the Major Fridolin, reputed author of fifteen articles in the same periodical, is really M. De Valbezene, formerly French consul at Calcutta Among the forty articles classified as anonymous, and mostly political, there is a little story, 'Madame de Marçay,' which the *Polybiblion* thinks there are good reasons for attributing to Prévost-Paradol.

—Foreign papers record the accidental death (April 4) of Karl Mauch, one of the foremost of the minor African explorers. Mauch went out to Africa in 1864, but lack of means prevented any great expedition at first, and he devoted himself to cartographic studies of the South African (popularly but incorrectly called the Transvaal) Republic. He furnished a very considerable portion of the material with which Jeppy and Merensky prepared their map. Early in 1866 he met the elephant-hunter Hartley, and made two expeditions with him in that and the following year into the Matebele country, which taught him how to travel and resulted in the discovery of two gold-fields. A private expedition which he undertook the next year, whose real field was to be Central Africa, broke down completely on account of the failure of a friend to co-operate as promised. At the end of July, 1871, he began his last and most interesting journey through the country between the Limpopo and the Zambesi, unexplored since the region south of Sena was visited by Galvro da Silva in 1788. Mauch had very much to endure in the way of imprisonment or robbery, and was obliged to spend nine months among the Makalaka. It was during this time, September, 1871, that he discovered the ruins of Zimbabye, with which his name will always be associated. These ruins, about 200 miles west of Sofala, are of stone—a fact of singular significance among nations where only huts and walls of mud are known. Mauch's own view was that he was in the land of Ophir, for he found another gold-field not far away, and heard of strange animal-sacrifices made here at intervals of several years, which bore a remarkable resemblance to those of the Jews. This view has, however, found no favor among the learned. Mauch finally reached Sena in the middle of 1872, and returned to Germany the same year. One cannot but admire the courage of the man, and regret that ample means and proper training (he was self-taught in those branches which are indispensable to a good explorer) were wanting to make him a truly successful traveller. Much of his work has a permanent value, and he has opened a very promising field to future explorers. His own reports of his work appeared in various numbers of Petermann's *Mittheilungen*, 1867-71. A general narrative of his South African experiences and a tolerably full account of his last journey may be found in a recent *Ergänzungsheft*, No. 37, to the *Mittheilungen*. Mauch was born in 1837, in Ludwigsburg. The manner of his death was sad.

—The Kaulfuss'sche Buchhandlung of Liegnitz (Prussia) has undertaken the publication of a unique magazine, *Der Antikritiker, Organ für literarische Vertheidigung* This is to be a refuge for discontented authors whose books have met with adverse criticism, and who cannot get their replies gratuitously published. In other words, the principle of co-operation is to be applied to the printing of replies to the critics. The unpleasant problem of support is ingeniously solved by permitting the writers to pay about four-fifths of the expense of publication, while the public is further allowed to pay fairly for its reading privileges. German authors are so human and so fond of controversy that we should presume there would be no lack of material for the *Antikritiker*, and, in view of the bitterness of German *Federkriege*, intending subscribers are sure of spicy reading; indeed, the preface of the first number suggests that the warmer the replies, the better. As to the permanent value of such a publication we have our decided doubts. A temperately-conducted journal that would present the other side in cases of excessive criticism, or could offer authors a good opportunity to defend themselves, would be a decided gain. The *Antikritiker*, however, seems to have no editorial supervision or plan (except to avoid prosecution under the press law), and the excessive polemic of the first number against Zarncke's *Literarisches Centralblatt* and the *Jenaer Literaturzeitung* certainly proves too much. The intellectual godfather of the undertaking (who, we suspect, plays a more prominent part than the prospectus and title-page intimate) is a Prussian local medical inspector and writer, who has a rather bad reputation, we believe, on account of his literary quarrels—a fact that is not full of promise for the *Antikritiker*.

## MRS. GILBERT'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.*

WHAT gives its peculiar charm to this book? This question is not easy to answer offhand. Ann and Jane Taylor have a deserved reputation as the poets of the nursery, but the best-known of their productions, such as "Twinkle, twinkle, little star," are the work of the younger sister, and a desire to know something about the lady who has taught child after child to give thanks that he "was not born a little slave to labor in the sun," is scarcely of itself a sufficient inducement to undertake the perusal of two volumes of biographical reminiscences. A history of religious experiences has, it may be admitted, a genuine interest for all who either sympathize with or care to study the religious sentiment. But Mrs. Gilbert's autobiography, though written by a profoundly pious woman, is not an account of religious experiences. The very honesty of her nature made her dread the habit of "keeping" a diary of religious experience. "To me," she writes, "it appears impossible that this should be honestly done. Much that generally enters into it should pass under the eye of God alone, and to the writer and the reader is almost equally injurious." There are passages of the work which give an indirect glimpse of the writer's pain ful anxiety with regard to the spiritual condition of herself and of her friends. But these passages, suggestive of reflection as they are, do not form the staple of the book. It is chiefly a picture of life drawn by a woman at once profoundly impressed with religious beliefs and sentiments, and also interested with a keen interest in outward nature, and endowed with the capacity to observe and note all that passed around her.

The most obvious cause of the favor with which these annals of an uneventful life have been received by a public who have half forgotten the writings of the Misses Taylor of Ongar, is the skill displayed by Mrs. Gilbert in narrating the details of her own life. Her prose writings, and especially her autobiography, give a far higher impression of her power as a writer than the poems on which, to the end of her life, she looked with an amiable and honest complacency, which was gently ruffled when the ignorance of strangers ascribed the whole merit of the well-known songs and hymns to Jane, and forgot that Ann Taylor had also a claim to some share of the reputation gained by the joint labors of the two. Mrs. Gilbert happily belonged to a generation which had not learnt the odious art of "word-painting," and every scene she describes is told in the simplest language, without any attempt to make the details of ordinary life the basis on which to erect a mass of wordy prettinesses. But for the power of sketching truthfully the beauties of the country, the salient features of character, the little humors and traits which give point and vividness, when once they are noticed, to the most ordinary events of daily life, she compares favorably with our best modern writers. Mr. Stribbling, the blacksmith, who looked "so very ugly," and, though stone-deaf, troubled his minister by complaining of him as a "legal preacher," on the ground that he selected Arminian texts; Mr. Hickman, the minister in straitened circumstances, who, when he wished to borrow a few pounds from Isaac Taylor, used to walk into the house and intimate the extent of his needs by the number of fingers he laid on the table; Mr. Watkinson, the wealthy member of the congregation, who walked on wet days, tall and erect, in pattens, protected from the rain by the newly-invented article—an umbrella; Mr. Meeking, the good-natured, fresh-colored baker, of whose hot toast, "thick heaped and sodden with butter," Mrs. Gilbert at the age of sixty retained a grateful recollection—these, and twenty or thirty other portraits, all drawn with the same discriminating humor, stand before the reader in as clearly-marked outline as the characters in 'Cranford' or in the 'Mill on the Floss.'

* 'Autobiography and Other Memorials of Mrs. Gilbert (formerly Ann Taylor). By Josiah Gilbert.' London: Henry S. King & Co.

The description, again, of the childhood of "Nancy and Jenny," of their brothers and sisters, of their mother, and above all of their father, are in their way perfect pictures of home-life. Isaac Taylor the younger (the author of the 'History of Enthusiasm') and Jane and Ann will always be better known than the father and mother from whom they derive all they had of genius and, so far as such a thing can be derived from others, all that was peculiar in their type of goodness. Mrs. Gilbert's autobiography would indeed well deserve all the popularity it has achieved had it no other merit than that of painting the character of her father. Of her father, as of every other person or thing with which she deals, Mrs. Gilbert writes with the utmost simplicity and directness. Her unbounded love and admiration for him do not lead her into the folly of heaping eulogy on virtues and talents which speak clearly enough for themselves, yet students who carefully observe the traits by which Isaac Taylor, the engraver and minister, is revealed indirectly in his daughter's pages, for the instruction and admiration of all who can appreciate goodness and originality, cannot but feel as though they were reading of a character of romance painted by a skilful novelist. Caleb Garth, David Elginbrod, above all the minister in 'Cousin Phyllis' (the most graceful of all Mrs. Gaskell's tales), have each something in common with Isaac Taylor. You seem to see in him the reality of which the fancied pictures are the shadow. And when this is perceived, the question wherein does the charm of Mrs. Gilbert's autobiography consist, is more than half answered. To paint home-life is a rare talent, but the picture painted is of no worth unless the home-life be worth recording. And what gives the interest to the autobiography is that Mrs. Gilbert not only describes, with rare fidelity, country life in England as it existed more than sixty years ago, but also paints a family in each of whom there existed in combination qualities which are not only admirable in themselves, but are in fact rarely found in complete union.

The character of Isaac Taylor the elder was inherited in different degrees by his children, and, together with the almost equally remarkable character of Mrs. Taylor, gave the tone to the whole household. Mrs. Gilbert thus writes of her father: "At thirteen he commenced a life which became one of diffusive piety. At sixteen he joined the church under the Rev. Mr. Webb of Fetter Lane, and from these early years till he went down to the grave at seventy-one, his character was one beautiful progress through the benignant graces of Christianity. His love of knowledge was early strong and universal; nothing was uninteresting to him that he had opportunity to acquire, and when acquired his delight was to communicate. Apt to teach he certainly was. All his methods were self-devised, and the life of few men devoted to teaching as a profession would have accomplished more than he attained by husbanding the half-hours of his own." The noticeable point in these sentences is that they point to a union which is rare of fervent piety with what may be termed the scientific and inventive cast of mind. Moreover, in Isaac Taylor and in his descendants these characteristics were not combined only, but really fused together. No reader of religious biographies can fail to have observed that there are cases in which religious interests seem to have absorbed all the energies of a man's soul, and to have rendered him indifferent to speculations or investigations which do not directly belong to the sphere of religion; and observation of life itself is sufficient to show that in the minds of many persons, whose genuine religious feelings and belief it would be folly to doubt, there exists a division between their religious and secular interests. In either case the character suffers. In the first it is dwarfed, or stunted, on one side. In the other it lacks the sincerity and simplicity which can hardly coexist with a divided mind. The special beauty of Isaac Taylor and of his children is the perfect sincerity and simplicity which arise from the harmonious development of the whole of the intellectual and spiritual nature. Thus he continued through life both an engraver and a minister, though, if we understand Mrs. Gilbert rightly, towards the latter part of his life he was almost wholly devoted to ministerial duties. But there never appears to have been in his own judgment or in that of any of his children the least incongruity between the practice of his trade and his work as a minister. In each case he did with all his power the duty set before him, and would, we may conjecture, have been at once amused and indignant at the views of any man who had told him that the performance of the one duty was in any sense inconsistent with the performance of the other. It is easy to conjecture the sort of reply which he would have made, from the answer which he in fact gave to certain members of his congregation who objected that he did not confine himself to preaching what they were pleased to consider the "Gospel."

The piety, intellectual energy, and perfect simplicity of Mr. Taylor's character are remarkable enough in themselves. But they deserve special attention on the part of a critic of Mrs. Gilbert's autobiography, because the same qualities form the basis of her character. Intellectually, she was, it may be suspected, considerably her father's inferior. He possessed a breadth and calmness of mind which certainly were wanting in his daughter. She apparently inherited from her mother an anxious conscientiousness, which must, as appears from one or two traits, have caused her bitter suffering throughout life. Her fearful and lasting anxiety as to the final condition of a child who died when young; her candid statement of the fact that, except for one short period, she had never been able to find the religious peace for which she constantly sought, point to a gloomy side of her character and to features in her religious creed which, were this the place for theological discussion, ought to receive careful consideration. But her intensely strong feelings, both of affection and of pleasure, her love of work, her delight in all the life around her, her perfect honesty of purpose and of intellect, are the reproduction of her father's best qualities. This honesty, in fact, is the salient trait both of her moral character and of her literary work. It is hard now to realize, even in imagination, the time when 'Cœlebs' was the "book of the day," and Hannah More an authority whose doctrine was almost above question. It is, however, characteristic of Mrs. Gilbert that she should, when young, have criticised a manifest inconsistency in Mrs. More's 'Christian Morals' with a freedom and directness which made the "distinguished authoress" express "her displeasure in a manner unworthy of her genius." It is characteristic of the same honesty and simplicity that throughout the whole of her autobiography Mrs. Gilbert never for a moment divides her religious reflections from the course of her narrative. Religion and life are with her, as with her father, far too closely blended to be in any way separated as belonging to different spheres of thought. Her account, for example, of the Forbeses runs into a discussion on special providences, which is immediately followed by an account of the way in which "Jane and I began the arduous experiments of making our own dresses." Her honesty and insight are the qualities that have enabled her to produce an autobiography which, combined with the memorials admirably put together by her son, constitutes the best picture we have ever seen of the fair and noble side of English Dissent. The Nonconformists have received hard measure from the English public. It is well that the coarse caricatures, such as Chadband, and the Shepherd, or the hard satire of 'The Chronicles of Carlingford,' should be met by the truthful portraits of Mr. Taylor of Ongar and of his daughters.

## THOMPSON'S NATIONAL ECONOMY.*

PROFESSOR THOMPSON belongs to what is best known as the Philadelphia school of political economy, a school of which Mr. H. C. Carey is the acknowledged head, and most of the literature of which, so far as we know, emanates from that gentleman's native city. The term "National system," first used by List, is, however, adopted in the work now before us, as also the very objectionable one of "American and German school." If the application of the latter term has any other object than that of deceiving the youthful reader into the belief that the doctrines of this school are generally received in Germany, we should like to know it.

The first question which arises on examining a work of this school is whether the author can give us any clear, concise, and definite statement of his principles which shall show the relation of these principles to the facts of life. An inability to do this seems to be the general characteristic of Mr. Carey and his followers. They state facts in sufficient number, and explain their opinions at great length; but the connection between the facts and opinions is always left in a very shadowy state, and the subject is generally discussed more in the spirit of the partisan than in that of the philosopher. We are glad to see that in the general tone of the work Mr. Thompson is an improvement on his predecessors. His righteous indignation against the opposing school is not such as to prevent his discussing the subject with a show of calmness through at least the first half of the work. He gives a critical description of the methods of the various schools of the science, which, though entirely inadequate, is obviously meant to be fair and unprejudiced, and affords a crumb of satisfaction to the critic who has been vainly searching through the volumes of Mr. Carey to find a gleam of impartiality or good-sense. The school formed by Adam Smith, whose methods are now followed by the leading writers of all civilized countries, he calls the Cosmopolitan school, and he objects to it that it practically ignores the division of mankind into nations. From a protectionist point of view this is the fact, and the answer that would be made to the objection by the school is that, as applied to the particular question in the mind of the objector—namely, that of protection or free-trade—the division of mankind

* 'Social Science and National Economy. By Robt. Ellis Thompson, M.A., Professor of Social Science in the University of Pennsylvania.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

into nations is, from a purely economic point of view, non-essential. The position of the parties is similar to that of two neighbors, one of whom refuses to buy of the grocer who has the best and cheapest supply of goods from purely personal objections to him. The other, arguing that the grocer who sells the cheapest is the most profitable to deal with, is told that he ignores the facts that the man has red hair and beats his wife.

The most encouraging paragraph of all is on page 31, where a faint conception of the real difference between the Philadelphia and the Cosmopolitan schools is clearly indicated. Instead of the deductive method of the mathematical sciences adopted by the English school, he would "apply the inductive method of observation and generalization, which has produced such brilliant results in the natural sciences." Now, when we clear away the great mass of vague assertion with which the writings of the Philadelphia school are loaded, we find that the last sentence expresses with sufficient accuracy what is peculiar in the method which it adopts. Progress in the natural sciences consists in the discovery of certain laws, in blind obedience to which all natural events occur. When we say blind, we mean that the events occur without regard to consequences. If a barrel of powder is touched by a spark, it explodes as instantly and as certainly in the midst of a Sunday-school as on the open plain. If the whole human race were so situated as to be destroyed by the explosion, that fact would not delay it a moment. Were the acts of mankind governed by laws of this same nature, we should certainly have to apply the methods of the physical sciences in order to investigate them with success. Political economy, being concerned in investigating the consequences and the laws of human action, would then have to be pursued by the same methods. But every one knows that human acts are not, either individually or in the mass, governed by any such laws. There are no natural laws under which a steamship must leave port on a certain day, and be loaded with certain goods; a railway be built between certain points; a city arise in a certain region, or goods be imported from certain markets. The steamship leaves one port in order to reach another, and, to prevent her from leaving, a simple despatch that the first port was destroyed would be sufficient. A factory arises in a city, not in blind obedience to a law, but because the builders, after careful calculation, see a prospect of improving their condition by means of it. Hence any system which regards industrial phenomena, such as the rise of factories, the improvement of agriculture, and the extension of trade, as results of laws similar to those under which powder explodes and trees grow, can lead to nothing but confusion.

That which distinguishes the school of Adam Smith from the one now under consideration is not the doctrines which it teaches, but the recognition of the difference we have sought to elucidate. Its writers disagree on many minor points, but agree in considering man as a being able to take care of himself, and desirous of making a living, and of getting rich if he can, while all industrial phenomena are viewed as results of this propensity. He cultivates the ground, not because it is a natural law that the ground must be cultivated, but in order to secure a supply of food. They consider him also as a being of sufficient shrewdness to adopt the best attainable method of securing food, clothing, and home comforts. If, instead of making his coat at his own home, he sends across the ocean to a foreign pauper for it, it is because he finds that, after paying all expenses, he gets it cheaper than by making it himself. If the foreign capitalist sells him the coat at less than cost, for the purpose of destroying his factory, and of inundating him with cheap clothing, he will buy as long as the capitalist plays such a losing game, and when that unwise enemy puts up the price he will cease to buy, and, having a year's supply of clothing on hand, he will start his own factory going again.

A very good illustration of the difference between the two schools is afforded by Mr. Carey's favorite law of the occupation of the earth, to which Mr. Thompson devotes an entire chapter. This law is that poor soils are always cultivated first, and that agriculture always spreads to richer ones. A follower of Smith, even if he admitted the facts, would deny the existence of any such law. He would allege that the first settlers would always choose the richest soil which they were able to cultivate, and if, in any particular case, this should happen to be the poorest one, it would be simply because there was some material obstacle to the cultivation of the others. This would reduce the question to the purely physical one whether, as a matter of fact, soils are everywhere difficult to reclaim and cultivate in exact proportion to their fertility. But, in lieu of considering this question, our author follows Mr. Carey in seeking to trace the movements of population during the prehistoric ages, and professing to know exactly what regions were then most fertile, he declares that they were always the last to be settled. The conclusion is, that by an inexorable law, like that by which water flows downward, whenever a new country is peopled the settlers must begin by cultivating the poorest soil they can find, and gradually pass to that which is more fertile.

In a negative way, the work is a decided improvement on the writings of Mr. Carey. There is less bitterness of feeling, fewer paradoxes, and some respect for notorious facts. But of positive merits there are none. We find the same want of clear and definite statement, the same dreary repetition of vague and meaningless generalities, the same propensity to judge everything by the one shibboleth of protection, and the same absence of any consistent system of views on questions of currency, which characterize the writings of his predecessors. Much of the chapter on currency is written, unintentionally perhaps, on the Talleyrandian principle, under a supposed necessity for saying something. What shall we say to an author who complains of our national banking system that under it

"A vast amount of money is paid in transactions between distant parts of the nation by the cumbersome and expensive method of drawing and negotiating bills of exchange. The sales of the Western crops and the purchase of Eastern goods in exchange is [*sic*] actually carried on as if it were a transaction between the merchants of two different nations, and sometimes at an expense of several per cent. premium or discount to business men"?

Apart from all questions of governmental policy, which do not constitute an integral part of political economy as a science, the spectacle of a class of students in a university being fed with such mental food as this is by no means a cheering one. It seems impossible to find a writer who, while in favor of protection, or at least not an advocate of free-trade, shall still be able to give a fair and clear account of the method of reasoning in social science, and of how causes operate in the business world.

---

*The Romance of the Association;* or, One Last Glimpse of Charlotte Temple and Eliza Wharton. A curiosity of literature and life. By Mrs. Dall. (Cambridge: J. Wilson & Son. 1875. Sm. 8vo, pp. 102.)—Mrs. Dall came into possession of some dozen or more letters written by Elizabeth Whitman, and decided wisely that they would interest many who had heard of the heroine of a New England tragedy of the last century. Miss Whitman was a belle of Hartford a hundred years ago, the daughter of Rev. Elnathan W. and Abigail (Stanley) his wife. In 1778, Elizabeth started for Boston, ostensibly to visit friends, but never arrived there; later it was found that she had died in Danvers, having given birth to a dead child. Scandal was triumphant, as she had never confessed a marriage, though to her newly-formed friends at Danvers the unknown always asserted that she was a wife. A Mrs. Forster, of Watertown, wrought the facts and fancies into a novel, which had a great vogue, called 'Eliza Wharton; or, The Coquette.' As Miss Whitman had been betrothed to Rev. Joseph Buckminster, and as Pierrepont Edwards was pointed at as the father of the child, the story spread like wildfire.

Not only did Mrs. Dall obtain the letters, but she witnessed the reunion of one of the family with a long-parted friend, which happened by chance at a meeting of the American Association at Hartford in 1874. The happy meeting was doubtless very pleasant to the persons interested, but it is made the occasion by Mrs. Dall of a needless amount of gush. The letters are not very important, but their publication was a sensible idea. What we have to complain of, however, is her taking occasion to turn the matter into a long and rambling discussion of her own thoughts and feelings. Besides this, we have to complain seriously of Mrs. Dall's attempts to falsify the history of families. Eliza Whitman's maternal grandfather was Colonel Nathaniel Stanley, Treasurer of the Colony. He was descended from a Thomas Stanley, who came here with a brother Timothy; a third brother, John, dying on the passage. Another of his descendants was Charlotte Stanley, who was seduced in 1774 by an officer in the British army, and who was the heroine of a novel called 'Charlotte Temple.' At least we say that she was of this family on the authority of Mrs. Dall, who writes that "Charlotte was a near cousin of the mother of Eliza" Whitman. Mrs. Dall strives to impress her readers with the idea that these Connecticut Stanleys were of the family of the Earl of Derby. She calls the two ladies, Charlotte and Elizabeth, "women of the Stanley blood, descendants of the Great Earl, King of Man, and Charlotte de la Tremouille." Here we touch a definite statement; but James, seventh Earl of Derby, who married Charlotte de la Tremouille, was born in 1606 and was beheaded in 1651. Now, Thomas Stanley of Hartford is considered by Savage to be the emigrant who came over in the *Planter* in 1635, aged sixteen. Hence he was born in 1619, and could hardly be the son of the Earl, who was but thirteen years his senior. Even in profligate England, peers are rarely fathers at the age of thirteen. The eighth Earl, Charles, son of James, was born in 1627, and his two sons succeeded in turn; then, in 1736, the title went to a far-

away cousin, descended from the first Earl. What a pity it was not known that no less than three sons of the seventh Earl had emigrated to America and had left issue! Again, Mrs. Dall weaves some incomprehensible fancy about the Harts of Hartford as connections of Shakspere, and Thomas Stanley, of Tonge Castle in Shropshire, second son of the third Earl of Derby, and Thomas Stanley of Hartford. This is above our intelligence. Next she writes that soon after "Thomas Stanley was laid to rest, a daughter of William Harris married William Pierrepont, last Duke of Kingston," from whom sprang Sarah Pierrepont, wife of Jonathan Edwards, mother of Pierrepont Edwards. Now, the last Duke of Kingston was *Evelyn* Pierrepont, who married the notorious Miss Chudleigh, and died without issue in 1773, when his sister's son inherited his property. There was never a William Pierrepont, Duke of Kingston, and of the Earls of Kingston none married a Harris. What Mrs. Dall has in her mind is possibly an unfounded claim of the American Pierponts to belong to some branch of the English ducal family.

But it is hard to reason with a genealogist who writes:

"If a Puritan son came to New England with his family, the angry Cavalier left his name standing on the household book awhile. If the same man returned in 1640 (!) to take part with Oliver Cromwell, the unhappy father wrote against the name 'dead *sine prole*,' and this fact, not always capable of proof, when encountered at the Herald's office, is one great obstacle to establishing an American pedigree."

We do not well know what to call this story; it is at least absurd. If any American refuses to accept official records as a bar to a theoretical pedigree, he or she is not of the fraternity of genealogists. Mrs. Dall has offended in this way before. Three years ago she wrote to the journals that her ancestor, Thomas Wells, owned and founded the town of Wells, in Maine. The historian of the place, the late E. E. Bourne, showed conclusively that this was altogether wrong. In still later writings she has put forth other mistaken pedigrees. The object of her present book was a good one, but while we can pardon her rhapsodies about Eliza Wharton, we cannot tolerate this false claim of a noble pedigree for a quiet and well-behaved New England family. Another generation may accept it for truth.

---

*What Young People should Know.* The Reproductive Function in Man and the Lower Animals. By Burt G. Wilder. "Honi soit qui mal y pense." (Boston: Estes & Lauriat.)—"The complete title of this little work," says Prof. Wilder in his preface, "should be 'Some of the Things Young People should Know.'" But, to be exactly descriptive, the title must undergo still further emendation, so as to read, 'Some of the Things *Some* Young People should Know.' We insist upon this limitation, not because the author has offended against propriety or common prudence (as we suppose) in any respect, but because the physiological exposition, which occupies three-quarters of the text, is so technical in its method and its terminology as to resemble and really to constitute a lecture to medical students. They alone are capable of feeling an interest in or of understanding all the points of the discussion, which contains so much that is not merely unnecessary, but almost pedantic, that of medical students alone can it be fairly said that they "should know" anything about it. But to this class there is certainly no need of apologizing for treating a subject which is universally tabooed in common-school text-books, and the motto "honi soit" appears to be quite gratuitous. We have taken an indirect way of saying that Prof. Wilder has failed to popularize the instruction he wishes to convey, and one cannot help thinking how much better his master, Prof. Wyman, would have succeeded in this task—if it were possible to conceive of his undertaking it—when one suddenly comes upon a tribute to him (p. 52) which has no earthly connection with the chapter in which it is interpolated as a foot-note. On the other hand, fancy that great teacher saying, in a treatise like this, of a certain function: "No satisfactory explanation has, as yet, been offered. Certain facts in Comparative Anatomy and Physiology have led me to entertain a new view of its purpose, but I am not yet ready to publish it." This sounds a little odd, both from the intrusion of the author's personality and on other accounts. But it is not so queer an illustration of his regard for the doctrine of final causes as the passage on p. 42, where we read, of the arrangement of certain organs, that it "is offensive and apparently uncalled for. . . . We must conclude, however, that some deep significance attaches to this association," etc., etc.

In the second or ethical portion of the work there is much less to take exception to, and much to commend, though it is not entirely to our mind. Some things not in it we would have said, and some things in it we would have left unsaid. But the author's earnestness and purity of motive are here made so manifest as to disarm any criticism stronger than an expression of disappointment. That feeling we can but have for the book as a whole, believing that its usefulness is greatly restricted, and that the author's intention to gain the ear of all "young unmarried persons of both sexes" will not be realized. Medical students, as we have said, and parents, at least for their children's sake, may find instruction and profit in it.

---

*The Land of the Czar.* By O. W. Wahl. (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong.)—This is a stout octavo volume of 400 pages, replete with information about Russia, and very convenient for reference. An account of the various peoples embraced in the Empire occupies more than half of the work. This is followed by a summary review of Russian history down to the present reign; and chapters on the church, and on the languages and literature of the country, fill out the scheme of the author. Herr Wahl is an apologist for Russia, but evidently a simple-minded and not a paid defender. The moderation of his judgment of her rulers and her policy is unmistakable naïveté, and not vulgar whitewash. This makes his historical narrative amusing when otherwise it would be hopelessly dry and unattractive. Much more readable are the earlier and the later portions of the book, especially the survey of Russian literature, which, if it does not inspire us with a very high respect for the author's critical ability, lays us under no little obligation to him for the information which it contains.

What most mars the usefulness of this compendium, apart from the want of method pervading the whole, is the faulty idiom in which it is composed, and the un-English and unscientific spelling of Russian proper names. The idiom is occasionally too bad to excuse even in the proof-reader, let alone the publishers. Ungrammatical sentences, too, like this (p. 333): "The great guide to a just appreciation of the intellectual life of nations *are* their languages and literature," are much too common; and once in a while one meets with an extraordinary effort like the following: "The Russian Monarchy of our days, into the colossal proportions of which the preceding chapters have given the reader some insight—if now it extends over 500,000 square miles—in the year 1462, it possessed but 18,500." The punctuation is frequently, as in the instance just cited, discreditable to everybody but the author. His spelling is by turns German, French, English, and Russian, the German forms naturally predominating; and the inconsistency is of course very great. The great Tartar chief, whose multiform name is perhaps most familiar to English eyes as Genghis Khan, appears here on page 270 and generally as *Tchinggis-Khan*, in the index without the hyphen, and on page 358 as *Tshinggiskhan*. This spelling is as distinctly German as the Gotha geographers' *Udschidschi* for Livingstone's Ujiji. The Russian general whom English usage calls Suwarow, Herr Wahl or his translator calls *Souvarov*, a better spelling than the former in some respects, but mongrel at best, and having the fault of ending in *v*, instead of in *f* or *ff*, which the best usage now reserves for proper names of persons. The opposite fault is exhibited in *Kieff* (page 355). For the familiar Janissaries we have *Yanitshars; Vallachia* for Wallachia; on the same page (266) *Y*aroslav and *J*aroslav; on page 300, *Dnepr*, on page 306, *Njémen*. Forms like *Mithridat* for Mithridates, and *Kreml* for Kremlin may also be pointed out, and finally, not to multiply examples, for *Donski* Cossacks (page 289), and *Kubanski* Tartars (page 290), the English idiom would have been content with Don Cossacks, etc.

---

*Un Vaincu.* Souvenirs du Général Robert Lee. Par Mme. B. Boissonnas. (Paris: Hetzel et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.)—It would not be easy to name a book more cordially to be commended to those who desire a general knowledge of our war than this one. To those who like biography, and who are fond of reading French, it presents especial attractions. It is most agreeably written, and its convenient size, good paper, and clear print make it welcome to the hand and eye. It is gracefully dedicated to the sons of the authoress. She says to them: "J'aime les braves gens, je crois qu'il y a toujours à gagner en la compagnie des nobles âmes," but she tells them frankly that "her hero" fought for the South—"la terre de l'esclavage"; and adds, on a later page, "Parce que sa croyance était sincère, parce que son erreur était loyale, nous osons, sans cacher nos regrets, réclamer pour lui le profond respect de tous les gens de cœur." It is touching and striking to find the following sentiment expressed by a woman of the vanquished French race: "Il avait un de ces caractères rares chez tous les peuples, et que notre pays devra produire s'il se soucie de recouvrer sa force: une de ces natures où la fermeté n'a pas besoin d'illusions."

The book is a biography of General Lee from his birth to his death, but two-thirds of it are devoted to the war of Secession and to the part

which he played in it. It is a very good account of the operations of the Army of the Potomac and of the Army of Northern Virginia, and a surprisingly good one to have been written by a foreigner and a woman; for, with all women's gifts of composition, their nature and their education do not qualify them for the composition of military books. It has many inaccuracies, but that is natural, and we will not dwell upon them further than to warn the uninstructed reader not to accept the repeated statement that Grant and Meade commanded distinct armies in the Virginia campaign of 1864–5, and to say that Gen. Hooker, though disgracefully beaten at Chancellorsville, carried off many scores more than "un seul canon" when he crossed the Rappahannock in retreat. We have read 'Un Vaincu' with interest and pleasure, and we hope that many readers of the *Nation* will see for themselves whether they are not rewarded for the purchase of it.

---

*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ.* By Chancellor Sir John Fortescue. With notes by Andrew Amos, and life by Lord Clermont. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)—This is a publication which we have too long delayed noticing. The house of Robert Clarke & Co. have published a number of legal classics from time to time, and laid not only the profession of the law but the public under obligations to them for the excellent manner in which the work has been done. Fortescue's treatise was selected as the third of their series, and Amos's edition of 1825 was chosen for republication. The publishers, fortunately before it was too late, heard of Lord Clermont's privately printed edition of Fortescue's life and works, and through him obtained a copy for use in the preparation of the book for the press. The Cincinnati edition therefore contains Lord Clermont's "carefully corrected revision of both text and translation," Amos's notes, and Lord Clermont's life. The book itself is so well known that little need be said of it. It is one of those classics which every lawyer is supposed to read, though few can with truth say that they have accomplished this task, and their very stings of conscience make them desire to possess it. Fortescue was Chief-Justice and Chancellor to Henry the Sixth, and his life belongs to the stormy period of the fifteenth century, his fidelity and devotion to the Lancastrian party lasting till the battle of Tewkesbury and the murder of Henry and the death of his son placed Edward the Fourth in possession of the kingdom. When Fortescue was taken prisoner, Edward pardoned him and restored his estates, on the humiliating condition that he should recant or rather refute his own arguments proving the right of the House of Lancaster to the throne. Intellectually, this was not very difficult to do, for the arguments on either side were of a very general and inconclusive kind, drawn mainly from the Scriptures. He had previously proved that Edward had no right to the throne as claiming it through the female line, and, inasmuch as the Bible and the Fathers were unanimous upon the point that man was ordained to be above woman, it seemed clear enough that Edward had no title; but he now discovered his mistake, and saw that such passages as that in Genesis, "thou shalt be under the power of man, and he shall be thy lord," were capable of an explanation in no way conflicting with Edward's title, for it meant, not that a woman should be under the power of all men, or of many men, but that she should be under the power of some man; "and that every woman is under the power and lordship of some one man . . . may not be denied, for every woman is under the power and lordship of the Pope, which is a man and the Vicar of Christ, God and man." It must not be supposed from this, however, that Sir John Fortescue was a sycophant or a time-server, for he had given, in exile and suffering on behalf of his old master, many proofs to the contrary. But he felt, probably, that the struggle was over, and that it was not the part of a wise man to protract it further. The treatise 'De Laudibus' was composed by Fortescue, when in exile, for the benefit of the young prince, Henry's son, and takes the form of a dialogue between the two, in which the old Chief-Justice sets forth to the young man the glories of the common law, explains to him the differences between it and the civil law, and, it is needless to add, effectually convinces his pupil of the inferiority of the latter. No good lawyer would teach law now in this way; indeed, many a page of Fortescue might be taken as an excellent example of the way not to teach law. Nevertheless, and partly on that very account, the book is the more interesting and, as a classic, valuable.

---

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* |
|---|---|
| Beal (S.), The Romantic Legend of Śâkya Buddha, swd. | (Trübner & Co.) |
| Blackwell (Mrs A. B.), The Sexes throughout Nature | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25 |
| Evers (H.), Navigation in Theory and Practice | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50 |
| Eggleston (G. C.), How to Make a Living | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25 |
| Fyffe (C. A.), History of Greece (History Primers) | (Macmillan & Co.) 0 40 |
| Förster (E.), Peter von Cornelius, swd. | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Hirsch (A.), Verhütung und Bekämpfung der Volkskrankheiten, swd. | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Jordan (Dr. W.), Geographische Resultaten der Expedition in die libysche Wüste, swd. | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Jouault (A.), Abraham Lincoln | F. W. Christern) |
| Lloyd (F.) and Newton (W. N.), Prussia's Representative Man | (Trubner & Co.) |
| Laas (Prof. E.), Gymnasium und Realschule, swd. | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Nashér (Dr. S.), Wissenschaftliche Vorträge, swd. | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Stowe (Mrs. H. B.), We and Our Neighbors | (J. B. Ford & Co.) 1 75 |
| The Best Reading, revised edition | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50 |
| U. S. Patent Association's Publications, Vol. I. | (J. R. Osgood & Co.) |
| Whitney (Prof. J. D.), Yosemite Guide-book, new ed. | (California) |
| Wood (Rev. J. G.), Man and Beast Here and Hereafter | (Geo. Routledge & Sons) |


SECOND EDITION.

"*The best novel of the spring.*"
—Tribune.

*Mr. Smith.*

A Part of his Life. A Novel. By L. B. Walford. 16mo, Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

RECENT STANDARD PUBLICATIONS.

Taine's Notes on Paris. $2 50.
Sainte-Beuve's English Portraits. $2.
Maine's Early History of Institutions. $3.
Jones's Africa. $5.
Sumner's American Currency. $3.
Moscheles's Recent Music and Musicians. $2.
Deutsch's Talmud and other Literary Remains. $4.
Conway's Sacred Anthology. $4.
Chesney's Military Biography. $2 50.
Gautier's A Winter in Russia. $2.
Adams's Democracy and Monarchy in France. $2 50.
Mill's Three Essays on Religion. $2 50.

RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES OF THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

Price $1 25 each.

Alexander, Mrs.—Ralph Wilton's Weird.
Fraser-Tytler, C. C.—Mistress Judith.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't.
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall It Be?
Alcestis, A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About, E.—The Notary's Nose.
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*Starr & Marcus,*

*Jewellers and Silversmiths.*

DIAMONDS AND GEMS.

*Works of Art in Stone Cameos.*

BRONZES, CLOCKS, AND ORNAMENTS.

*22 John Street, New York.*

*RARE AND VALUABLE BOOKS,*
AT ENGLISH BOOKSTALL PRICES.
Now ready, Catalogue No. 5, free on application.
JOHN EVANS, Importer,
318 Hudson Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.

*F. W. CHRISTERN,*
FOREIGN BOOKSELLER AND IMPORTER,
77 UNIVERSITY PLACE, NEW YORK.
Large assortments of the publications of Charpentier, Didier, Didot, Hachette, Lévy Frères, etc., on hand; also complete lists of Tauchnitz's Collection of British Authors, and Teuner's Greek and Roman Classics. All European periodicals received weekly in parcels.

*Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

*JAMES TOLMAN & CO.,*
FINE CUSTOM TAILORING,
No. 249 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON,
Respectfully invite attention to their stock of goods for gentlemen's garments. All orders carefully and promptly executed. Location very central, being midway between School and Court Streets.

"*THE READER*" *discusses on page* ii.
*a new and remarkable work just published by Macmillan, containing the argument of Science in favor of Immortality, and called "The Unseen Universe."*

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 20, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE Alabama Legislature has been engaged in investigating the election to the United States Senate of Mr. George E. Spencer, who, it will be remembered, was re-elected last autumn. Spencer, it seems, feeling convinced that there were serious dangers threatening the negro and the Union man throughout the South, went to General Terry and urged him to send troops into the State, which was done. The election took place, but unfortunately there was every reason to suppose that the majority of the Legislature was Democratic. Nevertheless, Mr. Spencer, being a man of energy and perseverance, determined not to let this stand in his way, and proceeded to take measures looking to the organization of two legislative bodies, one in the Court-Room and the other in the Capitol. The Court-Room branch of the Government he took charge of himself, and as the number of members together was hardly large enough to be imposing, or to have a good moral effect, he went to work to increase it. This he found a simple task, not being obliged to go through with the formalities of an election; he merely found it necessary to hire a number of gentlemen to come and "represent counties," and in this way he soon got together a quorum. The only remaining obstacle in the way of a triumphant election was the possibility that the Capitol Legislature might have a quorum too, and proceed to the election of a Democrat. To prevent this, one of the members of the Capitol Legislature was bribed to stay away, and another was drugged and made insensible. The campaign as a whole would have required a good deal of money, but as the money used by Mr. Spencer came from the Post-office and the Internal Revenue offices, it cost him nothing. Spencer was elected, but afterwards the existence of two legislatures was referred to Washington, and a compromise was proposed by the Attorney-General. It was found, however, that unless a Democratic senator could be unseated and a Republican put in his place, the "record" would show Spencer's election to be void for want of a quorum, notwithstanding all the trouble he had taken to get one. The payment of a few hundred dollars settled this difficulty, however, and the whole thing seemed as nicely arranged as possible.

Unfortunately, the evidence brought out by the investigation seems to render it unlikely that Mr. Spencer will be able to retain his seat in the Senate. The "Assistant-secretary of the Republican State Executive Committee" produced a letter of Spencer's in which he directs the use of the troops in "making arrests" in three counties, but adds that he does not wish his name mentioned in the matter. Another witness, a Republican member of the Legislature, gave some interesting information on the subject of outrages and intimidation. He and others, he says, made a requisition for troops before the election, it being understood that they were to be placed at the disposal of "Mayer and other revenue officers" "wherever intimidation was necessary." These troops were accompanied by United States marshals, provided with fictitious warrants with the names of citizens prominently displayed, and were marched through various counties. Intimidation, however, was rather dull, for some reason, and so the witness, to put a little life into the campaign, shot a hole in his hat, and reported himself as attacked by Ku-klux, and sent troops after the assailants. Altogether, the evidence is very instructive.

At the Detroit meeting of the Social Science Association Mr. Dorman B. Eaton read a paper on Civil-Service Reform, in which he gave the history of the attempt to improve the character of the service, and explained its failure. He lays most of the blame on Congress, but does not think the President can escape responsibility. What he says about the President, however, is so carefully guarded and qualified that the general impression left by the address is that the failure was due rather to the gigantic nature of the task than to his want of fitness for the work. With regard to the earnestness and determination of the President, Mr. Eaton falls into the mistake of imputing to him a strength of interest and conviction which his public acts unfortunately disprove. When we wish to know the intentions of General Grant as to the civil service, to discern whether he is influenced by lofty and unselfish motives and sets himself a high standard, we always proceed in one way: we ask ourselves what kind of appointments he has made. These are the best possible tests of his zeal for reform and of his standards as to character. When we think of Sickles, Casey, Shepherd, to say nothing at all about "nepotism," we are convinced that the President does not begin to know what reform means; and the proof of this is so clear and complete that we cannot be expected to pay much attention to reports about his motives and intentions, which after all come indirectly from himself. As to Congress, it certainly was much to blame; but surely no one who went into the civil-service reform movement ever expected Congressmen to give up their most valuable privilege without a struggle, and indeed the hostility of Congress was one of the things most certainly to be counted on. When the Republicans formally undertook to purify the civil service, the system of appointments prevailing at Washington was not a novelty. It was an old, established abuse, and to complain of the hostility of Congress is almost as strange a thing to do as it would be for the advocates of liquor-law reform to deprecate the hostility of the proprietors of "bucket-shops."

When the members of Congress have all reached that stage of development in which they voluntarily establish competitive examination for all offices at their disposal, as one or two of them do now in the case of West-Point cadetships, there will be no longer any need of a reform movement at all; but at present the greed of the Congressman for power and influence in the distribution of offices is the very thing against which the reform is directed. The President when, after four years' experience, he was renominated, certainly knew this; and for him now, on the ground that Congress is growing more hostile, publicly to wash his hands of it, and treat the matter as one which he might take up or drop at pleasure, is by no means creditable to him. The President as a reformer has managed to earn a very queer reputation, not merely by his civil-service performances, but in other fields as well. Whenever any gigantic frauds are unearthed—like those of the whiskey ring—or when an incompetent officer is removed to make way for a fit person, as in the case of Mr. Douglass, or when the Attorney-General issues a reformatory order with regard to such a matter as applications for pardons, the news is at once telegraphed all over the country that "the President is heartily in favor of the change," the President is "determined to put a stop to these villanies," or that "the President will use every effort to facilitate the officers of the Government in their struggle with the thieves"—producing the impression that though, under ordinary circumstances, his tastes and character lead him to prefer incompetent to competent subordinates, to like villains, particularly those who prey upon the government he has charge of, and to obstruct, when he can, the efforts made to bring them to justice, still, in this particular case, he is willing to make an exception and do his duty.

John C. Breckinridge died on Monday at his home in Lexington. He was the last Vice-President under the old régime, and the beaten

leader of the South in its last constitutional struggle against the anti-slavery sentiment of the North, which three "doughface" Administrations had fully ripened. He was one of the last of the Southern senators to quit Congress and join the open rebellion, and to the last remained in active service as a Confederate general, displaying as much bravery as constancy, and keeping aloof from those personal quarrels which so disfigured the closing scenes of the Confederacy. In his whole career he never excited the animosity which the less temperate and dignified partisans of slavery engendered, and in the case of no one of the leaders of the lost cause is it easier for the Northern public to forget and forgive, or more natural to lament the still early closing of a career which was precocious even for our hot-house politics. Mr. Breckinridge passes away just as what seems like the dying echo of the rebellion comes up to us from Texas, where Jefferson Davis and Gen. Bragg have been reviewing the militia on a grand scale and uttering sentiments of peace and patriotism. The militia were of course chiefly ex-Confederate soldiers, and Mr. Davis reminded them of the fact, but he also told them that they now owed devotion to the flag of their country, and should fight for it when the need came as they had fought for his flag. This talk was received with great favor by all who heard it, and we trust that it has been read everywhere with pleasurable emotions. There are, however, not a few radical spirits who, if Mr. Davis had delivered an "irreconcilable" harangue at Houston, would have cited it as a proof of the irredeemable depravity of the slaveholder, and we fear that they will on *a priori* grounds decide that what he actually did say was sheer hypocrisy, boding no good to the Republic. Such persons are, of course, at this date the real irreconcilables; the times change, and they do not change with them.

---

Governor Tilden's message on municipal government is an able paper, showing great familiarity with the subject, and a determined disposition to reform abuses. Mr. Tilden refers with satisfaction to the passage of the "Public Remedies" bills, suggests the passage of a general act applying to all the cities in the State, and thinks that "additional measures of remedy and restraint" are much needed. The taxpayers ought to be invested, he says, with large powers of association and organization for the enforcement of publicity and for the purpose of local investigation and the institution of suits against delinquent officials. "They might also be endowed with capacity to take and execute contracts for public work, under the supervision of and on the plans fixed by the municipal officers. There is no reason, for instance, why the persons taxable for the improvement of a street should not be allowed to associate and by their own agents execute the work for which they pay." The Governor proposes that a "commission be appointed to report to the next Legislature such laws or constitutional amendments as may be required." The message has been expected for some time, and, coming after the excitement of the canal exposure, has not attracted the attention which the importance of the subject merits. The Assembly has succeeded in passing a Rapid Transit Bill, which has the approval of those who have given the subject most thought; and with the underground railroad to Harlem completed, and an elevated railway on the west side of the city, and the bridge connecting Brooklyn with New York made a public work, it begins to look as if this much-vexed question was gradually disposing of itself.

---

We beg to call the attention of a correspondent, who wrote to us the other day complaining of the severity of our strictures upon the Wisconsin code of legislative ethics, to a paragraph which is now going the rounds of the papers with reference to a loan proposed to a foreign capitalist secured by Wisconsin real estate. The negotiations are described as follows in the Chicago *Tribune*:

"The owners of a valuable piece of productive real estate in Wisconsin applied to the agents of a European house for a loan of $100,000 to further improve the property. The land tendered as mortgage security was appraised at from $600,000 to $700,000. The agent replied: 1. That the security appeared not only good but ample, and they were accustomed to rate Wisconsin men, as a class, as desirable borrowers, prompt and thrifty. 2. That they were then looking out for long-term mortgage investments, and had the funds here in bank, and if the land offered as security had been situated just over the border, so as to be in some such State as Illinois, they would make the loan forthwith; but—3. That, owing to the recent legislation, they could not make a mortgage loan on lands in Wisconsin at any rate or on any security whatever. That the holders of the Wisconsin railroad-bonds had really the same class of security—a mortgage on real estate—and it had been shown the title to the security was hazardous. That the European view of the case was that it was not a matter of policy or politics, but of common honesty; and for the present they wished to have no financial dealings in Wisconsin on any security that could not be moved out of the State as soon as necessary. The owners of the land, Wisconsin gentlemen of the best standing and responsibility, went away surprised and disturbed."

---

If an attempt to solve railroad problems has resulted in putting the State of Wisconsin into a particularly hot frying-pan, Massachusetts, as the result of similar attempts, seems to be plunging into the fire. This latter State now owns that enormous and greedy elephant—the Hoosac Tunnel—which has just swallowed another appropriation of $131,000. What shall be done with it is a question which brings distress to the visage and confusion to the mind of the average legislator. The State also owns over twenty-four thousand shares of the stock of the Boston and Albany Railroad, has (or had) a large pecuniary interest in the now bankrupt Boston, Hartford, and Erie road, and has smaller amounts invested in other roads. There are few States in which railroad questions have been more extensively discussed, and no other State, probably, in which so many of the most intelligent men have devoted themselves to the task of finding correct solutions. Nevertheless, the true spirit of Wisconsin legislation was exhibited in several bills recently introduced into the Legislature, which propose to restrict the earnings of the Boston and Albany Railroad to six or seven per cent. per annum. A large amount of legislation of some kind is asked for also by the recently-formed Cheap Transportation Association, an association which the Chicago *Tribune* thinks "has committed itself to the wildest theories about State omnipotence," and the proposed methods of which we cannot quite make out, notwithstanding extensive reports of public speeches and of conversations between members and newspaper reporters. The essential purpose of the Association, however, is to secure free or very cheap transportation for merchandise and grain between Boston and Chicago; and if this cannot be secured in any other way, then, in the language of one of the prominent members, the intention is "to move upon the Legislature." On the whole, perhaps no better State than Massachusetts could be selected as a field for experiment in railroad problems, especially if the people are disposed to attempt them. Almost every possible phase of railroad complication is now exhibited in that State, and the people are beginning to recognize the necessity of the establishment of some definite system of management and of ownership.

---

The third annual meeting of the Silk Manufacturers' Association, held in this city last week, was followed by the usual dinner at Delmonico's, and the dinner was followed by the customary speeches in favor of protection to "infant industries." How much longer this particular infant will require to be carried in arms is a question which should be easily answered in view of certain facts brought forward by members of the Association. The silk industry is now exceedingly prosperous, some departments having increased in production during last year no less than forty per cent. of the entire increase of the past twenty-five years. To our own knowledge, one large company of over thirty years' standing did more business in the month of April last than in any previous month of its history. The price of raw silk during 1874–5 ruled lower than at any time for the previous twenty years. The wages of operatives have been lessened, and the people have bought more largely of American silks than ever before. In view of these facts, and of the added facts that revenue frauds in silk goods have for years been notorious, and

that Government has recently lost through the operations of one man over a million dollars in two years, one might have supposed that these manufacturers would have discussed the amount of reduction in the tariff on silk goods which could be made with safety to themselves, with profit to the Government, and with great saving to the pockets of the general public. On the contrary, however, the speeches of the President, of Mr. Carey, of Judge Kelley, and nearly all the other speeches (with the exception of the witty speech of Mr. S. S. Cox) were in simple laudation of the benefits of protection. With one expressed sentiment of the President, however, we desire most heartily to concur, namely, that in which he "hoped the time is not far distant when American trade-marks and the English language will replace foreign terms and imperial and royal crowns, which have hitherto been almost necessary to give to American products a respectable passport even to public consideration." Some curious results have followed this use of deceptive labels and trade-marks. As we mentioned some time ago, when speaking of the names of New England towns, the village of Florence in Massachusetts received its name in order that its silk company might shave the truth more closely in announcing that its sewing-silk was manufactured in Florence, the name of the place being followed by the abbreviation Mass. in almost undistinguishable letters, and the label being printed in Italian.

---

The taking of testimony in the Beecher trial ended last week, and as we go to press the argument for the defence begins. In the meantime, a question which Mr. Beecher's congregation seems never to have troubled itself about has been raised in another quarter, and settled to the general satisfaction of the public. We refer to the withdrawal of the Rev. Geo. B. Bacon from the Board of Trustees of the American Congregational Union because that body insisted on retaining Mr. Henry C. Bowen as one of his colleagues. Dr. Bacon, when pushed for an explanation, said frankly, in effect, that he didn't think Mr. Bowen's Congregationalism of a kind which was entitled to a share in the management of the Union, while as for his religious connection, the publisher of the *Independent* was certainly no representative of Plymouth Church. Mr. Henry W. Sage, whom Dr. Bacon wished substituted for Mr. Bowen on the Board, no doubt unites all the desirable qualities for the office. At the annual sale of pews, however, it would puzzle an outsider to decide, as between two such high bidders for front seats, which of them was more devoted to the church. We believe Mr. Bowen makes a distinction between Plymouth Church and its pastor, and that he holds on to his pew and his membership by a sort of squatter sovereignty through every vicissitude in his relations to Mr. Beecher. Apparently, this is entirely satisfactory to the church, or has been hitherto; and as Mr. Bowen has long been known to be the bitter enemy of Mr. Beecher, we do not expect to see any movement made to drop his name from the rolls on account of the part he has taken in the trial. But will it not then occur to Dr. Bacon that he has been over-fastidious as to the company he keeps, and that the Christian fellowship of Plymouth Church and the tripartite covenant is not incompatible with "personal self-respect" when extended to the American Congregational Union?

---

A Catholic priest, Father Gerdemann, has just been acquitted in Philadelphia of a charge of embezzlement, though, as only a fellow-Catholic and a colored man stood out for him, he had a narrow escape. The facts elicited showed the extent to which the Catholic clergy are made bankers of the funds of their parishioners. With the loans and deposits averaging several hundred thousand dollars for successive years, Father Gerdemann built one of the handsomest churches in the city, and only after his marriage with a Protestant, the organist of his church, did the credit he had enjoyed fall to pieces. He seems to have been a very poor man of business, who kept his books in a slovenly way, and, although he was in constant communication with the Bishop, who is the great banker and tax-gatherer, there was no system of supervision and accountability. Apparently there was no intention to defraud either the church or the depositors, but the exposure must shake the confidence hitherto felt by the faithful who have deposited their savings, amounting in the aggregate to vast sums, with their priests. The proceeds of these build the great Catholic churches, seminaries, and other establishments; but as soon as income falls off, as it does in times like the present, the capital often beomes difficult to find. A case of undoubted fraud in a secular corporation has also come to light in Philadelphia, a prominent Democratic politician named Fry having been detected in the overissue of stock of a horse-railway company, of which he was president. The capital was ten thousand shares, and he increased it by forty or fifty thousand more, on which he borrowed three or four hundred thousand dollars. Mr. Fry was not a priest, but he was a church-member in good standing, and doubtless his credit was the better for it. The cheapening of iron brought ruin upon a furnace in the Lehigh Valley in which he was interested, and led, as a means of bolstering up the company's notes and his own, to the desperate expedient just described.

---

Erie has been dragged to the front during the week, and its unsound spots laid bare before the public. The Company has $578,000 interest on bonds to meet June 1, and $202,000 more July 1. It had been reported that the Company would be unable to pay these amounts without pawning some of its assets, the most valuable part of which consists of coal-lands. The directors very properly resolved that the true condition of the Company should be made known to the shareholders, and appointed a committee, consisting of the President, Mr. Jewett, and two Directors, Messrs. John Taylor Johnston and E. D. Morgan, to prepare a statement. This statement appeared on Saturday. It makes no mention of the floating debt, reported to be from $1,800,000 to $3,500,000, nor does it give a list of the assets of the Company. But it does show a most deplorable condition of affairs, both in regard to past management and present railway traffic. The bonded debt has been raised to $54,394,100, and a considerable part of the late issues yielded the Company less than one-half its face value. The net earnings during the first quarter of the year were much below the interest on the bonded debt, and rates were then higher for through business than they are now. The war between the trunk-lines which was begun by the Baltimore and Ohio and the Pennsylvania has injured all the roads, but none more than Erie, which is the least able to bear the losses of such a struggle. The statement, which gives a good deal of almost startling information in regard to the relations of the Erie with the Atlantic and Great Western, and with Mr. James McHenry and his London bankers, concludes by expressing the opinion that if aid is extended to the Company it may work out of its embarrassments, and in time become a solid property. The Company, it is known, has the offer of a loan from the Delaware and Hudson and the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Companies, although no mention of this is made in the statement. These companies covet the coal-lands of the Erie, and make their offer of aid contingent on control of them. The speculation in Erie has been large both here and in England; the stock declined early in the week, more in this market than in London, and accordingly, large amounts, estimated at as high a figure as 50,000 shares, were sent across the water. The effect of these shipments was to make enough exchange to reduce materially the exports of coin for the week, and further, to have a very important influence on the foreign exchange market, which has since fallen to rates which preclude the export of coin at a profit. But this was not wholly due to Erie; another gold clique has been formed, and stands as a menace over the gold and foreign exchange markets. Bankers are anxious to sell bills, and buyers hold off, hoping to lend their gold at profitable rates each day. The banks continue to gain in currency, the legal-tender average being up to $59,300,000, and the surplus reserve being nearly $12,000,000. General trade during the week has been dull. At the Stock Exchange all classes of shares have declined. Mr. Bristow has called in $5,000,000 more 5-20's, interest to cease August 15, in response to a request of the syndicate, who have sold an equal amount of 5-20's in Europe.

## THE MORAL OF THE WHISKEY FRAUDS.

IT is certainly not because we put a low estimate on the conduct of the Treasury in the late raid on the whiskey manufacturers that we regret extremely the effect which it appears to be producing on the public mind. Nothing could be more creditable than the way in which the blow was both planned and executed by Mr. Bristow, and we may add that no other course was open to him under the circumstances. But the way in which a large portion of the press has received the matter leads us to fear that it may create or strengthen an impression that this is the proper way to prevent fraud and ensure the honest collection of the public revenue. The secresy and suddenness and completeness of the performance are things for which the people have had a strong taste ever since the beginning of the war, because they have been associated in their minds with many happy bits of service to the Government at very trying times. Mr. Stanton made his political fortune by this sort of *coup de main*, and so on a smaller scale did Ben Butler. It brings the Government out before the public eye in a sort of tremendous majesty, which during the dark days of the war carried comfort to many a fainting heart. How strong the hankering after it still continues to be in many quarters, even when it presents itself without a semblance of legality, without even the flimsy disguise of "the war power," was well shown in the indulgence with which some people regarded General Sheridan's late plan for the pacification of Louisiana. We do not say all this, we repeat, by way of condemning Mr. Bristow, or in even the smallest degree belittling his work. It is good work, the best possible work under the circumstances; but the circumstances are both dangerous and unfortunate. They are such, in fact, as to make it very likely that the catching of all these "whiskey thieves," far from putting an end to "whiskey rings" and other fraudulent combinations of a similar character, will probably ensure their revival and perpetuation.

Consider for one moment what has happened. The Secretary of the Treasury discovers, by means of outside informers, that a very large number of manufacturers in various parts of the country are engaged in the commission of systematic frauds on the Government on an enormous scale. Far from giving instructions, however, to the officers of the Government specially charged with the collection of the revenue to put the law in force against the delinquents, he carefully conceals from them all knowledge of his discovery, and indeed treats them throughout as accomplices in the fraud, and employs new and unofficial agents to bring his plans to maturity. The officers of the Government, too, on getting an inkling of what is going on, far from hastening to the support of their chief, at once place themselves at the disposal of the criminals, and render them every assistance in their power by information and otherwise, so that to outwit its own servants the Government is actually obliged to invent a new cipher. We speak soberly when we say that we know of no modern country in Christendom in which a parallel or anything approaching a parallel for this state of things could be found. We believe it would indeed be necessary to go further east than Turkey, possibly as far as Central Asia, to find anything like it. Things like it occurred in France under the old régime, but, we venture to say, neither there nor anywhere else in the Western world since the French Revolution. As we tell the story above, and we have told it without adornments, it reads like a huge joke, got up for a Presidential campaign; but the fact is that it is told by the Government organs themselves with pride and rejoicing, as if a great commercial country was to be congratulated on having its revenue collected in the nineteenth century by somewhat the same processes as those by which the kings of the Merovingian dynasty would have collected theirs, if they had had any.

Now, the cause of all this is very simple. There is nothing mysterious about either the "Whiskey Ring" or the connivance of the Government officers at its operations. There is nothing either about them at all peculiar to this country or this age. Both one and the other are natural products of human nature. If a tax is put on the manufacture of a commodity, dishonest manufacturers will evade it if they can; and if the system of inspection is lax, the manufacture will gradually fall into the hands of dishonest men in any country. If in any country, too, no pains is taken to secure honest and capable men for the work of inspection; if officers are appointed without reference either to character or capacity, paid small salaries, and made dependent for the retention of their places on favoritism and not on desert, they will either steal themselves or connive at stealing by others, or do both. This is not a law of politics simply, it is a law of business, which has been known ever since men began to pay other men for rendering them service; as a law of business, it is as familiar as his alphabet to every American above the age of ten. That the community should not be shocked by seeing the business of the Government taken away from its operation, is a striking illustration of the way in which use will reconcile the most intelligent communities to the most flagrant abuses and absurdities. For it must be remembered that the work of raising the public revenue is *business* in the strictest as well as largest sense of the term. It consists in collecting from some people what they owe, keeping the money safely, and paying it out to other people to whom it is due, under a proper system of accounts. In other words, it differs only in detail from the business of a banking-house. The Treasury, in fact, is a banking-house, carrying on business, not for private gain, but for public benefit, and the people of the United States guarantee it against the ordinary consequences of fraud and mismanagement, or, in other words, say to the managers, "Steal and waste as you may, we will honor your drafts and see that you do not become bankrupt."

Now, fancy a private banker filling his counting-room with clerks and porters at very low wages on the recommendation of persons who only knew them as active politicians, without exacting any guarantees of character and competency. Fancy his becoming aware that they were in league with outside forgers and gamblers, and were in the habit of assisting these persons in robbing the bank and falsifying the accounts; and suppose he were then to pass his nights with his private friends hiding under the counter in order to catch them, and, having caught them, were simply to dismiss them, and ask the gentlemen who had recommended them to nominate others of the same sort for the vacant places. Of course, such a banker would be set down as insane, and would very speedily disappear from business. Nevertheless, this is very much the way in which the banking business of the Government is at this moment being done. As far as our observation has gone, people are much more occupied with the vast extent of the whiskey frauds, and with the fact that the seizures will bring in a million of money or thereabouts to the Treasury, than with the condition of the civil service which has made these frauds possible; and yet the one is a very trifling matter, and the other all-important. The most violent remedy we have yet seen suggested for the corruption of the service is that "the guilty officers must be retired," which is no remedy at all, because after they have been "retired" the persons who recommended them will be requested or allowed to supply others of precisely the same sort for the vacancies, who will be employed on precisely the same terms; and the "whiskey thieves" will begin once more, after a safe interval, to weave a new web of fraud, and the revenue officers, mindful of the shortness of their tenure and of the uncertainty of life, will once more go into partnership with them, and so on *da capo*.

There is no real remedy except in a change of system. The collection and disbursement of Government money must be performed by the same kind of persons and under the same guarantees as to accountability and integrity as the money of individuals or corporations. Money is money, no matter to whom it belongs, and rouses just the same passions, creates just the same temptations, and has to be protected by just the same barriers. That the honest people of the United States should allow the politicians to treat the public funds as mere stakes in a game of chance is a most disheartening phenomenon. A private individual who threw temptations in the way of his employés and filled his business with premiums on

knavery and discouragements for integrity, would be justly reprobated, even if swift punishment did not come on him in the loss of credit. How much stronger should be the reprobation visited on a system which makes the public taxes an instrument of wholesale demoralization of the community! When one reads the wretched fashion in which the Government organ glories in the shame of a revelation which shows the civil service to be rotten to the core, one's amusement is apt to lead him to forget the amount of corruption of character and destruction of morals which lies behind these whiskey frauds. Probably not a barrel of whiskey escapes taxation without destroying in hundreds of men all sense of duty to the state, as well as shaking their confidence either in the existence of honesty or in its value.

## THE FUTURE OF LEGISLATURES.

IT is much to be feared that the public at large throughout the United States do not give to the proceedings of the remarkable body which is now in session at Albany the attention they deserve. The present Legislature is, we believe, admitted to be a fair specimen of a New York legislature, and it is engaged in solving one of the most difficult problems that can present itself to the people of a powerful and wealthy State like New York—how to preserve for the State the public works on which its prosperity depends, and at the same time to free them from a corrupt method of operation which has become almost a vital part of the system itself. No one, of course, would expect such an important matter as this to be finally disposed of by any respectable legislature without a great deal of debate, the examination of many witnesses, and much deliberation in committee, but it is a curious fact that in the present case the very reverse of this is true; and what the public strongly desire, and loudly demand, is that the Legislature shall neither debate, discuss, nor trouble itself about committees, but simply adopt the recommendations of Governor Tilden—put the whole thing in his hands, and go home. The reason of this public impatience on the subject is not far to seek. The public have no confidence that the debates will be real, that the motives of the speakers will be those assigned by the speakers themselves, that the committees appointed will be appointed in the interest of a fair investigation, that their report will be honest, or, in short, that the Legislature—a fair average, ordinary Legislature—will not improve the occasion given by the time necessarily occupied in debate to "sell out."

That the public is quite right in its suspicions there is no need to prove, for the suspicion is not of recent growth, but the product of public observation of the proceedings of New York legislatures extending over a series of years—the result of which is a conviction that the legislature is representative in the main only of private and personal interests, the exact nature and extent of which can only be vaguely guessed at, and cannot in any way be calculated upon; that it has lost most of the best traditions of parliamentary work; and in any struggle between public and private interests the best thing it can be expected to do is to allow some other body, the executive here, or a commission there, to undertake the work. If any proof were needed that this is a generally correct view, we might point for corroboration to the extraordinary proceedings of the Speaker of the Assembly at the present session. Mr. Maguire is, according to his own professions, a reformer, and in his first appearance in that character made a ferocious and unsuccessful attack upon the reputation of Mr. Ezra Cornell and the college founded by him. From a person so zealous in the cause of morality, we should of course have expected a rigid and dignified administration of the responsible office he now fills. But it is quite evident that the old-fashioned idea of a Speaker as an impartial presiding officer, though it still lingers on at Washington, has quite died out at Albany. The idea of the office there obviously is that it is one which gives a member of the Assembly so much the more power and influence, because the possession of it enables him not merely to take part in the debates, but alternately to make stirring speeches backing up his friends or attacking his enemies, and then to appear suddenly in the character of presiding officer with absolute power to "rule" in any way he pleases. The right of a Speaker of a parliamentary body to call some member to the chair has never been questioned, but it is one of the most dangerous rights he possesses, and the use made of it by this statesman is very like the use made by partisan legislatures of the right to be judges of the qualifications of their own members. We say all this without meaning to impute corrupt motives, for the most remarkable thing about the proceedings at Albany this year, to our mind, has been, not that an active, pushing politician like Maguire should, having got possession of the Speaker's chair, have become, as his fellow-politicians genially say, "irrepressible," but that the Legislature itself should apparently be so totally lost to a sense of the traditions of legislation as not to know, or at any rate give no signs of knowing, that this sort of Speaker would inevitably in a short time turn the "halls of debate" into a bear-garden.

Legislation, in the old sense, has almost ceased to exist in New York. Look, for instance, at the question of municipal government. Mr. Tilden has recently sent a message to the Legislature on this subject, with the object not, as would have formerly been the case, of inviting the attention of that body to the consideration of the subject, but of inviting that body to refrain from having anything to do with it, namely, by putting it in the hands of a commission. Governor Tilden's action receives the most deserved approval, and when his commission has reported there will in all probability be a strongly expressed popular demand that the Legislature shall perform its duty by shutting its eyes and adopting the report. The only intelligent discussion of the wasteful and oppressive tax system of the State has come, not from the Legislature at all, but from two commissions, one appointed for the purpose by the Governor, and the other the Tax Commission of the City of New York. As to the railroads, which were a few years ago a constant subject of legislative discussion, the last vestige of an expectation in the popular mind of anything in the way of intelligent supervision was dissipated by the disclosures which came not long after the passage of the Erie Classification Bill. The present state of the case at Albany is that the approach by the Legislature of any subject in which many rights and vested interests are involved is viewed with alarm, and beyond a hope that the Legislature may give the Governor power to appoint a commission to investigate frauds or consider municipal government, and that it will let other things alone, very little is hoped or expected of it. Its debates are treated with contempt or not listened to; its members' names are frequently printed in the newspapers as those of thieves, and its traditions as a parliamentary body are laughed at. A public body reduced to this condition of imbecility and in this general contempt cannot but suggest many speculations of a painful kind. Are these decaying bodies to die out and disappear, and leave not a wreck of popular institutions behind them? Are we doomed in our generation to see the old vicious circle of politics renew itself—freedom resolving itself into anarchy, and anarchy in turn bringing in force? It must certainly be admitted that the public odium into which the Legislature has year by year brought itself has become so great, that if the power of dissolving a legislative assembly had been retained by our system in the hands of the executive, there can be little doubt that it would have been exercised several times within the last few years, or, if not actually exercised, would have been held *in terrorem* over the heads of the members, to the great comfort of a majority of the inhabitants of the State. To a very large number of the inhabitants of this city it would probably have been with a sense of profound relief that they would have heard of a Legislature, when on the point of proceeding to the consideration of the charter question in some one of its many forms, being turned out of doors by some popular Governor. A year or two since, when Mr. Green was more popular than he is now, if it had been a question of either sending the Legislature about their business or retaining Mr. Green in office, there can be little doubt how it would have been settled.

The important question, to what the present condition of legis-

lative bodies—we may almost say their degraded condition—points, is one which is generally answered in a variety of ways, depending rather upon the temperament of the questioner and his political associations than upon any process of reasoning. If he is an ardent believer in "our institutions," he generally thinks that we are merely in a "transition period," or, as he sometimes puts it, a "phase"—an answer which may or may not be true, but adds nothing to the solution of the problem. If he is of a sceptical turn, has travelled a good deal abroad, or has lived long in New York, he is generally ready to settle the question off-hand, with an amused smile at the simplicity of any one who can ask it, with a few well-known formulas, to the effect that we are going through the experience which old nations have gone through before us; that democratic institutions do very well for a thinly-settled, new, and fundamentally democratic society, but are out of place in a wealthy and populous state; that what we need in this country is a "strong government," and that we may be sure it will come sooner or later. This answer is hardly more satisfactory than the first, for the only indication, in this State at least, of the appearance of a "strong government" was that given by the Ring, or, in other words, a government of thieves and murderers.

Most sensible persons, however, who are neither sceptics as to "institutions" nor enthusiastic devotees of them, would probably say that the chances are a thousand to one that for an indefinite period of time—certainly as long as the present generation are on the stage—the legislative problem will still remain unsolved. That is to say, legislatures will continue to be elected, assemble, pass a certain number of bills, exhibit a vast amount of ignorance and a good deal of corruption, be abused in the newspapers and denounced upon the stump with good reason, and they will neither become pure and intelligent, nor will they be sent about their business by any man of destiny with an army at his back. There will continue to be the same elective machinery as at present, and the same corrupting influences will be at work as are in operation now. In considering, therefore, what is to be done with legislatures, we must take these things into account. What is the moral, then, of the situation? Simply this, and it is a moral which the proceedings of many constitutional conventions show is becoming well understood: that the legislatures are bodies which need to be hedged in and fenced about with every sort of restraint and prohibition that can be devised, that they constitute a part of the Government which we can best afford to abridge in its prerogative without at the same time having much fear that in doing so we are striking at the root of popular liberty. In all probability the world has already passed through the heyday of legislation; the era of brilliant schemes of reform, of gigantic extensions of the suffrage, and of parliamentary oratory, is gone; and the legislatures of the future will be humdrum bodies, whose greatest need will be a close attention to business, and whose greatest danger will be the possession of prerogatives handed down from a time when there were real parliaments.

## ART AND ADVERTISING.

BALZAC, discerning in advertisements as agents for the rapid acquisition of wealth an element of surprise and romance, made use of them in *César Birotteau*. The custom which he thus graced with an unlooked-for literary association has since then so expanded as to call for a more solid and systematic treatment; and we have now a 'History of Advertising,' recently published, which applies antiquarian research to the subject. Advertising, however, on the scale and in many of the forms by which we know it, is essentially a modern habit, and its history before the beginning of this century is meagre. No attempt has been made in the compilation just mentioned to give the larger relations of the theme; but a short discussion of some ethical and æsthetic bearings of the practice would not have been amiss in a history. To most persons, no doubt, there would be something laughable in the first suggestion of associating advertising with a matter that has called for so much profound and subtle thinking as the relation of art and morals. But on a closer inspection the absurdity diminishes. For we must admit that the moment the simplest typographical form of advertisement is departed from, effects of line, proportion, light, and shade begin to be introduced and something having a decorative character is tacitly sought for. In many advertisements outside of those in newspapers and other periodical products of the press, solid form and color are called upon to enrich the result. Thus we see at once that the elements of decorative design are all employed, though crudely.

The primary intention in advertising is simply to furnish notice or record of various opportunities or transactions in which a large number of people may be expected to take an interest. The force of competition entering in, this first purpose undergoes more or less modification, according as different advertisers are able to pay for unusual modes of announcement. It is evident, then, that the decorative or artistic character is a clear gain commercially to the advertiser. To this fact we owe that variety of ingenious device the observation of which has in these days become really a curious and amusing study. We have long been familiar with notices printed in large letters, each one of which is made up of the same character in a smaller size many times multiplied, on the principle of the East Indian symplegmas; but the variety and vivaciousness of advertisements have greatly increased in the last ten years, and this is but a simple-minded invention compared with others of an almost diabolical cast which have more lately come into use. The preparation and placing of advertisements of all sorts have assumed the proportions of a business by itself, to which the entire time and thought of a number of men are devoted. Some of these are hired to display themselves in outlandish trappings or encased in a canvas armor adorned with painted letters. The possible extensions of this system are hinted in an incident we remember reading of, a year or two since. A merchant in an English country-town employed a farmer to carry on his back a placard respecting the sale of some manures, and paid him five pounds for two hours' service. When it was discovered by other farmers that this strange addition to his costume was due to a lucrative bargain, there were numerous applicants for similar employment, some alleging that their backs were broader and more elevated, and therefore better adapted for "advertising purposes" than his. Still stranger than this was the case of a judge in one of the remote counties of New York, who once consented to dance breakdowns within a small enclosure at a fair which had been opened to benefit a church; the spectacle of a sedate and venerable lawyer parting with his dignity being held by public opinion in that section to be worth twenty-five cents (the amount fixed as an admission-fee to the judge's entertainment).

These stories are in point as showing up the singular artificial values created by the spread of advertising. Mountains, trees, curb-stones, railings, fences, and dead walls have acquired a new interest for speculators. Even air-space has become marketable. To tell a thing from the house-tops has, in fact, come to be a common business operation. There appears nightly upon the roof of a building on Broadway a large circular spot of greenish light thrown on a screen, and looking like a disabled moon that has drifted too low and got caught among the chimneys, upon the luminous disc of which appear alternately pictures of a simple kind, adapted to the gaze of a mixed crowd, and advertisements of various desirable goods for sale by various people. It was genuine cleverness which called mirrors into the service of advertisers, for in the moments of *ennui* unavoidable in railroad waiting-rooms all men and women are apt to refresh themselves with a glance into the glass and so be entrapped. The occasion is a good one for accident-insurances in especial. But these instances illustrate rather the artfulness of advertising than its connection with art. Among examples of the latter, however, may be mentioned the circulars of a few insurance companies and the almanacs of some publishers. The system of panel-advertising also, though still undeveloped, contains possibilities of fair decorative effect. The broadsides and posters in common use are for the most part negative examples, for the contrasts of color in them are generally ill-judged, though a little knowledge will suffice to make them otherwise. A manager in London got an Academician some time ago to design a poster; the artist confined himself to black and white, and, recognizing the necessity for simplicity, drew his figure in bold outline. It was that of a woman issuing stealthily from a doorway into the night; a black field behind her, filled with large, white conventional stars, suggested this and supplied a profound echo, as it were, of her attitude and gesture. The effect was very impressive; but the manager must needs follow it up with a small and inferior copy which had no effect at all. Here we find intimated the telling influence of genuine artistic feeling in this office of commerce, and in the manager's action we detect the average ignorance and want of appreciation of advertisers. Not understanding the value of artistic principles, their present indiscriminate and boisterous endeavor is merely a heightening of the general scale without corresponding advantages to the individual.

The strain and stress of self-recommendation now in vogue resemble the shouting of hackmen at a railroad station; and the man who can keep up the outcry longest or invent the most peculiar howl, stands of course the best chance of gaining his end. But there is room for a doubt whether the achievement is an equivalent for the effort made. In reality, the whole system betrays at this point a weakness; for so soon as exertion in any case begins to exceed its due proportion to the effect, we may argue that disaster impends. The practice may, then, in time defeat itself. And meanwhile it seems worth considering whether it be advisable to go beyond the more orderly and subdued methods of straightforward announcement usual in the columns of respectable journals.

But if advertising is to be carried beyond this, one would be thankful for some intervention against what now threatens to become an extremely exacting and unavoidable tyranny of traders. To hope for legislative restrictions in this direction is not wholly chimerical; some of the States have already interposed on behalf of mountain-sides and boulders as against certain pertinacious bitters and rare ointments. Let us observe how Lessing sets forth the philosophy of governmental control over the aims of art as exercised in Greece. "Undeniably," says he, "the law must never assume a control of the sciences, for the aim of the sciences is truth. Truth is necessary to the soul; and it becomes tyranny to put the least restraint upon the pacification of this its essential need. The aim of the arts, on the other hand, is pleasure, and pleasure we can forego. By all means, then, let it depend upon the lawgiver what sort of pleasure he will allow and in what measure of each sort." Accepting this as in the main reasonable, we shall find good ground for curbing the tendency toward universal and obstreperous bill-sticking. For this has neither pleasure for its end nor always truth. The aim is almost purely selfish—a result of the desire for acquisition. Now, the wish of one trader to appear at better advantage than his rival has gradually led from statements based on really superior foresight, energy, or resources to very equivocal announcements and the setting afloat of appearances not true to fact. We recall the case of an illustrated paper published in Rhode Island, which, to secure the favor of the public, offered a chromo-lithographic copy of one of Eastman Johnson's paintings as a gift to every subscriber; and, in making this offer, the proprietor demurely quoted as applying to their lithograph some laudatory sentences from Mr. Whittier, called out by Prang's lithograph of the same work. The inference clearly intended was, that they were about to present their subscribers with copies of precisely equal merit to that which had elicited Mr. Whittier's praise. But the chromo supplied turned out to be a different and entirely inferior one. A second flagrant example of dishonesty is that set by a young man who, in order to increase the sale of Webster's 'Dictionary,' for which he was agent in the Southern States, issued an anonymous circular containing extracts from the rival lexicographer Dr. Worcester's 'General History,' from which it appeared that that scholar had alluded to the Confederates as "rebels." But he neglected to mention, or at best to discover, that the chapters from which he had quoted were found in a revised edition of the work, and had been written after the Doctor's death and presumably without any "materialized" apparitional intervention on his part.

The atmosphere of suspicion engendered by practices like these has its inconveniences and seems to us to be extremely vulgarizing. Advertising on such principles is not confined to the counting-room; hired silver and liveried servants, supplied by a company on occasional private need for the effect they produce, are a part of its machinery; and overdressing to give a false impression of wealth is another aspect of it. So acute and distrustful has the computation of advertising values grown to be in consequence that it is even unpleasant for a man to defend himself from improper public mention by a reply through the newspaper, because of the imputation to which he lays himself open of wishing to increase or announce his own importance. The trouble with this sophistication is precisely that it can so easily become unjust in its judgments. These judgments have their root in bad taste; and it may safely be said that such bad taste is closely allied to and more or less dependent upon those very defects of literary and artistic judgment to which so many advertising errors are traceable. Many of these are laughably absurd. But from being amusing they pass, by stages which it would be easy to mark in a graded selection of specimens, into the seriously dishonest. We come at last to real indecency, like that of an illustrated advertisement depicting a man in his coffin, sitting bolt upright, with this drastic explanation over his head: "Killed by Catarrh!"

A careful adherence to taste, therefore, may check the insidious tendency toward disreputableness noticeable in some kinds of contemporary advertising. Not that this would be synonymous with the eradication of dishonesty from this pursuit (as neither can it be expected that a noble style of painting or sculpture is going to remodel human nature throughout); but the more thoroughly the principles of art are applied to industrial pursuits, the greater is the chance of ameliorating defects like those we have been describing. In itself, there is of course nothing objectionable about advertising; it is, on the contrary, a token of healthy energy. And the ingenuity used in it may even command admiration, though it can never be the index of any intellectual effort above the level of shrewdness. But when this shrewdness asserts itself at the expense of qualities infinitely superior, it becomes time to reprove and repress it. That all advertisers are not likely to apply canons of critical taste at once to their business is very true. But the application is desirable, nevertheless, for it means simply the economizing of effort; instead of an indiscriminate uproar, we should have the trained utterance of people skilled to speak for the farthest effect with the smallest outlay of exertion. Indiscriminate street-advertising, we should say, ought to be abolished as being unsightly, mentally disturbing, and a decided inconvenience to the eye, which is impelled by means of it to look where it does not want to look. On the other hand, we should consider good advertising papers, printed in color, with significant but consistent and harmonious designs, a gain. Refinements upon the blunt insistence of shop-signs as they at present exist would seem to be quite in order also. We have seen various efforts, more or less successful, made within a few years to give these a correct decorative shaping, but it is easier to point out instances of ambitious buildings quite disfigured by the signs upon them. Théophile Gautier has thrown out the idea that decorative signs may in time give rise to a new order of architecture. We hardly think an order could spring from so slight a source; yet much might come of an effort to develop the better capabilities of signs. In connection with these, different trades might get to expressing themselves in appropriate ways on the faces of the houses used for them; not necessarily by unalterable changes of structure, but by architectural members admitting of entire detachment and removal, for which iron might be found to be an appropriate material. The nearly transparent wire screens sometimes erected at the edges of roofs and bearing gilded letters, which are thus brought into relief against the sky, will assist the imagining of such expedients. But such improvements as are here barely suggested cannot be made without long delay, for they imply conditions of social and political discipline which do not as yet exist among us. It is improbable that we shall succeed in covering the present deformities of the advertising system with any cloak of a decorative texture, or enclosing its various ugliness with the circle of Giotto, while our rural population continues to revere that green-eyed monstrosity in white which is with us the type of a thriving home in the country, and while the national taste in household art sanctions that style of parlor-stoves the chief aim of which seems to be to secure on a small scale pseudo-resemblances to Gothic minsters.

## GETTING A DOCTOR'S DEGREE IN GERMANY.

[The following extracts from a private letter will, we believe, be found to have a general interest.]

HEIDELBERG, March 6, 1875.

. . . I suppose my postal-card reached you a day or two since. I ought to have written you at length before this, but my nerves are rather unstrung after the excitement through which I have passed, and I have been exposed to a perfect flood of invitations from all sides.

Now, as this is going to be a "doctorial" letter, I must give you a little account of how the degree is obtained in Germany and what it denotes. The right to bestow the doctor's degree belongs to all of the twenty-two German universities. The degree of D.D. is honorary, and is bestowed only on eminent theologians. The degrees of M.D., LL.D., and Ph.D. are, however, only gained by passing severe examinations; and with one or two exceptions, the universities guard the honor of the degree very jealously. It is the only door through which one can gain admittance to a professor's chair at the universities. In the philosophical faculty at Heidelberg, there are five grades to the degree, denoted on the diploma respectively by the words, 1°, summa cum laude; 2°, insigni cum laude; 3°, multa cum laude; 4°, cum laude; 5° (without any designation); or in English: 1°, with the highest praise; 2°, with distinguished praise; 3°, with much praise; 4,° with praise; 5°, without any praise to speak of. The first degree is very rarely gained; perhaps one out of ten among the German doctors obtains it, but only after many years of work. Most of the German scientific students are very happy if after several years' residence at the university they can boast of a second degree, and a great many have to be satisfied with a lower rank. The candidates for Ph.D. have to select for their examina-

tion a principal subject in which they are supposed to be thoroughly versed, and two other departments of knowledge in which such an intimate familiarity is not required. An examination in classics must also be passed, as the degree of M.A. is bestowed at the same time. Not long after the commencement of my student-life here, I saw that it would be of great advantage to me in my scientific life to possess such a rank, which has recognized worth in all the world and is not obtained by friendship or favoritism, as is so often the case in America. So I directed my studies in such a manner as would be of the most advantage to me in this project, although it seemed very doubtful whether I could ever reach such a point that I would dare to face an examination in a foreign tongue. (The privilege granted to candidates of performing the examination in Latin is unfortunately not of much use.)

Last November, I made up my mind that the ordeal must be passed before Kirchoff left the university. I did not write of my determination, because I had constantly before my eyes the dread of "falling through," as the Germans term a failure to pass—a fate which more than one of my friends has met with during the past year, and which set one of them nearly crazy. For the same reason I did not tell my most intimate friends here, as I did not wish to have their anxieties aroused any more than yours. My friend H—— set out with the same object in view, and we studied together. My principal subject of course was chemistry, and the secondary subjects were physics and mineralogy, which are themselves so necessary to the chemist. Of the authors I have read, and the amount of knowledge that I managed to cram into a head of unusually small size, I cannot give you much of an idea. Since Christmas I have read between 25,000 and 30,000 pages. By the 1st of February Dr. Brown's document reached me, and you can understand now why I was so anxious for it. I now summoned up my courage and prepared to announce myself as a candidate. I wrote in German an appeal to the faculty that they would permit me to appear as a candidate. Then in the most classical Latin at my command I drew up my autobiography, giving a full account of my education to the time when "I entered the walls of my Alma Mater Heidelberg and enjoyed the opportunities of listening to its eloquent and learned professors." Fortified with these documents, with my pass, my certificate that I was an A.B., and a Hamilton-College catalogue containing the record of my honors and prizes there, I paid a visit to the dean of our faculty, Dr. Weil, professor of Turkish, Arabic, Syriac, etc. He received me very kindly and read my papers with great satisfaction. I told him that I wished to escape the classical examination, as my acquirements in German were confined principally to scientific subjects, and it would be excessively difficult for me to translate from a foreign language into German. My previous classical studies in English had extended, besides, far beyond what was necessary for the examination here. He pulled down some old musty author whom I had never seen before, and let me translate a passage. I rendered it quite easily—although I am a little rusty in Latin—being bothered only by one passage, in which the Professor himself was stuck. He was quite pleased with the result of the test, and told me to come the next day. That evening he laid my papers before the faculty. They granted my petition, and, further, the philologs decided that a classical examination was quite superfluous in my case. About a week later the head-beadle appeared, and announced that the philosophical faculty desired the pleasure of my company at 6 P.M. on the 3d of March. My Sandwich-Island friend H—— went through the same ceremonies and had the 2d assigned as his day of execution. He had passed only two years at Cornell, however, and had not received his degree, so that he was not freed from the classical examination. His father is German, and he has been a year longer here than I, so that it was not so difficult for him. Things now began to look serious. Neither of us had any hope of obtaining a high rank, but we had the greatest fear of failing and the consequent disgrace. I was quite disgusted with myself to find how perfectly the whole affair had taken control of me. I thought I had grown too old to be affected by such things. But there was such a dreadful uncertainty. To be examined by the most renowned chemist and the most renowned physicist in all Europe, and, further, to be examined in a language which I had only practised for a little over a year, altogether made me feel rather shaky. My sleep was disturbed by ugly dreams of coming failure, and often it was utterly impossible for me to concentrate my attention on the book before me. The days and weeks flew by with leaden wings. It seemed as if I could not bear the suspense until my doom was decided. H—— was equally excited, and we counted the days and hours until we could be certain of our fate. At last the day before my examination came. At noon I was to visit the various professors who were to examine me, and give them a formal invitation to the ceremonies. Attired in a regulation suit of black, with swallow-tail, white tie, stove-pipe, and white kids, I paid my visits. I felt just about as comfortable as if I was in a coffin. The professors received me very cordially, and I had pleasant little chats with them. Bunsen rushed out of the laboratory, met me in the hall, and, as is his custom with all candidates, said that as I had other visits to make he would not detain me, and then dodged back again. That evening H—— passed nicely, and that took a load off my mind, especially when it was announced the next morning that he had obtained the highest degree. I thought then that surely I could pass, although a "first" would never be my lot, for he had studied a year longer than I at the university. After the first outburst of joy over his success, I felt jealous for about five minutes, as I thought that we could not win the same rank—something we had both wished for very much. But I soon overcame that feeling. I ate a light dinner, and afterwards did not try to do much studying—following a very earnest injunction of Prof. Kopp.

At three o'clock, C—— and "Dr." H—— took me off for a long walk, keeping up a lively conversation and not allowing my thoughts to run upon the fast approaching ordeal. At five we returned; after a little rest, I got into my costume again. Despite my friends' endeavors, I was in a state of most intense excitement. They escorted me to the Senate Chamber, and, with many a parting word of encouragement, greeted me for the last time as a student.

I was received by the beadle in the prorector's office, a sort of ante-room. One after another the professors dropped in, deposited their coverings, and disappeared in the room beyond. I paced up and down nervously, smoothing the wrinkles out of my gloves. Finally, Bunsen rushed in, gave me a little nod, threw off his large fur mantle, and dodged into the next room. That was the signal for the tortures to commence. The dean appeared at the door and requested me to enter. Before I was directed to a vacant chair, I had time to cast a hasty glance about the Senate Chamber. It is the scene of the faculty deliberations; a comfortable-sized room, tastefully decorated with pictures and busts of eminent personages in the history of the university. In the centre is a long, green table. About this were grouped the professors in luxurious arm-chairs, the dean sitting at the head. By the side of Bunsen was an empty chair—for the victim; and on the table in front lay paper and pencil. I took my seat rather awkwardly, feeling a little scared and lonesome amidst all these grave and dignified professors. Bunsen sat for a minute without uttering a word, while I made a vain endeavor to look happy and unconcerned; then he suddenly turned around and asked me to give the oxygen compounds of arsenic. As soon as the word arsenic left his lips, I forgot my excitement, and was at once cool and collected. He had started on a subject where I was perfectly at home. Then followed question after question, nearly all of which I answered quite correctly. I made two mistakes of a very unimportant character. Bunsen examined me in analytical and inorganic chemistry, and, after I had given an account of a delicate reaction for arsenious acid which he had discovered himself, looked very happy and satisfied, and gave up his seat to Prof. Kopp. His department was theoretical and organic chemistry, and he started off with oxalic acid, from which he branched off into quite a variety of subjects. I wrote down all the formulas he wished, answered his questions promptly and correctly, and when he rose could scarcely believe that the first hour of the examination was past.

A recess of ten minutes now ensued. On a side-table were several bottles of wine and plates of cakes. The dean and Kopp urged me to take a glass of wine with them, but I contented myself with a few sips of water and a macaroon. I now had an opportunity to study the faces of the professors better as they made a more vigorous onslaught on the provisions. There was Stark, the prorector, a little old man with kindly features, one of the most noted archæologists in Europe; Pagenstecher, the professor of anatomy and zoölogy, looking so thin that I concluded he must use himself as a specimen in his lecture-room; Baron Reichlin-Meldegg, noted for his lectures on Faust and for the invariable readiness he shows at doctors' examinations to assist in clearing off the refreshment-table. His reputation in the latter direction, as I can well testify, is based on good foundation. Then there were a number of others famed in this or that branch of science, and last but not least my four examiners, who together form a quartette which no other university in the Fatherland can equal, but which has now lost one of its brightest lights by the departure of Kirchoff. After a little chat with Reichlin-Meldegg, who showed a great interest in the American methods of eating and drinking, and told me of what a good dinner they were going to have next Sunday in honor of Kirchoff's departure, I noticed that the professors had emptied the bottles and were resuming their seats. I noticed also that there was a secretary present, who took down all my answers, to refer to in case of disagreement among the professors at the final decision,

Prof. Blum now sat down by me and questioned me in mineralogy. I was troubled somewhat in my language while trying to answer questions in crystallography, and did not make a particularly brilliant show. Finally came Kirchoff, who ran rapidly through the theories of light and electricity with me, and at eight relinquished his seat. Then the dean requested me to step into the ante-room. I was there but a few seconds when I was summoned back. The faculty were all standing up facing me. At their head was the dean, who delivered a short oration, announcing that they had decided to confer upon me the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D., and that I was to appear the next morning at eleven. The professors bowed low; I bowed lower still and retired, feeling that at last I could breathe freely. I hurried on my overcoat and stepped into the hall, where a crowd of my student friends, representing every quarter of the globe, were waiting to congratulate me. The hand-shaking was scarcely finished before the professors began to appear, showing that it had not required much time to decide on the rank I should assume. We had to scatter, and went at once to see Mrs. H——, who was awaiting in great anxiety the result of the examination. She gave me a comical picture of how her husband acted when he learned that his boy had come through all right. He was so excited that he had to take off his coat and dance around the parlor. I was weary and faint, and sought in vain to sleep after reaching my room. I had made several mistakes in my examination, and had not expressed myself very well, and finally came to the conclusion that either the second or third degree would be assigned to me. It was better than I had hoped, and on that decision I went to sleep.

The next morning at nine I went around to H——'s room. As soon as I entered, he threw his arms around me and exclaimed, "You've got *summa cum laude!*" I would not believe him; but there was the beadle, who had brought his diploma, and he confirmed the news. The announcement seemed to take away my strength, and I had to sit down. It is an honor that no German scientific student for eight months has gained, and, best of all, my friend and I had the same rank, which made us very happy. Then we went to Bunsen's lecture, and at its close I had to receive congratulations from all sides, the American students being specially jubilant, for the traditions give no record of any American having won the first degree before. At eleven, I presented myself again at the Senate Chamber, as before, in evening costume. The dean and secretary in similar dress stood before me, on one side the two beadles with silver maces. The secretary read off a long premise in Latin; at its conclusion the beadles crossed the maces before me, and, resting the first three fingers of my right hand on them, I replied, "Confirmo et polliceor, sic me Deus adjuvet." The dean then read off more Latin and congratulated me very warmly on the honor I had obtained, telling me that the faculty were unanimous in the decision. The beadle brought me my diploma the next morning, with about twenty-five copies on thin paper, which I have used, in the regular German fashion, to inform my friends of the event.

# Correspondence.

## THE ROMAN LAW AND THE GRANGERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The invalidity of Granger legislation may be shown by reasons which lie back of the Constitution of the United States. The provision in that Constitution, that no State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts, introduces no new sanction, being simply a formalization of a cardinal maxim of jurisprudence, viz., that no statute is to be construed to retrospectively affect vested rights. I give on this point a condensation of Savigny's exposition, contained in the eighth volume of his great treatise on Roman law ('System des heutigen römischen Rechts,' Berlin, 1848, Bd. viii., § 392):

"The law which is to be applied to contracts is that which existed at the time when the contract was entered into. This rule is applicable to the capacity of the parties; to the form of the contract; to the conditions of its validity; to the manner and degree in which it is to operate. And by the law thus existing at the time of the execution of the contract are we to determine all questions as to its validity or effect, however these questions may arise.

"The parties to a contract have a right to insist on this rule, irrespective of the interference of any subsequent legislation. This is a vested right, which the legislature cannot impair. . . . Even a positive prohibitory law cannot be construed as preventing the enjoyment of such right."

He gives two illustrations which bear on Granger legislation:

"A person who by the existing law has reached majority makes a contract. By a subsequent statute, this person is declared to be a minor. This does not affect the validity of the contract made under the prior law.

"A person under the old Roman law is made infamous by a statute of attainder, under which he is held deprived of business capacity. Yet, notwithstanding this statute, contracts he made before its passage continue to operate, and his estate to be bound by them; and his business capacity as to such contracts continues.

"Under the old Roman law, women could execute contracts of suretyship (Bürgschaft). By the Sc. Vellejanum their capacity in this respect was restricted. The restriction operated on contracts made subsequent to the statute; prior contracts continued to operate continuously, notwithstanding the statute."

To apply these positions to Granger legislation:

A statute is passed giving a corporation unlimited power to take tolls and to borrow money, the interest of which these tolls are to pay. Money is borrowed in pursuance of this power, the contract being that the tolls are to pay the interest. No subsequent statute restricting the power of the railroad in respect to tolls can affect either its right or its duty to levy such tolls as would best enable it to fulfil its contract. If, to follow the analogies of the Roman law, a bill should be brought against the corporation by the bondholders to compel it to impose adequate tolls, it would be no defence that the legislature had forbidden the tolls to be levied. The statute to this effect, no matter how potent it might be as to the future, could not be construed to affect engagements validly made in the past. And Savigny argues that this rule is one of those fundamental maxims which courts cannot disregard. If a legislature can invalidate a contract valid under a prior law, the foundations of society will be destroyed; for in this way faith would be lost not only in the validity of *contracts*, but in the validity of *laws*.

F. W.

Cambridge, May 14, 1875.

## ENGLISH VOCABULARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having read with considerable interest the recent communicated articles in your paper relating to "English Vocabularies," I thought the following figures might prove interesting to some of your readers.

Last year, in carrying out instructions relating to a cipher system for daily telegraphic reports of professional work, I found it very convenient to know the number of words in each column of the Academic edition of Webster's Dictionary, published by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, 1872. With but little additional labor, and as a matter of curiosity, the following table was prepared, giving the number of words under each letter of the alphabet:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| S | 3,706 | G | 900 |
| C | 3,588 | W | 805 |
| P | 2,807 | O | 757 |
| T | 2,752 | V | 641 |
| D | 2,230 | U | 594 |
| A | 2,129 | N | 563 |
| I | 1,963 | J | 277 |
| B | 1,657 | Q | 178 |
| M | 1,641 | K | 172 |
| R | 1,637 | Y | 72 |
| E | 1,522 | Z | 66 |
| F | 1,348 | X | 12 |
| H | 1,027 | | |
| L | 1,018 | Total | 34,062 |

These words—that is, all words in capitals—were counted twice, and leisurely, so I think the numbers can be relied upon.

In paragraph IV. of the preface to Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, edition of 1873, it is stated that the vocabulary "comprises an aggregate of upwards of 114,000 words." In part explanation of this great difference in the number of words in the two editions, may be quoted the following extract from the preface to the Academic edition: "In the arrangement of words in the dictionary, while a strict alphabetical order is followed, words of the same form, whether etymologically related or not, are not treated in distinct articles, but the definition of one immediately follows that of another in the same paragraph, being separated from it only by a dash. . . . This has been done to save space."

As an example: while "set" in the Academic is printed but once, but defined four times—1st, verb trans.; 2d, verb intrans.; 3d, participial adjective; 4th, noun—in the Unabridged it is given as four distinct words.

—Very respectfully yours,

Chas. E. L. B. Davis,
First Lieutenant of Engineers.

Pass a l'Outre, La., Mouth of the Mississippi, May 7, 1875.

# Notes.

A. WILLIAMS & CO., Boston, publish immediately 'The Names We Bear,' a descriptive compendium of Biblical, classical, and common names; and 'An Open Letter to the Members of the Massachusetts Medical Society' on the true nature of disease, by Dr. E. E. Denniston. They also assume the publication of Mrs. Dall's 'Romance of the Association,' and issue new editions of 'Taxation of Women in Massachusetts,' by William I. Bowditch, and of Sturtevant's 'Dairy Cow.'——D. Van Nostrand warns booksellers against introducing a pirated English reprint of his edition of 'Plattner's Manual of Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis with the Blowpipe.' It has been published in London by Chatto & Windus.——*Old and New* has changed hands again and finally, being absorbed in *Scribner's Monthly*. Mr. Hale's services go with it as a contributor to the latter.——We have received from J. M. Stoddart & Co., Philadelphia, four numbers of their 'Centennial Book of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence.' It consists of numerous lithographic views, portraits, facsimile autographs, etc., and an historical monograph by Wm. Brotherhead, who also furnishes the designs for the shields of the several States. These last are at least a century behind the times, artistically considered, yet have a quaintness which is not unpleasing. The lithography generally seems coarse; the letterpress very good, as is apt to be the case with Philadelphia work.——The eighth annual report of the trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology consists largely of an account of the work done since the death of the lamented Wyman, and the additions to the Museum made since the last report by Mr. F. W. Putnam, the new curator. The Swallow collection of pottery and stone and bone implements, from mounds near New Madrid, Mo., is the most important accession. A number of wood-cuts illustrate the very interesting discussion of these articles.——The Brooklyn *Journal of Education*, of which the second number appeared last month, furnishes abundant reading-matter, but of the mixed quality which, we are sorry to say, we have to expect in similar publications in this country. When shall we see an American educational periodical, not exactly edited by college instructors for college instructors, but challenging the sympathy and support of that class rather than of grammar and primary-school teachers?——The Illinois School and College Association of Natural History will hold a summer meeting for the study of botany and zoölogy at the Museum, Normal, Ill., during the four weeks July 14–August 11. Professors B. G. Wilder, W. S. Barnard, T. J. Burrill, C. Thomas, and S. A. Forbes have been engaged as instructors. Illinois teachers to the number of fifty will be received as students for a nominal tuition fee.——Part 26 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas (New York: L. W. Schmidt) has maps of north-eastern France, the British Isles and adjacent waters, and the western half of Africa north of the Gulf of Guinea. The British map is particularly fine. The fourth supplementary issue of the same Atlas is devoted to three out of nine sheets of a new map of Australia by Dr. A. Petermann.——J. R. Osgood & Co. announce 'The Birds and Seasons of New England,' by Wilson Flagg, illustrated as was the same author's 'Woods and By-Ways of New England.'——'In a Californian Eden,' by Joaquin Miller, and 'Freedom and Fellowship,' by T. W. Higginson, are in the press of Roberts Bros.——F. B. Patterson will publish a compilation consisting of editors' views of journalism, by C. F. Wingate, himself one of the profession in this city.

—We feel compelled to warn our readers against the advertisement of "George Goodwin & Co.," Boston, which appeared in the *Nation* as late as January 14, and which towards the last contained a favorable notice of their enterprise reprinted from our Fine-Arts department. The advertisers promised to send certain copperplate designs by Hans Sebald Beham for a price named. Their advertisement was offered us by a respectable advertising agency, and was inserted before we had seen the engravings in question. When we did see them, we spoke of them as their merits deserved. We have lately had so many complaints from subscribers and readers of the *Nation* who have sent money to "George Goodwin & Co." and received no return or acknowledgment whatever, that we now give the same publicity to this fact that we gave to our opinion of the articles advertised when in our hands and under our inspection.

—A writer in *Home and School*, an educational magazine published in Louisville, has taken a practical way of ascertaining the spread of the Latin pronunciation. "Anxious to test the point, I have blown fifty-odd postal-cards north, south, east, west. From Cape Cod and California, the Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, they come back with 'ROMAN' upon nearly every one of them. . . . Among the twoscore and ten or more, only two advocates of the English 'straight,' one of these expecting 'to have to accept the Roman as a necessity,' the other smelling the battle afar off, and saying among the trumpets, Ha, ha!" This is all very well as far as it goes, though it seems a little unnecessary to trot in Job's war-horse. But we must not fling our hats in the air yet and hurrah for the millennium. Pronouncing Latin like Gracchus with his piper or like Marcus Tullius himself will not make us a well-trained, classically-educated nation without a thousand other things beside. The very use of the word Roman, which stands in glaring capitals in *Home and School*, shows what a scrappy and superficial thing classical education is in this country yet. It is not quite so bad as the favorite word of ignoramuses, "Continental," but it is bad enough. It is about as absurd as to call English the British language or the London language, or to talk of speaking British or speaking London instead of speaking English. We have looked over the list of places in *Home and School* with some care and interest to see where the Latin pronunciation is adopted. Most of the colleges take to it kindly, except, strange to say, in New England, where only Harvard is named. It is also used in a great many preparatory schools. In general, however, what resistance there is in this country appears to be found in the schools. In England it is just the opposite. While the old use still has its adherents, many of the schools have adopted the Latin; but there is a complaint that the young men are induced to give it up, or at least to suppress it, when they proceed to the universities. It is very conceivable that that typical *Stockphilister*, the old-fashioned English teacher, not dreaming of the progress of the last twenty-five years, should rigidly set his face against a change as a direct aggression on the Church and the throne. But the cause has little to fear there with such champions in the van as Munro and Roby and the Ellises twain—Alexander and Robinson, the two Ajaxes of Phonetic Reform, we should be tempted to call them, except that neither can be called the Less.

—The testimonial vase for Mr. Bryant is now being made by Tiffany & Co. This tribute, the plan for which originated in the Century Club, will be in repoussé silver, thirty inches high. What is singular is that Mr. Bryant will but have a life-interest in the vase, which, after having comforted him so far as it is capable until he dies, will become at his decease a deposit in the Metropolitan Museum. The last number of the *Art Journal* (D. Appleton & Co.) contains fine engravings by Filmer of the accepted design, together with the rejected ones prepared by Mr. Pairpoint for the Gorham Company, by Mr. Osborne for the Whiting Company, by Messrs. Starr & Marcus and Messrs. Black, Starr & Frost. The design from Tiffany's is in very good harmony with the poet's works, being correct, guarded, and safe, but differs from them in not showing the least touch of inspiration. It is a formal composition, of American native growths gathered into a general Greek outline, under whose government are grouped the waterfowl, the bobolink, the cotton-plant, apple-blossom, and gentian, with medallions indicating the most important stations in the poet's and editor's career. As a piece of hammered work, it is intended to be careful and finished in the extreme, and the repoussé relief will be as high as the silver can be made to bear. But it is only necessary to see the design to perceive that art-manufacture, and not plastic art, has been the inspiring afflatus. The other designs are all more ambitious, and all works of real sculpture, as it would appear; there is not one of them that would not have been ornamental and effective. A suspicious look about most of the accessory figures, however, as if they had strayed out of Neo-Grec museums made up from the ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum, or out of the frescoes of Renaissance artists, condemns them. That sent in by Starr & Marcus is certainly a spirited and striking composition. That by the Gorham Company, if carried out, would have been four feet high, and the makers would have troubled the subscribers for but a small part of the cost.

—There are several articles which make the *International Review* for May worth buying and reading: "The Practical Work of Painting"; Major-General Upton's "Prussian Company Column"; Mr. E. A. Freeman's "Difficulties of Republicanism in Europe," etc. We single out Prof. Newcomb's paper on "Life Insurance" for a number of reasons: it is clearly and strongly written, it is above suspicion of being anything but a purely mathematical and disinterested view of the subject, and it will naturally be read by almost every one who takes up the *Review*. Prof. Newcomb aims to show the injustice of the "absolute and indiscriminate forfeiture" of "rights worth a thousand dollars, beyond all hope of recovery, for a failure to pay ten"; and that even the Massachusetts non-forfeiture law, though an important and salutary step in the right direction, "does not completely satisfy the demands of equity." He also—in view of the fact that "the average annual expenses of all the larger companies in the country generally amount to nearly or quite 20 per cent. of the entire premiums

received, and, in some years, actually exceed the amount paid out for losses by death"—asserts his belief that these expenses can be greatly reduced, and that the costly instrumentality of agents can be wholly dispensed with. We cannot undertake to abridge his argument, nor is it for us to criticise it as a whole. We think we see, however, a number of statements and conclusions which the insurance companies will contest vigorously, as is their wont. We venture a single remark on Prof. Newcomb's plan to substitute for paid agents, working on commission, "a body of agents far more numerous and effective," whose services may be had gratuitously, viz., the company's own members. When he goes on to add that the great "advantage of members themselves as soliciting agents may be judged by the simple reflection that if each of the present members of the larger companies should, on the average, bring in one new recruit in five years, the growth of the company would be sufficient to satisfy the most ambitious," we cannot restrain a smile. For a hundred years, more or less, newspaper editors have been saying the same thing to their readers; but just because they keep on saying it, we infer that the returns do not equal their reasonable expectations. Among the most attached subscribers, the number of those who actively and without hope of discount or other reward help to extend a paper's circulation is extremely small. We suggest, without discussing, the question whether the competition of insurance companies would ever permit such an experiment to be tried; and we will express our fears that, if it were, the public would suffer more from the misrepresentation of philanthropic solicitors, ignorant of the principles of life insurance and incapable of discriminating between the pretensions of rival companies, than it now does from the workings of the present system, which assuredly, on the score of economy, is not more to the minds of the companies than it is to Prof. Newcomb himself.

—A writer in the Milan *Perseveranza* undertakes to show that the idea so successfully carried out in Capt. Boyton's swimming-suit is at least two centuries old. He has found in a rare French dictionary compiled by one Richelet, and printed by Widerhold at Geneva in 1680, in two quarto volumes, the word *Lanquerre*. This was derived from a certain Richard Lanquerre of Amiens, *gentilhomme*, who in 1677, after protracted experiments, invented an impermeable habit (*scafandro*) like Boyton's, by means of which one could keep up a long time in the water, with the privilege of moving his limbs at pleasure. An extremely rare book by the same person was published in Paris in 1675, under the title: 'Le naufrage sans péril, ou Invention d'une machine qui nous fait passer les rivières *tous vestus*, et *estre plusieurs jours sur la mer*, sans aucun péril pour notre vie et sans mouiller nos armes ni nos habits, etc.' A hundred years later another inventor, De la Chapelle, came out with his 'Traité de la construction théorique et pratique du scaphandre, ou de l'*homme-bateau*, ou du bateau de l'homme, etc.' (Paris, 1775), which is mentioned in the Secret Memoirs of the time. In the absence of drawings, it would be impossible to guess the degree of resemblance between these earlier contrivances and Boyton's, but the term *homme-bateau*, or man-boat, applies very well to the American invention. It now remains to be seen whether another century will not pass before the swimming-suit is heard of again. Capt. Boyton's deep-water performances, however admirable, will not of themselves save it from disuse and oblivion; nor will anything, we fear, unless it is capable of being substituted on a large scale for the present inadequate life-preserver. Are ocean steamers likely to provide them even for first-cabin passengers? We cannot judge. One "man-boat" at least might be carried for the exclusive use of the captain. Discipline and honor require that he should be the last to leave his sinking ship; the odds are therefore against his surviving such a catastrophe. Would it be unwise or unfair, as it would be humane, to change the odds to the other side?

—With No. 55, the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* enters upon its tenth volume. The present contents deal mainly with African topics. Under the head of Egypt we are sorry to read of the very low condition of Dr. Nachtigal's health, which is doubtless aggravated by his poverty. He maintained himself in his remarkable exploration of Northern Central Africa only by borrowing money at extortionate rates, and the Government aid he has since received has barely enabled him to pay his debts. His means of future support are therefore entirely precarious. The *Zeitschrift* appeals to the generosity of his countrymen not to neglect one of the most distinguished and meritorious explorers of modern times. The map of this number illustrates the expedition of Emil Odebrecht up the river Itajahy Assú in the province of Santa Catharina, Brazil, near whose mouth is the interesting German Blumenau Colony. In No. 1 (Vol. 2) of the same Society's *Verhandlungen* is a paper by Baron Richthofen in support of the native estimate of the population of China. We may return to this subject again. Among the news items is one of the formation of a new society in Vienna called the Oriental Museum, which has a permanent public exhibition in the Windischgrätz Palace, issues an *Austrian Monthly* "für den Orient," and is zealously devoting itself to scientific and practical acquaintance with the East. The membership is already very large. The *Tijdschrift* of the Geographical Society of Amsterdam shows marked improvement in its fifth number, in which for the first time a systematic attempt is made to note the progress of geographical science in all parts of the world. The most recent journeys in and through Mongolia form the subject of an article which is accompanied by a useful map, and there is another of the island of Flores. In No. 3 of this journal Prof. Veth concluded his survey of the additions to our knowledge of the globe during the year 1873. Speaking of the United States, he said: "American railways excite in us such unpleasant reminiscences that on this topic I shall be permitted to touch but gingerly." He was doubtless addressing some of the Dutch capitalists who are now engaged in patching up a settlement with the St. Paul and Pacific. What a pity he had not at his elbow those jolly Hollanders whom Senator Morton reported so eager to build the double-track, broad-gauge, air-line, steel railway across the continent.

—At the Winckelmann festival of the German Archæological Society in Rome, last December, one of the secretaries, Prof. Helbig, lectured on the bronze razor of very ancient times. Alluding to the absence of such instruments in the older portion of the necropolis of Alba Longa, he declared, as reported in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, that this shows our Indo-European ancestors to have been razorless, however much civilization they can be decked out with in other respects. This view has seemed so unsatisfactory to Benfey, that in a recent meeting of the Anthropological Society of Göttingen, he came to the rescue of our prehistoric relatives. He said a re-examination of the evidence had not led him to change his opinion as to the razor among the Indo-Europeans. The evidence in such matters, it will be remembered, is linguistic; the presence of a common word in many languages of the family leads to the inference that the thing was known before the separation occurred, and the presence of a common word in very few of these languages leads to similar interesting inferences, which must, however, be very cautiously made. Benfey dwelt upon the resemblance of the Sanskrit kshurás. and the Greek ξυρός, and declared the evidence of these independent words to be conclusive. The presence of Sanskrit words for sheep, wool, and weaving implies the knowledge of some instrument for cutting hair, so that the discovery of an instrument which should torture their descendants to the latest generations involved nothing remarkable, even if one do not assume the presence of more civilized neighbors. That no razors have come down to us from the Prisci Latini proves nothing. It may be merely accidental that none has been preserved to excite our curiosity, or this people may have given up their use during their wanderings, before Italy was reached. There is plenty of evidence of important changes which happened during the wanderings of the different branches of the Indo-European family. Thus, the original family was familiar with gold and silver, and had a numerical system in which even various thousands were distinguished, but the Romans had lost the habit of counting thousands, as had indeed most of the branches of the family, and were obliged to find a new word; the Greeks and Romans lost during their travels the original word for gold, as the Germanic and Slavonic branches lost that for silver, and were forced to find a new word when they came to know the forgotten metal again.

—The extent to which Boccaccio has been imitated is surprising, and this imitation has been made the subject of an excellent monograph by Dr. Marcus Landau, entitled 'Beiträge zur Geschichte der Italienischen Novelle' (Vienna, 1875). A proof of Boccaccio's immense popularity is found in the fact that Dr. Landau's work, although intended merely to notice his imitators, has grown into a tolerably complete history of the Italian novel, with notices of Chaucer, the 'Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles,' Marguerite of Navarre, Dryden, and Lafontaine. Boccaccio in turn was himself only an imitator. He drew on the popular stories of the day, some of which were of Oriental origin, others relics of classic days; he used actual events, and levied his contributions on countries which later reversed matters and owe to him some of their most charming narratives. We believe there are only twenty of the hundred novels of the Decamerone the origin of which is unknown, and which, we may therefore presume, were the inventions of the author's brain. The subject of the sources of the Decamerone has been pleasantly and clearly treated, likewise by Dr. Landau, in a work entitled 'Die Quellen des Decamerone' (Vienna, 1869), which will be found of value for the history of mediæval fiction and its Oriental originals.

—There are some countries where Latin is still used for other purposes than college diplomas and physicians' prescriptions. The librarians of the Laurenzian and Imperial Libraries at Florence and St. Petersburg have lately exchanged compliments in Latin epistles, in which there is of course much mention of "urbs Florens, nomine et omen habens—Florentia pulchra—Pieridum Ausoniae," on one side, and on the other, "Haec Catharina fuit Juno, Venus, atque Minerva—sideris Arctoi," etc. A deeper tinge of the Renaissance will be found in the Latin distichs which Prince Giuseppe De Spuches, the distinguished poet and archæologist of Palermo, addressed to Count Giuseppe Rossi in return for the latter's condolences on the occasion of his daughter's death, and which we take from the March number of the *Rivista Europea:*

"Dum mea tabescunt crudeli pectora luctu,
Quis me dignatur carmine dulcis olor?
Rossius est, Orpheu cui fas aequare canendo,
At cur non itidem flectere fata potest?
Si quiret . . . dempta, o mea Lux, mea blandula nata,
Esses semineci mox reditura patri!"

## SCHLIEMANN'S TROY.*

TWO years ago, we suppose that the majority of English and American scholars would have acquiesced in Mr. Grote's words as to Troy and the Trojan War—that "as the possibility of it cannot be denied, so neither can the reality of it be affirmed." Let us see whether this judgment has been materially changed by Dr. Schliemann's discoveries. He is admitted by all to have found remains of great antiquity and interest: are they those of the Homeric Troy? The question resolves itself into two questions: Is the hill of Hissarlik the spot which the writer of the Iliad had in mind? and, granting this, Does it follow that there really existed on this spot a city called Troy (or Ilium), the seat of a powerful empire, captured after a long siege and burnt by the Greeks?

As regards the first point, we do not see that much need be added to Mr. Grote's own words. All the arguments against the site of Hissarlik rest upon the assumption that we are to look at the Iliad as if it were an historical document, and require the locality to correspond as closely to its descriptions as is the case with those of Herodotus and Thucydides—a test which would fail as sadly in the case, for instance, of an historical romance like 'Anne of Geierstein,' written with full access to documents and in the full light of modern criticism. The ancients, it is admitted, down to the third century B.C., unanimously placed Troy on the site of the historical Ilium; and if this passed muster with the community generally, we cannot suppose the author, or authors, to have been more critical. Indeed, Dr. Schliemann seems to have disposed of the chief objection, that of the course of the Scamander, by showing the probability of its having changed its bed; he has found springs which answer to the description of the poet quite as well as those of Burnabashi; and as to the mathematical arguments, from the size of the plain and the distance of Hissarlik from the shore, if they did not trouble Alexander the Great and Lysimachus, we think they need not trouble us.

This is the line of argument that convinced Mr. Grote, and its force has certainly not been diminished since Dr. Schliemann's discoveries. In considering the second question—whether the ruins found by Dr. Schliemann are those of an historical Ilium which was the basis of the legendary Iliad—we must premise that his excavations have *proved* nothing on this head; all arguments built upon them have solely the force of creating or strengthening probabilities. What is needed is inscriptions; barely two or three, which have been shown to be in the Cypriot alphabet, and which are believed to be in a dialect of Greek, make up the whole amount. If scholars succeed in deciphering them, it may determine the question; at present they give us no light, and the other monuments are far from affording any absolute evidence, one way or another. Apart from these discoveries, the argument stands thus: our sole evidence of the existence of an historical Troy is derived from the Homeric poems, supported by the unanimous belief of antiquity. Now, it is certain that, according to the present canons of evidence, this cannot be received as proof; so far, all will agree with Mr. Grote. But it will be observed that Mr. Grote allows no middle ground between "possibility" and "reality"; he refuses to tread upon the treacherous ground of "probability." This is in the main a matter of temperament. Mr. Grote's positive and sceptical nature found no satisfaction except in definite belief or non-belief; for ourselves, we have always felt more sympathy with Curtius's point of view. A real Ilium, a real siege and destruction, have always appeared to us not certain, but probable. As M. Lenormant puts it (*Academy*, March 21, 1874): "Perhaps there is not in the sublime songs which bear Homer's name one single word more of positive history than in the rude and grandiose 'Geste de Théroulde,' but we should no more have the 'Iliad' if there had been no siege and no destruction of Troy by the Greeks, than we should have the 'Chanson de Roland' if that disaster had not happened to Charlemagne's rearguard in the Pyrenees."

We start here with an antecedent probability of the existence of Troy and its destruction, and this probability is enhanced by the Egyptian monuments, which appear to speak of Dardanians and afterwards Teucrians of Iluna as a powerful nation of Asia Minor in the period assigned by tradition for the Trojan empire. M. Lenormant gives this as an undisputed fact; but as another eminent scholar, Mr. Sayce (*Academy*, May 30, 1874), questions the reading of the Egyptian monuments, we are only entitled to set it down as enhancing the probability, not as turning it into a certainty. Now, this original probability that the Homeric poems relate dimly to a real event, thus strengthened by arguments from Egyptian documents, is, we cannot but think, still further strengthened by Dr. Schliemann's discoveries. Here, upon the spot which the ancients believed to have been the scene of the Homeric poems, and where we have found good reason to believe that a great city really existed and was destroyed by fire in very early times, Dr. Schliemann has proved that a city of considerable wealth and extent and of enormous antiquity actually did exist and was destroyed by fire. He has not proved that this city was called Troy, but this lack of a name is the only link wanting in the chain of evidence.

It must be said that there are two real difficulties in the way: first, the small extent of the plateau of Hissarlik, which would be large enough for an acropolis, but which appears to have contained the entire city; second, the objection made by M. Lenormant that the remains are too archaic, and display too low a stage of civilization for the Troy of the twelfth century B.C. But does he not really mean, not the Troy of history, but the Troy of Homer? Is he not ascribing to this distant age the more advanced civilization of the age of its poet? Of course Homer depicts the manners and institutions of his own time, transferring them to the distant period of which he wrote, just as Shakspere transfers the usages and ceremonies of the reign of Elizabeth to that of the early Scotch king Macbeth. Archaism of manner does not prove any absolute date, but only a relative antiquity, just as it is notorious that the Stone, Bronze, and Iron ages exist contemporaneously. Again, what is true of the culture is true of the size of the city. We take our notions from the descriptions of Homer, and apply them to a city which, in his day, had long perished. We must say that we find further strengthening of the probability in the owl-faced figures. Mr. Sayce (*Academy*, Mar. 7, 1874) says that these are "nothing more than the rude attempt of early art to delineate the human face." We cannot agree with him; it seems to us that the owl-face would strike any person who should see it casually, and that Dr. Schliemann's interpretation of γλαυκῶπις is very felicitous. Taken in connection with the contemporary art of Egypt and Assyria—the ram-headed Ammon and the man-headed bull—it belongs to a stage of religious development which was but little beyond the fetich: the deity immanent in the sacred owl, then the owl's head put upon a human body. At a later stage, the owl became a mere emblem or accompaniment of the goddess, but we have no question that all the sacred animals of the Greeks are remnants of an outgrown fetichism. Prof. Max Müller, to be sure (*Academy*, Jan. 10, 1874), asserts that "whatever goddess may be assigned to the Trojans in the Homeric poems, the real deities of that country were not Zeus or Athene, but the Kabeiroi, the Idæan Daktyloi, and the Mother of the Gods." But surely it is not incredible that the people of this city had their special owl-headed goddess besides the group of deities worshipped in the region. At any rate, if Homer proves anything, he proves a peculiar importance of the worship of Athene in Ilium. We believe then that Dr. Schliemann has made out a very strong case in favor of his pretensions to have found the remains of Troy upon the hill of Hissarlik. But when we say Troy, we mean not the Troy that Homer described, but the Troy that actually existed, and which Homer knew only by tradition. When Dr. Schliemann goes further, and attempts to identify the Scæan Gate, the palace of Priam, and the treasures of Priam, we no longer credit him with *probability*, but fall back upon the safe ground of *possibility*.

The volume is published in sumptuous style, is full of plans and illustrations, and is provided with a good index.

* 'Troy and its Remains: a Narrative of Researches and Discoveries made on the Site of Ilium and in the Trojan Plain. By Dr. Henry Schliemann. Translated with the author's sanction. Edited by Philip Smith, B.A. author of 'The History of the Ancient World' and of the 'Student's Ancient History of the East.' With map, plans, views, and cuts, representing five hundred objects of antiquity discovered on the site.' London: John Murray; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1875. 8vo, pp. 392.

## MOHAMMED AND MOHAMMEDANISM.*

THE origin and development of a religious system which rapidly became the ruling religion of millions of men, which has very extensively influenced the political and spiritual history of mankind, and which with great tenacity still maintains itself after twelve centuries, and is a living power amongst numerous nations, are certainly a phenomenon on the study of which too much learning and ingenuity cannot be bestowed. If in Asia and Africa forty generations, and countless thousands at the present day, have renounced fetichism and have shouted and still shout enthusiastically, *Allahu Akbar*—God is great—to what is the world indebted if not to the redeeming power of Mohammedanism? Mr. Smith has attempted to give within the bounds of four lectures a short yet complete exposition of the main points in the history of the rise of this religion and of its chief characteristics. It is true, as the author confesses in his preface, that his work has been mainly derived from secondary sources, from the study of books in the European languages, and that he has drawn but little directly from the fountain-head—from the Koran and other old Arabic writings. To a certain extent, he has succeeded in his attempt. The historical material has been carefully studied and sifted, and the points have been placed in their proper light or proper shadow; judgment on the life and character of the Arabian prophet has been rendered with considerable psychological insight; and (what deserves particular acknowledgment) the author has written as a fair and impartial critic who divests himself as much as possible of prejudices and foregone conclusions. For not only in past ages has Mohammed been designated by partisans as "the false prophet," "a wicked impostor," "a devil incarnate," "the little horn" of which Daniel prophesied, etc., etc. Even in our time most of those who approach the subject do so in a polemical spirit, and are incapable of expressing an impartial and unbiassed opinion.

The title of this book leads one to expect that Islamism will be exhibited in its essence as well as in its historical development. But such is not the case. Whoever looks to it for an exposition of the Mohammedan conception of the Godhead, or of prophecy, or of the Mohammedan idea of state and government, or for information in regard to the great dogmatic and ritualistic differences between the confessors of Islam in Constantinople and Smyrna on the one hand, and those of Teheran and Delhi on the other—between Soonnees and Sheeahs—will seek in vain. Still more will he be disappointed who reads these lectures in the hope of becoming familiar with Islamism in its historical aspects. If a cultivated Persian should desire to get acquainted with Christianity, it would certainly not be sufficient for him to read the Bible alone. The Bible is the foundation only, while historical Christianity is the superstructure. Just so it is with Islam. This system, in its rise, its progress, and its decadence, cannot be understood by the Koran alone. Here, too, we have to distinguish between foundation and superstructure, to examine the various historical periods—the patriarchal period, the period of the Caliphate, and the period of the Sultanate—to consider what particular changes Mohammedanism underwent in the Arabic, the Arabico-Persian, and the Persian-Turkish epochs, and what particular forms it assumed under the rule of the Abbasides in Asia and of the Ommyïades in Damascus and in Spain, and so forth.

Besides these faults of omission, we must point out some of the statements and conclusions of Mr. Smith with which we are unable to agree. He seems in his endeavor to be fair and impartial to have painted the character of Mohammed in too favorable a light, at least so far as it manifested itself after his flight from Mecca. As to the period before the hegira, we are in full accord with Mr. Smith's views concerning the Prophet's sincerity and honesty. In the earlier half of his life, Mohammed does not appear like a man who wilfully lies and deceives. His eminent biographer, Mr. Sprenger, is too severe and too one-sided in his judgment of the character of "the epileptic Prophet" (as he calls him), at least when he refers to his sayings and doings while in Mecca. He is more justified in his verdict on the later life of Mohammed—although here too we must abate something—when he says that the Prophet, after he had attained power in Medina, was nothing more than "ein wollüstiger Theokrat, ein blutdürstiger Tyrann, ein Pabst und König" (a lustful theocrat, a bloodthirsty tyrant, a pope and king). This language is too harsh, and implies an unjust undervaluation of a character which retained much of its moral greatness even amid the temptations of success and of a vast popularity. But there cannot be the least doubt that Mohammed experienced a great change after the hegira. Mr. Smith, however, errs more than Mr. Sprenger did when he undertakes to whitewash unduly the later acts and words of Mohammed. His is a strained apology, a forced justification, and not much better than the so-called *Rettungen* which German historians have attempted.

On page 43, we find the substance of a sermon by Mohammed on charity (preserved by an early Arabic author), in proof of the sublime ethical views and precepts of the founder of Islam. The sublimity of a very large part of his moral teachings cannot be denied. As to this particular instance, however, Mr. Smith was not aware that Mohammed almost literally repeated the sermon of a Jewish rabbi delivered several centuries previously. In support of this assertion, we need but refer to the Talmud, *Baba Bathra*, fol. 10, *a*. The sermon is indeed one proof of the fact, which is now generally admitted, that Judaism is one of the main component elements of Islam. What Mr. Smith says concerning fatalism is generally correct. Some peculiarities in the character of the Orientals should rather be ascribed to climatic and other influences than to theological views and principles. In the theology of the Koran and the Soonna, the doctrine of fatalism has no more support than it has in our orthodox Christian theology. The free-will theories of Pelagius and Arminius did not prevail, but were condemned as heresies by the orthodox church, while the dogma of predestination (another name for fatalism) as taught by Augustine and Calvin took deep root in the Christian system of belief. So Buckle, and historians and philosophers of his manner of thinking, must be classed with the fatalists even more decidedly than the Moslems of the East. As to the propagation of Islam by fire and sword, it must be conceded that this is in accordance with the practice and precepts of the Prophet, and that in this respect Mohammedanism is in diametrical opposition to the teachings of the founder of the Christian religion. But, historically speaking, the contrast between the practice of Christians and Mohammedans has not been so sharp as is generally supposed. This is well illustrated by Mr. Smith.

This work, then, will not meet the wants of the student who desires a thorough acquaintance with the subject; but the general reader, who does not ask to have every point verified by reference to the first sources, and who does not care to enter extensively into the minutiæ of the history, will find these lectures very acceptable and instructive, all the more because the American publishers have added as an appendix Emanuel Deutsch's brilliant essay on "Islam."

* 'Mohammed and Mohammedanism: Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in February and March, 1874. By R. Bosworth Smith. With an Appendix, containing Emanuel Deutsch's Article on "Islam."' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1875.

## RECENT WORKS ON ASTRONOMY.*

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL DRAYSON'S book belongs to a class which is of more interest to the psychologist than to the astronomer. A writer of more or less intelligence concerning subjects of everyday life conceives an intense hatred against some astronomical fact or theory, and spends all his energy, and perhaps a great deal of money, in violent assaults upon it. Commonly, it is the theory of gravitation which produces this extraordinary cerebral excitement, but in a recent well-known case in England it was the rotundity of the earth. In our author's case it is something which, we should suppose, would never trouble any one but a profound astronomer—namely, the motion of the pole of the earth; or, rather, the slow change in the direction of the earth's axis which is known to be continually occurring. This change was detected by Hipparchus before the Christian era, and its cause was pointed out by Newton, who showed it to be due to the attraction of the sun and moon on the slight excess of matter at the earth's equator. The cause once known, the effect admits of exact calculation, only, not knowing exactly how the matter composing the earth is distributed in its interior, there is an uncertainty: the exact amount of the motion cannot be computed from theory. But its direction and law of change admit of accurate calculation, while its amount can be determined from observation; so that by combining theory and observation all the circumstances of the motion are determined with great precision, and are laid down in all works on theoretical astronomy.

Instead of studying the subject in these works, Mr. Drayson refers to popular writings of Herschel, Airy, and others, where he finds it stated that the pole of the earth revolves in a circle, round the pole of the ecliptic as a centre, once in 26,000 years. Now, as the latter pole itself changes its position slightly, he wants to know how it can do so and still remain the centre of the circle. Irritated by such a geometrical absurdity, he makes sarcastic flings at it throughout his book, and, indeed, we believe this is

* 'The Cause of the Supposed Proper Motion of the Fixed Stars, and an Explanation of the Apparent Acceleration of the Moon's Mean Motion, with other Geometrical Problems in Astronomy hitherto unsolved. By Lieut.-Col. Drayson, R.A., F.R.A.S.' London, 1874.

'Astronomy. By J. Rambosson, Laureate of the Institute of France (Académie Française and Académie des Sciences). Translated by C. B. Pitman.' London, 1875.

'Outlines of Astronomy. By Arthur Searle, A.M., Assistant at Harvard College Observatory.' Boston: Ginn Brothers.

the second book he has devoted to its refutation. Of course, he gets up a pet theory of his own, which he attempts to prove by observation, and that is, that the pole describes a circle round another centre. It is characteristic and amusing to see him using nautical-almanac data, computed by the astronomers from their own theory, as observations on which to base his conclusions.

The explanation of the whole difficulty is that the actual motion, though it admits of precise definition, is too complicated to be made fully clear to a non-mathematical reader. But it comes so near a circle round the average position of the pole of the ecliptic that a sufficient idea of it can thus be given to one who only wishes to understand its general nature, and hence it is so described in popular works. A similar mistake is made when it is said that the earth is spherical in form, and a case quite parallel to the present would be that of a writer who, finding this statement in an astronomical work, and knowing that the earth was flattened at the poles, should write several books to prove the absurdity of supposing a sphere several miles shorter in one diameter than in another.

Whether viewed from a grammatical, rhetorical, or scientific point of view, Rambosson's work is about the worst we remember to have seen. The author, translator, and proof-reader must all have been careless and indifferent in the extreme. There is hardly a chapter without inaccurate statements or unintelligible sentences, and hardly a page that is not open to criticism on some score. Not to deal unfairly, by giving single detached statements as specimens, we quote in full the description of the long polar night-winter :

"In mid-winter, the only substitute for the sun is a faint twilight, emanating from the reflection of the rays which it lets fall upon the lofty mountains and the thick mists that compose the atmosphere of the glacial zone.

"The nights are never so dark at the poles as in other regions, for the moon and the stars seem to possess twice as much light and scintillation, while their rays, reflected by the snow and ice with which the ground is covered, shed so bright a glow that one can see one's way, or even read, without the aid of a candle.

"During the sun's disappearance, the moon is nearly always effulgent in these regions, and, in addition to it, there is a continuous light in the north, the varied shade sand play of which are among the strangest phenomena of nature."

A critical reader might ask such questions as why are those lofty mountains not described more fully by travellers? To receive the sun's rays they must be sixty miles high. How could the extraordinary brilliancy described in the second sentence occur in an atmosphere composed of thick mists (not to say lofty mountains)? What is the strange light described at the close—is it the aurora? As a matter of fact, the moon is above the horizon only half the time during the polar night, so that she cannot be "nearly always effulgent." How such a production as this could have found its way into print we are unable to explain.

We have seldom seen a book whose name and preface more truly and modestly characterized it than the 'Outlines of Astronomy.' It is full without being heavy, precise without being pedantic, and explanatory without being diffuse. It nowhere disappoints, and least of all by any enthusiastic ascribing of pre-eminence to its own subject-matter. Concerning the study of astronomy in schools the preface says :

"The knowledge of any natural science, obtained only from a text-book, is scarcely valuable enough to warrant the consumption of much time in committing the book to memory, although its statements may be made with all the precision attainable by the use of mathematics. The student may derive from it some real knowledge of mathematics, but little or none of the science which he has professedly been studying. . . . For most students, then, the study of astronomy merely means the acquisition of such an amount of general information about that science as may serve to add to the rational interests and pleasures of their lives. The present work is accordingly intended rather to be read than to be learned by heart."

We would gladly quote more from this sensible preface, did space permit. As regards the body of the work we have not detected an error of statement in any part of it, which is a good deal to say, or would be of any author but an astronomer. That a parabola is defined as "an ellipse so eccentric that its length is *out of all proportion* to its width," and "as none of the numerous comets moving in parabolas or hyperbolas *are likely* (!) to have been seen before," we may consider evidences of a desire to avoid excessive precision rather than as errors. Of theorizing there is beautifully little, though that little is occasionally faulty. For instance, a doubtful hypothesis concerning the origin of the trade-winds is assumed as fact ; and in discussing the influence of the moon upon the earth's climate an apparent slip is committed. It has been said of the stars : "The heat we receive from them is in many cases enough to be measured ; and it is likely that, if no heat came to us except from the sun, the temperature of the earth *would be much lower than it is*. . . . The heat reaching us from a bright star is more easily perceived and measured than the very small amount which we receive from the moon." Whereas of the moon the author says : "The chief effect of the heat sent out by the moon towards the earth is to clear off clouds in the earth's atmosphere. . . . When it takes place, the rocks and soil of the earth can send out their heat without having it reflected back to them by the clouds, and so grow cooler rather more quickly than they do on cloudy nights. Hence the heat sent us by the moon is *more apt to make us cool than to warm us*." Why, we might ask Mr. Searle, does the heat of the moon cool us, while the heat of the stars warms us ? and why would not the earth's heat melt the clouds which imprison it, just as quickly as heat coming down from the moon ? and why, in fine, should an access of heat from any source produce a loss ? There seems a little lack of scepticism or of good sense in stating, without any attempt at defence, a doctrine so almost paradoxical.

To the most common and idle topics of astronomical speculation, such as that of the inhabitants of other worlds, Mr. Searle devotes only three pages, whose curtness and sense make them well worth quoting entire. But we can only add here a single description, to show the style of the work :

"There are certainly millions of little solid bodies moving about in our own part of the universe. These little bodies are often of irregular form, like the stones and dust of the earth ; and they are so plenty that, if we had not the air to keep them off, they would make the earth a very unsafe place for us. As it is, they sometimes force their way through the air and fall to the ground, although the air is a much more effective defence against these *aerolites*, as they are called, than would at first be supposed. For, a body moving many miles a second, through even the thinnest air, is very soon burned up if it can be set on fire ; and if not, then crumbled to dust by the heat produced in it by the resistance of the air to its progress."

The clearest and most interesting part of the book is its description of the sun. The final chapter, "Notes," contains some new features ; for instance, a list of evenings in 1874–5 when the variable star Algol is changing. On the whole, we heartily recommend this as the most readable treatise upon astronomy that we have ever seen.

---

*Spain.* Art Remains and Art Realities : Painters, Priests, and Princes, etc. By H. Willis Baxley, M.D. (New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1875.)—The remark one first feels obliged to make about this singular book is that it is, after all, not so bad as it seems. We confess that we had left it lying on our table for many weeks, with no expectation of ever bestowing a second glance upon it. The first had been sufficient ; it seemed to us that the presumption was wholly against a couple of stout volumes written in a style so bristling with barbarisms. But we were recommended to take it up again, and we have been, to a certain extent, fairly thankful for the advice. Dr. Baxley puts his worst foot foremost and does himself elaborate injustice. His book is, in form and manner, as we have said, simply barbarous. If Mr. Matthew Arnold could be put into possession of it, we are sure he would consider it of great value to his famous plea in behalf of the literary influence of academies. The matter of Dr. Baxley's shapeless and ponderous production is not of the first merit, but it is quite good enough to be better presented. It is hard to imagine how a man of so much general vivacity of mind, and who appears to have read and observed to such good purpose, should have remained so exempt from the civilizing influences of culture. He lately spent three years in Spain, apparently for his health, and he seems to have kept copious journals and memoranda of his travels and observations. These he has worked over into a narrative of the most intolerable clumsiness and diffuseness, shovelling into it as he goes interminable digressions and disquisitions on everything that comes into his head, especially on what he calls "religionism." Though he is an inveterate theologian and confronts us with Scripture texts at every turn, the venerable word religion seems unknown to him, and to the best of our knowledge the adjective belonging to it never once occurs throughout the work. Its place is invariably occupied by the singular term "religionist." His digressions are in all cases very tedious and in extremely bad taste, and his reflections on Spanish social phenomena of all kinds are evidently founded on very superficial observation. But as regards architecture and painting he is much more satisfactory, and he offers us a good deal of interesting information as to churches and museums. Architecture is his strong point ; here he apparently knows and discriminates. As regards painting, he has more zeal than knowledge, but he pleads the cause of Murillo with almost fanatical ardor, and treats us, catalogue in hand, to interminable descriptions of his innumerable pictures. To Velasquez he is much less liberal, and a critic who fails to recognize this great painter's magic can hardly be

considered trustworthy. He falls foul of Mr. Ruskin, whom one is sorry to see attacked save by thoroughly competent persons. Dr. Baxley has much to say about Spanish climates, and in this particular we imagine his remarks are judicious and valuable. He seems to think that the absence of indoor comfort quite defeats the advantages of a mild winter temperature. But this is an old story. In spite of his diffuseness, his dogmatism, his theology in season and out, his pretentious, tumid style, Dr. Baxley wins our esteem by a certain manly frankness and by having in all cases the courage of his opinions. His book contains a good deal of information which many travellers would doubtless find acceptable; but in its present form this is absolutely unavailable, and no traveller would dream of carrying about such a ponderous mass of grossly irrelevant matter for the sake of a moderate dose of fair guidance. We are afraid that the author will have an opportunity to meditate upon the fatal consequences of producing misshapen books; but if through any rare chance he should some day put forth a second edition, let him compress it into a single volume, strike out all the theology, half the history, and a good third of what he calls the "art realities." After this an occasional tourist with a large literary appetite and a robust palate may find his work of some use. As it stands, it seems to us of almost none.

---

*Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar*, containing Accidence and Word-formation. *Literature Primers: English Grammar.* By the Rev. Richard Morris, LL.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.)—Dr. Morris's 'Elementary Lessons in English Grammar' has a very modest title. It goes fairly over the whole matter of inflection and derivation in a manner well suited to advanced classes in our high-schools, and really contains in its 250 pages the marrow of his 'Historical Outlines of English Accidence,' and somewhat more. It is no abridgment, however. He has rewritten it and gathered new illustrations, so that it has all the freshness and completeness of a new work. It is everywhere clear, accurate, and methodical, and exhibits great wealth of illustrative examples, and tact in the selection and arrangement of them; so that altogether it leaves little to be desired for a text-book of the kind.

If it has a weak point, it is phonology. Some matters of this kind are overlabored—Grimm's law, for example. There are three sets of letters, surd, sonant, and aspirate—or, as Dr. Morris calls them, little graphically, aspirates, flats, and sharps. The law is, that surds change to aspirates, aspirates to sonants, sonants to surds. There is no criss-cross movement, no "swapping," since, while causes are operating to change all *b*'s into *p*'s, the *p*'s cannot get to be *b*'s; and if this be once noticed, it is impossible to mistake and hard to forget any part of the law. But Dr. Morris has pages of tables and statements and mnemonic catch-words, until one begins to get confused about the whole matter.

In his classification of the strong verbs, he makes his first division to consist of verbs in which we can trace the past tense in an earlier reduplicated form—a wholly unscientific and unsteady principle of division, since all the forms come from earlier reduplicated ones, and whether we can trace them or not is a matter of individual skill. As a matter of fact, no attempt is made here by Dr. Morris to trace them. He does not even make a division of those which are found with the reduplication in Gothic or other Teutonic tongues, but follows the lists of Rask, perhaps, or some other old grammarian, and dismembers the class of verbs having roots in *a* between his two divisions, on no obvious ground unless it may be the superficial euphonic variations. In the history of the ending of verbs in the second person singular, § 202, inaccuracies arise from not distinguishing the past tense from the present. The historical discussion of *will* is obscured by misprints, apparently.

The new illustrations give the book a special value for the advanced scholar and explorer. It is perhaps worth notice that the quality which makes them most attractive to the explorer renders them, to a certain extent, unfit for a common-school book. We mean their novelty—the fact that they come from rare books or manuscripts which Dr. Morris has been working over for the Early English Text Society. Taken from unknown connections, and presented in their old spelling, they are often quite unintelligible to the uninitiated. Even when they are translated, as they often are, their exact meaning and their real form must be taken on trust. It is in the nature of a historical grammar to compel more or less of such illustration, but the less of it, the better. The old staple examples from the familiar authors, commonplace as they are to scholars, are the best material after all for the school-room. We want them to continue to be commonplaces with the next generation. Extracts from Milton, the Bible, Shakspere, or Chaucer may well pique the curiosity if they are strange, or challenge a permanent place in the memory of all who speak the English language; but the 'De Regimine Principum' and the four different manuscripts of the 'Cursor Mundi' are quite another matter.

About forty pages are given to the affixes of derivation. This part is not to be compared in thoroughness with some of our American text-books—with Professor Gibbs's 'Teutonic Etymology,' for example, or Haldeman's 'Affixes'—but it is a great advance on the common-school books published in England. Dr. Morris promises by-and-by an 'Historical Syntax,' which will complete his grammar work.

The 'English Grammar' which Dr. Morris has made for Macmillan's series of Literature Primers is a brief statement of the outlines of grammar made in the author's happiest style. It would be hard to improve it without adding to its bulk. Grimm's law is not here; the conjugations of the verb are all right; the illustrations are happy and clear; there is a neat outline of syntax—all in about 100 duodecimo pages. It has not the lessons of practice which our teachers know to be essential to the teaching of grammar; but they may be taken from another book. Perhaps the most notable thing in it is the giving of the paradigm of the passive progressive form, *I am being praised, I was being praised*, without note or comment. This is in a primer of the President of the Philological Society of England. American grammar-makers and verbal critics, take notice.

---

*The History of Democracy;* or, Political Progress, historically illustrated, from the earliest to the latest periods. By Nahum Capen, LL.D., author of 'The Republic of the United States of America; its duties to itself and its responsible relations to other countries,' etc., etc. With portraits of distinguished men. Vol I., 8vo, pp. 677. (Hartford: American Publishing Company. 1874.)—The volume before us appears to be a part of the introduction to a history of the Democratic party. It begins with a dissertation upon Party—in church and state—after which follow sections upon "the Tory party," representing "the Conservative principle," and "the Democratic party," which "represents the great principle of progress." The rest of the volume is made up of whatever facts in the history of the world down to the American Revolution seemed to the author to bear upon his subject. It is evidently the result of a vast deal of industry and very extensive and miscellaneous reading, illustrating the author's definition, at the beginning of the Preface, that "history is the science of knowledge"—that is, it would seem, that pretty much all facts are relevant to it. We do not find anywhere a definition of the term democracy any more precise than that quoted from Senator Allen of Ohio in a note to page 22: "Democracy is a sentiment not to be appalled, corrupted, or compromised. It knows no baseness, it cowers to no danger," etc. There are two or three pages each devoted to the democracies of Athens and Rome; but we have searched in vain for any notice of the really remarkable features of these democracies—those by which, for instance, the "fierce democracy" of Athens put curbs upon its own power and established what came nearer to a scientific system of legislation than perhaps any other nation has ever possessed. The great historian of Athenian democracy performed, we think, no greater service than in his exposition of these features of it. What is true of Athens is true of the historical introduction as a whole. It is democracy in its crude form, as an impelling power, that attracts the sympathies of the author; he has no eye for the checks and balances in which the goodness of a government so largely consists, and without which the democracy that he admires is nothing but a self-consuming fire.

We confess that we cannot fully make out Mr. Capen's train of thought. He has very oddly published this huge volume with no subdivisions at all; none, that is, which rest upon essential subdivisions of his subject. There is a break every few pages, with a heading in quite small capitals, sometimes indicating an important topic, sometimes a mere paragraph; and the order in which these come seems very much a matter of haphazard. Thus "The Democratic Party" is followed by "The Objects of History"; then, "The Mosaic Account of Creation," "Interpretation of Language—Uncertainties of History," "Republics of Greece and Rome"; and further on, "France," "England," "Origin of the American Colonies," "Equality is best Commenced in Poverty," and "The Principle of Integrity"—all on an equal footing. The matter is as ill-digested as arranged. Mr. Capen has no mercy for the hard-worked readers of the present day, but appears to have emptied his note-book into this volume—of course containing many valuable memoranda, but much also that is utterly irrelevant. As a consequence, he only contrives to bring his subject down to the reign of George III., and closes the volume with an announcement that the next volume will commence with the subjects of War and Revolution by way of introduction to the history of the American Revolution.

# Fine Arts.

## FIFTIETH EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

IV.

WE welcome with joy unfeigned an exhibition in which landscape art holds a somewhat subordinate rank, instead of that place of supremacy which was formerly the dread of the ordinary visitor, and which in some years reached a point so absolute that walking through the Academy seemed like exiling one's self among wildernesses where the human form was unknown. Yet the landscapes this year, though not ungracefully held in the shadow by the abundance of interesting figure-pieces, include a sufficiency of good works, and show here and there the fresh styles and inventive conceptions of new-comers. Perhaps the best—certainly the highest example of synthesis in landscape treatment—is the large view of Perugia (358), by Inness, in which the different objects, massed together on account of the common support they give each other, collect upon the sight with the grace of a fine group of statuary. This artist is always praiseworthy in the breadth he keeps in his treatment—the suggestion of infinite detail, without any uneasy dwelling upon or running after the individual shapes that would beguile another sort of mind. The connecting element in the present composition is the wind; a breeze that, having set all the shadowy olive-trees to the left in motion, leaves them fluttering, and lapses away in rocking the willows to the right. The two sorts of movement are beautifully discriminated, and the tremulous shudder of a whole orchard of light-leaved trees is understandingly given. The rise and fall of color and the placid contrasts of light are poetically managed over the whole of this intricate and self-consistent composition. Mr. W. T. Richards shows in No. 364 the result of his late infatuation with apple orchards. A collection of wilful and crabbed old trunks is the result; but it is singular to see how promptly his charm escapes when he abandons the one specialty of minute analysis he has learned. These trees, neither detailed nor sketched with spirit, might have been painted by almost any one. In his better-known style he has a beach-picture (229), in which the eye quickly gets entangled among the long, sinuous lines of lifting water, and becomes a bewildered prisoner, overcome with the coldness and unsociableness of the sea. Mr. Bellows shows a "Water By-way" (197), with canal-horses, sluices, and palpitating masses of trees, the whole adhering together, in the manner of this artist, like a fortuitous concourse of jellies. Mr. Dubois has a landscape with willows (334), in which a clear summer sunshine masses and arranges the composition with much breadth, and a calm generalizing intelligence defines the relation of things with sculptural sharpness. In a lesser way, the landscape of Ernest Parton (493), with a pebbly river-bank, reads the same lesson of largeness and serenity. In the opposite style, Mr. Arthur Parton shows the detailed growth of small things accumulated around a mountain brook (328), with plenty of patient and skilful study, but with something arbitrary about the way in which all the young growths expand into similar fan-shaped extremities. Mr. McCord, an artist whose improvement we have watched for several years with increasing pleasure, has a "Glen" (328) filled with leaf-study similar to Mr. Arthur Parton's, and showing less of that determination towards a strong black-and-light effectiveness which has made some of his former works resemble colored woodcuts. The better-known artists of our older school are nearly all represented, though Mr. J. D. Smillie's talent is rather imperfectly exhibited in a small aquarelle of scenery near the White Mountains. His picture shows the infant Saco, that cleanest of waters, bathing the roots of graceful trees, beside a pathway peopled with well-disposed figures. Mr. Whittredge contributes a beautiful sunset in the woods, with the cathedral-like stems grouped in couples, and standing apart to let in the light from the rich horizon (206). Another of Mr. Whittredge's scenes (354) shows the leafy privacy of a trout-brook that is completely lost in foliage—a picture which happens to balance well the "Midsummer Retreat" (342) of Mr. Wyant, wherein we are almost consoled for the loss of Kensett by nature-painting so much in his sweet and healing strain. Mr. McEntee exhibits a small, vaporously-sad expanse of sterile landscape called "Autumn" (417); and a fine subject, with sky in bold impasto and admirably-fitting groups of children, expressive of "Saturday Afternoon" in winter (220). The extreme ability of the artist in giving an intelligible and very deep sentiment to landscape, by the simplest means, is present this year in all its force. Mr. Church does not contribute, though a painfully-finished tropical scene of his, the "Valley of Santa Isabel," is to be seen in a public gallery a few blocks distant from the Exhibition. Mr. Bierstadt has several paintings on view, the repetitions of old stage-tricks learnt long ago and now continued by rote. The good drawing of Mr. Fitch's large composition, "In the Woods" (192), with a hunter and boy breaking their way through some very rough timber, poorly compensates for the cold purplish tone, hardly credible as pertaining to the hunting-season. Mrs. Coman shows some small woodland subjects (130 and 278), a path through an American forest and a perspective down a French lane, painted with a very refined selection of grays and tender greens, and indicating the repose of high-bred art. Mr. George H. Smillie represents sunset on a Florida lagoon (300) in one of those carefully-mingled compositions and broad inundations of color which disrespectful young persons call omelettes and the more credulous style chromatic experiments. We still have among our critics and public a class of observers who call an artist a colorist when he employs a variety of bright paints, whether the results be false in tone or not. Thus, Mr. William Hart displays a florid bouquet of tints in a picture called "Keene Valley" (271), and the spectators exert their memories to recall similar effects from nature which might justify the artist and confirm his repute as a master of color, rather forgetting the fact that sensitiveness to color may be shown in a picture that is almost gray. Mr. J. M. Hart sees landscape somewhat less in the style of window-gardening, and is ambitious of excellence in cattle-painting. His animal study is as yet, however, entirely too weak to let him put cattle into foreground positions with impunity. His two pictures, "Buck and Bright" (274) and "Bouquet River" (350) have both of them prominent groups of animals, relieved against each other and against the scenery in the manner of Voltz of Munich, but deprived of the anatomical knowledge which gives Voltz's cattle their reason for existence. The palm of animal-painting must very clearly be assigned this year to Mr. Peter Moran, who sends a cow and calf admirably modelled and posed amidst a creditable landscape; the tone of the cow's white hide, as well as her drawing, and the expression of ungainly awkwardness in the young calf just getting over a great log, are true to nature, and indicate original study as apart from the conventional. Mr. Edward Moran sends marines, and one good picture of an osprey's nest—"Moonrise at Gull Island"—all of which are meritorious with a sort of scene-painter's merit, and make us think of the time when Roberts and Stanfield were busy with orders for decorating the London stage. Mrs. Greatorex shows a number of her picturesquely-ragged drawings in ink, including an excellent study from Salvator (112). Mr. W. S. Macy's "View near Munich" (244), while good artistically, seems to carry with it the air of that dankness and bad drainage which have given such a bad sanitary repute to the Munich region. A very praiseworthy study of the interior of Saint Mark's, at Venice (295), is by Mr. Dyer; it does not convey that feeling of tender, colored, scintillating, and gold-shot gloom which is the characteristic of the church, but for a study in the manner of a revelation, in which all the sumptuous ornament of St. Mark's is indicated under some exceptionally perfect condition of illumination, it leaves nothing to desire.

Figure-pictures we have not noticed heretofore are Constant Mayer's "Orphans' Morning Hymn" (530)—an academic group in a church, correct and unimpressive—and Lambdin's "Study in June" (366), a statuette-like girl in muslin; by an awkwardness of relief not often seen, the whitest and most illuminated part of the statuette is relieved against some very black grape-leaves, and the darker side against brightness; the opposite kind of relief is well known to associate usually in a better manner with unity of composition and distinction of style. The latter artist shows, besides, a rustic idyl, a young haymaker pausing to coquet with a broad-shouldered and graceless girl: the complete want of art-feeling in the female figure may be contrasted with the character in any one of Mr. Homer's subjects. Mr. Homer's brush may insult his model with a great deal of neglect and the most cavalier treatment, but it always leaves her unimpaired in elegance, purity, simplicity, and a distinguished pose. While alluding to figure-pictures we should speak of Le Clear's excellent male portrait, in less than kit-cat size (465), to Mr. Baker's disgracefully commonplace likeness of Beecher (484), and to Mr. Butler's aristocratic but feebly-forcible interpretation of a magnificent model in the "Portrait of a Lady" (312).

Our prominent sculptors appear to have applied themselves to monumental work during the year, and there is hardly any plastic art on exhibition. A fairly good marble bust of Mr. W. M. Evarts, by Mr. St. Gaudens (513), a rather coarse bronze one of Mr. John Kelly, by Cushing (520), and a decidedly elegant decoration by Mr. Bauer, called a "Sleeping Cherub" (521), are all that require indication.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 27, 1875.*

## The Week.

IT has been a lively week in Wall Street, attended with a large decline in the prices of speculative stocks. The grasshopper-plague, the continuance of the railroad war, and the uncertainties in regard to Erie, have all contributed to the depression. There have been no new developments in Erie, but a multitude of doubts have been raised, all calculated to unsettle the market and discourage the holders of the Company's bonds and stock. The former fell 3 to 6 "points" early in the week, and the stock has been down to 18 in London and 19 here. Investment securities suffered little by the demoralization of the stock market, the low rates for money keeping the demand for these large. Currency continues to accumulate in the New York banks, the legal-tender notes now exceeding $61,000,000. The dulness of trade is shown by the limited demand for discounts at the banks, and by the extremely low rates at which money lends on demand, as well as by the low rate at which mercantile paper sells. Paper which in a healthy condition of affairs sells at 7 per cent. is now sought by those having money to lend at 4 to 4½ per cent. It will be strange if this low and unhealthy condition of the money market do not breed speculation before the summer is passed. The speculation in Erie, both here and in London, has had the effect of diminishing coin exports; Erie shares have been forced enough lower in this market to make purchases here and sales in London possible at a handsome profit nearly every day during the week. These operations have been carried to the extent of supplying this market with exchange. The gold clique have made little headway either in advancing the premium or in establishing high rates for the use of gold. Until something of a less temporary character than the Erie speculation intervenes, there will be no reason for changing our opinion that the coin exports during the summer will be unusually large.

---

We publish on another page a letter from the New Hampshire Secretary of State, on the subject of the recent Democratic "outrage" in that State. We have not taken any side in the matter, nor do we mean to now, further than to say that, granted the facts and the law as they are stated in Mr. Butterfield's letter, no wrong whatever seems to have been done. As a general thing, the law of elections, particularly as it regards abbreviated names of candidates, is by no means a very lucid branch of the science, chiefly because most election cases are decided by legislative committees, which make use of the law to give color to foregone conclusions, instead of making their conclusions depend on the law. In New Hampshire, however, all question seems to have been avoided by the insertion of a distinct provision in the constitution to the effect that every ballot which does not contain the "full Christian and sirname" of a candidate, "with the initial letter or letters of the middle name," and "the usual abbreviations of junior, second, third, and the like" "shall be regarded as a blank and not counted." This seems to dispose, without possibility of dispute, of the case of "Natt" Head, about which so much has been said, while, as to the Fourth District, the rejection of votes cast for ineligible persons appears also to have been unavoidable. There may be other circumstances which have not been distinctly stated that will account for the uproar that has been made; but this is a question whose decision we must leave to those better informed than ourselves. Considered abstractly, no desperate injustice was done, inasmuch as the candidates declared elected both had a plurality though not a majority of the votes cast.

The Centennial Commission has held a meeting in Philadelphia, and a programme for the opening exercises of the Exhibition has been submitted, which seems to cause much chagrin in Pennsylvania, because in it the poet, the reader of the Declaration, and one of the orators all come from Massachusetts, while not a single Pennsylvanian appears on the list at all. A Philadelphia paper has therefore prepared a list which gives all the offices to Massachusetts except that of Treasurer (this post being retained for a Pennsylvanian), making General Butler Grand Marshal, and General Banks Master of Ceremonies. The *Bulletin* then goes on in the same frivolous vein to suggest that if the Commission differs from it in "concentrating the Centennial programme" on the single State of Massachusetts, its "second choice" would be that one office shall be given to Pennsylvania. It objects to the selection of Mr. Emerson as reader on the ground that though he can unquestionably write "he cannot read," and is therefore the most unsuitable of selections; and it proposes, "if the reading of the Declaration is to be a merely nominal one, not intended to be heard," that the "venerable and honorable Horace Binney" be selected—though, as a Harvard graduate, we should suppose exception might be taken even to him. The *Bulletin* then goes on to declare, in a sentence of somewhat doubtful construction, that "Pennsylvania has at least two native poets who will write a centennial poem more in time and tune with the great occasion than what the poet-laureate of Massachusetts would probably write"—these natives being Mr. George H. Boker and Mr. Bayard Taylor.

---

How these questions will be ultimately settled we do not know, but the Pennsylvanians ought not to forget that there is a strong feeling among our people that the energies of the State have for a long series of years been devoted to the accumulation rather of material than of intellectual strength. The manufacture of pig-iron is no doubt an excellent thing, but, under the peculiar temptations to embark in it afforded by the imposition of a heavy tax on the country at large, the intellectual development of the community could hardly help taking a subordinate direction, in harmony with its material pursuits. In Pennsylvania, therefore, while the advance in protected manufactures has been very great, that in the domain of science, art, and letters has not been very astonishing, and the intellectual development which has been accomplished has been, as it were, mainly incidental or ancillary to pig-iron. If it is really desired to give the centennial a local character, Judge Kelley and Mr. Henry C. Carey, who are almost themselves products of the industrial system they have done so much to foster, should certainly not be omitted; and we would suggest that instead of reading the Declaration of Independence, or immediately after it, a very effective hit might be made by having some of the more stirring and exhilarating thoughts of Mr. Carey read by Judge Kelley, followed perhaps by some original remarks of the latter on the currencies of the world. We can hardly imagine a more startling or effective way of showing the representatives of European thought who may be present, how perfectly compatible is great industrial prosperity with ignorance of economic law and contempt for economic knowledge.

---

The Legislature of Iowa, during its last session, passed what is known as "the Iowa Railroad Tariff Law"—an act to establish reasonable maximum rates of charges for the transportation of freights and passengers on the different railroads of the State. The act classifies the railroads according to their gross annual earnings per mile (at the time the act was passed). By it Class A (railroads earning $4,000 and more per mile) cannot charge more than 90 per cent. of the fixed rate established by the act. Class B (railroads earning $3,000 per mile) cannot charge over 5 per cent.

above the fixed rate. Class C (railroads earning $2,000 per mile) cannot charge over 20 per cent. in addition to the fixed rate. For passengers, Class A cannot charge more than 3 cents per mile; Class B not more than 3½ cents per mile; and Class C not more than 4 cents per mile. In a case under this law decided by the United States District Court, the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad Company asked for an injunction to restrain the Attorney-General of Iowa from prosecuting certain suits brought by him against the Company under the provisions of the act—1st, Because the act is in conflict with the Constitution of the United States, in that it impairs the obligation of contracts, and is a regulation of inter-State commerce; 2d, because it is repugnant to the constitution of the State of Iowa, in that it does not affect all railroads alike, and is therefore not of uniform operation; and, 3d, that it conflicts with the Bill of Rights. In the opinion of the Court (Dillon, J.), railway corporations chartered by the State, with the *express or even implied* power "to make contracts," have the power to demand and receive compensation for their services; but this is far short of conferring upon them an *exclusive* power in this respect and one beyond future legislative control; a railroad, in its public character, is an improved highway; its life is due to the exercise of State and national prerogative of eminent domain and taxation; and its public character is not divested by the fact that its ownership is private.

---

The Court was content with holding that the Legislature of Iowa has not "*expressly conferred*" upon any railway corporation therein exclusive power to fix their own charges; that such power cannot be arrived at by implication, and that whatever powers are conferred in this respect are subject to an implied condition that they shall not be exercised oppressively or unreasonably; that they are at the same time subject to the future exercise of police regulations of the State, or of any other power possessed by the State in its nature legislative, which includes the power to regulate consistently with the charter the franchises granted, and to prescribe and limit the amount of charges which it shall be lawful for the railroad to take for transportation. As to the question of inter-State commerce, the Court held that the State could only have legislative control over the roads within its own borders, and, recognizing the fact that our railroad system is made up of parts supplied by several States, the Court expressed a doubt whether a power in a State thus limited to its own local borders and interests could be beneficial in its exercise, and remarked that it was a "legislative problem and not a judicial question." Presiding Justice Miller took no part in the decision, from the fact that all these questions will soon be before him in the United States Supreme Court, and he desires them to come there without any expression of opinion by him. Another case is before the Court, involving the question whether a company can be compelled to operate its road under the rates established by the above act when it would thereby not be able to earn expenses; in other words, can a railroad be compelled to do service without compensation?

---

It seems that we fell into an error in speaking, a week or two ago, of the State of Michigan as having been "for the last twenty years a solitary, or almost solitary, instance of a community constitutionally prohibited from even allowing themselves to say what they would and would not drink"; the fact being that the constitution forbids the passage of a license law, and does not prohibit prohibition. Still, we are unable to see that the case is much less singular. As it is, the community says: We will not prohibit ourselves from prohibiting ourselves to drink whiskey, wine, and ale; we will permit ourselves to prohibit ourselves from drinking; but what nothing shall ever tempt us to do is to allow ourselves to permit ourselves to decide that we will drink under certain restrictions. For a community solemnly to declare that they are willing to have prohibition or "free rum," but nothing between, is, to our mind, even more singular than the provision as we originally gave it. The clause in the Michigan constitution relating to this subject is as follows: "The legislature shall not pass any act authorizing the grant of license for the sale of ardent spirits or other intoxicating liquors." The legislature having now passed a law imposing a tax on the liquor-dealers, the question is whether this tax is or is not substantially a license law. We should like to see this question discussed by the Grangers. The proper way of settling the difficulty would be, it strikes us, to impose and collect the tax, and then pass a prohibitory law confiscating all the liquor in the State. In this way a large sum of money might be got by the State, and an odious traffic would receive its death-blow.

---

Newspaper calculations as to the chances of a Presidential election a year in advance of the nominations are not apt to be very valuable, and this year, owing to the unexpected and bewildering Democratic victories of last autumn, are even less valuable than usual. The manner in which the calculations are made on the two sides is this. The Democrats say: in the first place, the whole number of electoral votes is 369; 185 being necessary for a choice. The entire South is now Democratic, and casts 138 votes, leaving only 47 necessary to carry the election. New York will throw 35, California 6, and New Jersey 9, or three more than is required. To this the Republicans reply—in the first place, the South is not a unit, for Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida are doubtful, while South Carolina is certainly Republican, and there is no good reason why North Carolina should not vote the Republican ticket, as was done in 1872. To this the Democratic journalist replies that this is very true, because every one knows that North Carolina was carried by fraud in 1872, while in 1876 there is not much reason to anticipate any danger of that sort. Williams is now out of office, and the plan of dragooning the South has been perforce abandoned. Then, besides this, even if a few of the Southern States should be coerced into voting the Radical ticket, all the Northern States which went Democratic last fall will do so again, and, with Massachusetts casting a Democratic vote, what can be expected for the Republicans? This, however, does not satisfy the Republican journalist, for he maintains that last year was an "off-year"; that Northern States have, as in the case of New York, before now gone Democratic in an off-year, and then redeemed themselves at a Presidential election; and that the substitution of Pierrepont for Williams, and the reorganization of the Cabinet now going on, will, so far from having a bad, have an extremely good effect on the fortunes of the party, because it will prove to the people that the grand old party is determined upon reform, and will thus "bring to its side all the reformatory elements of the country." With plenty of paper and ink, we do not see why the discussion should not be carried on from now till this time next year, but it is a gratifying indication of the improved tone of politics that we have so little speculation now as compared with the amount which formerly filled the newspapers. The leading newspapers on both sides seem thoroughly impressed with the vital truth that the important thing for them to do is to discuss the present behavior of the two parties, and not their probable future chances, as they may be affected by what either thinks of the other.

---

The New York Legislature has adjourned without distinguishing itself either for good or evil. What would have been the character of its proceedings had not the Governor given such a decided direction to them by his message on the canals, it is difficult to say, but on the whole the session has been marked by comparatively little predatory legislation. A vigorous assault was made on the charter at the beginning of the session, but, thanks to the firmness of the Governor, it was defeated, without breaking up, as was feared by the timid, the harmony of the Democrats. This failure must have rather taken away the high spirits with which the members came together, and the canal message seems to have finished the work. The Legislature adjourned in a decorous, quiet

manner, without any tomfoolery or horse-play, and, owing to the number of things they refrained from legislating upon, have been "let off" quite easily by the press. The session has been made noticeable, among other things, by the performances of the Speaker of the Assembly, Mr. Jeremiah Maguire, who managed to create some confusion and discord at times by disappearing from the chair, calling some other member to occupy it, and then making a furious harangue on the subject under debate. Toward the end of the session, however, he too became calmer, and at the adjournment made a dignified and sagacious speech on the press, its position and duties in the modern state, its relation to the Government, its great power and influence, and the abuses to which this power is exposed, which was listened to with marked attention by the assembled legislators and reporters. It is said that Mr. Maguire has given the Democrats so much trouble that he will be dropped next year.

---

A bill has been introduced into the House of Lords to regulate the practice of vivisection, which is said to have the support of several eminent naturalists and physiologists, including Messrs. Darwin and Huxley. The main object of the bill is to prevent vivisection from being practised secretly, and for this purpose it proposes to enact that vivisection shall only be performed in places registered for the purpose. It is also provided that an "inspector of anatomy" may at any time visit and inspect these places, and that anæsthetics shall always be used. These provisions, it is supposed, would prevent the practice now so frequently denounced by Bergh and other reformers—if it exists at all—of vivisection carried on by scientific barbarians for the mere devilish satisfaction of their own love of the infliction of pain, and would ensure at least the possibility of the public's always knowing or finding out what the vivisectors were about.

---

The settlement of the Guikwar of Baroda's case by the Indian Government, by the deposition of the Guikwar, does not give the English press any more satisfaction than the extraordinary measures taken for his trial did. The grounds on which he has been deposed are general misgovernment and incorrigibility. But the English critics of the Indian administration say the Guikwar was not tried for these faults, but for an attempt to murder, and as to his guilt the court disagreed. Under these circumstances, the Government might either say that they took the view of those members of the court who voted to find him guilty and punish him for his crime, or they might say that they regarded the disagreement as an ordinary disagreement of a jury, and reinstate him. Instead of this, they have chosen to prosecute him for one offence and punish him for another, and this will not be likely to foster in the native mind that respect for British justice which it was the aim of the trial to stimulate. Meanwhile, Mr. Fitzjames Stephen has written to the *Pall Mall Gazette* a couple of letters, in which he proves to his own satisfaction that the Guikwar was guilty; and upon this Messrs. Lattey & Hart, the defendant's attorneys, have also written to the same paper, complaining of Mr. Stephen's want of candor in his examination of the evidence, and proving pretty conclusively that the prosecution had no case. It is tolerably clear that the Indian Government, in trying the experiment of a mixed commission, made a blunder, but it may be doubted whether the native population has been as much distressed by the somewhat irregular mode of the prince's deposition as the English public have been. Sergeant Ballantine, who went out from England to defend the Guikwar, has come out of the case better than any one else, for he has made a large sum of money, and on his departure from India received also a grand popular ovation from the natives, who looked upon him as a sort of saviour.

---

It is well known that Alfonso's Ministry has wreaked its reactionary spite on the institutions of learning by ordering that the course of instruction established for many years shall be subordinated to Catholic dogma. The full meaning of this subjection is nowhere so well understood as in Spain, and the circular of Señor Orovio was answered by such a prompt and extensive hegira of instructors that resignations were declared analogous to desertion in the face of the enemy, and punishable by imprisonment. Two instances of persecution in this guise are described in a letter by Mr. Arthur Arnold to the London *Times*. One of the victims is Señor Nicholas Salmeron, author of a considerable work on anthropology, and "perhaps the most able, the most influential, and most beloved of the professors of the University of Madrid." He protested manfully against conforming his lectures to the Ministerial circular, which he denounced as unconstitutional and illegal. He had never, he said, mixed his educational functions with the political opinions he held as a citizen, and he would not be guilty of the "stupid error." His refusal thus to degrade his professorate was met by imprisonment in a small town in the north of Spain, away from his family and friends. A still greater hardship was visited upon his colleague, Señor Giner, who at the time of his expulsion from his chair was suffering from an affection of his lungs which kept him to his room, and who was nevertheless transported with heedless exposure to Cadiz, where he has since lain a prisoner in hospital, in default of his ability to endure the voyage to the Philippines—his ultimate place of banishment. The Ultramontane press has indulged in characteristic rejoicing over this benighted policy, directed against men whose lives have been divorced from politics, and whose teachings have simply reflected the liberal spirit of the age. Mr. Arnold regards it as an attack in the rear on Germany, partly on account of the present attitude of that country towards the Papacy, and partly because German philosophy has been directly imported into the University of Madrid by two professors, now deceased, who have left behind them published works and active disciples.

---

The latest China mail brings information of the adoption of a policy looking to a more complete settlement of Formosa. The new special commissioner for the affairs of that island has brought about the abrogation of an old law prohibiting emigration to it from the mainland, and has also had removed certain restrictions on its industry and trade-exports. The Chinese view of protection being, like the mediæval, based on the logical assumption of hostile interests between different parts of the same country as well as between foreign countries, no person in Formosa was permitted to engage in iron-founding without a license from the Treasurer of Fokien, and the iron used had to be brought from Changchow under penalties for the unauthorized extraction of the native ore. The existence of such discriminations was really, in Chinese as in American political economy, proof of close relations between the colony and the Empire, and not the contrary, as Japanese diplomacy was recently inclined to assert. The customs barriers through which trade with the interior of China is taxed, belong in the same mediæval category. No little excitement has been caused in Tientsin by an effort on the part of the customs Taotai to collect the so-called barrier tax immediately upon payment of the customs dues. The result of such a plan of preventing evasions of the tax would have been to ensure the importer but a single pass for his invoice, so that when this came to be divided for distribution to different parts of the interior, all but one lot would be exposed to fresh taxes at the barriers. Remonstrances from the foreign consuls caused the application of the Taotai's decree to be confined to native merchandise, but induced another proclamation reclaiming unpaid barrier taxes on all native goods imported during the previous six months. The native traders thereupon determined to stop doing business altogether, and actually shut up their shops in defiance of the Taotai. This "lock-out" of the Government proved effective, and the Viceroy intervened to restore matters to their *status quo*. The Taotai, who had been carrying out superior orders, resigned.

## THE LAST RUMOR OF WAR.

THE rumors of impending war which have been afloat in Europe for so many weeks, if they have no other value, may serve to give us an idea of what we may probably look for in the way of alarms for many years to come. The late struggle between France and Germany has left behind a stock of mutual hate and suspicion which contains materials enough for several wars, and as long as this exists, and there is as much money to be made out of rumors as may now be made on the Stock Exchange, we shall have, every year or two, fits of uneasiness and anxiety like that through which Europe has just been passing. Moreover, the very readiness for war which such a state of things produces has of course a strong tendency to bring war about. The maintenance of such military systems as both France and Germany now possess is not possible both without giving purely military considerations undue weight with the governments, and without fostering the military temper—or, in other words, the disposition to look for causes of offence—which may be said to lie at the root of military morale. A patient, forgiving army, or an army loth to take offence, and not given to self-assertion, is, as Lecky has somewhere well pointed out, almost a contradiction in terms; and when we make the people and the army identical, we do much to give weight and gravity to small international differences. This consideration may be set off, to a large extent at least, against the enormous industrial disturbance caused by a resort to hostility in our day on the part of a state which not only has a large army, but whose reserves have always to be taken directly from civil life. The German shopkeeper or mechanic or farmer must, like such men in other countries, necessarily have always a strong interest in the preservation of peace; but this interest will be, in all likelihood, diminished by the fact that he has served in the army, and still forms part of it, and takes more or less pride in feeling like a soldier.

We have, we may add, the utmost confidence that, in spite of everything, the weight of German feeling and opinion will in the future as in the past be in favor of peace, because peaceableness is a matter of temperament almost as much as of circumstances, and the German character would have to undergo an enormous change in order to become anything that could fairly be called bellicose. But then, circumstances have changed for the Germans, and circumstances have their weight, and must be allowed for in estimating the chances of peace or war. The great difficulty they have had in securing the national consolidation, and the terrible suffering and humiliation which preceded it, naturally produce more or less fretfulness and even truculence now that they have attained the goal of their desires. They are not yet perfectly sure of the prize, and cannot feel satisfied that their enemies have utterly lost the power as well as the wish to mar their fortunes.

In calculating the probable course of French policy, it will not do to attach too much importance to the influence on the national mind of the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. This was doubtless a cruel blow, and must prove for an indefinite period a source of keen irritation, but to say that, if Alsace and Lorraine had not been taken, the temper of the French would be any more pacific than it is now, would be saying much more than there is any warrant for. Those who are still familiar with the history of the period between 1815 and 1830 must remember that though France had then, through her disasters, lost no territory to which she had the least sentimental attachment, and suffered but little from invasion beyond the exaction of a heavy indemnity, and had only been worsted in a war of her own making, revenge for Waterloo formed during the succeeding twenty years the principal feature in every political programme which had any popularity. Besides this, the Liberals, who were most troubled by the reactionary tendencies of the Restoration, were avowed partisans of Bonapartism; and the most powerful of Béranger's songs, of the influence of which on opinion this generation has but little idea, were devoted to glorification of the Imperialist régime, above all in its military features, and to making peace and non-intervention appear contemptible. In short, if any deduction applicable to the present crisis be permissible from recent French history, it is safe to assume that any exasperation from which Frenchmen are now suffering is rather due to the changed position of France towards the rest of Europe, than to any material losses she has sustained, and that it will undergo no diminution as long as the Government has as little weight as it has now in European councils, and as long as Frenchmen fancy that influence can only be recovered by fighting, just as it has been lost by failure to fight well.

But then, just as the desire to avenge Waterloo died out, partly under the influence of time and of peaceful intercourse, but mainly under experience of the fact that a country containing over thirty millions of men as brave and ingenious and industrious as Frenchmen are does not need to fight in order to secure its legitimate authority in the eyes of other nations, we may be sure that now every year that France refrains from fighting the desire to fight Germany will grow weaker, and that it will finally decline to its normal degree with regard to that as to every other country, because even Frenchmen will see that their recovery from prostration is sufficient to restore their reputation; that the bad management of the war has not permanently diminished French military prestige; and that any nation which exhibits the enormous capacity for accumulation which France possesses would be a formidable element in European politics even if it had only one hundred thousand men under arms.

That the scheme attributed to some German military men of attacking France again now, before she has completed the reorganization of her army, for the purpose of crushing her beyond redemption, has ever been seriously contemplated by German statesmen, we do not believe. Even supposing Bismarck to be equal to anything so diabolical in point of morality as this would be, he is too shrewd a man to think of it as practicable. There is such a thing as presuming too far on the power of mere military strength; and nobody seriously supposes that disregard for what is called the balance of power has reached such a point that the prospect of seeing France reduced to the condition of the Grand-Duchy of Cracovy, would not bring her an ally from among the other great Powers. Every one of them has a strong interest in preserving her as a respectable if not as a domineering part of the European political system; and it has to be remembered that though Germany may be more than a match for her, the total defeat of a tolerably well-organized and decently-led French army is an exploit which would leave neither Germany nor any other European power much strength to spare. With an ally, even a feeble one, France must always be an antagonist which neither Germany nor any other power could engage without anxiety. There is, too, in French fortunes an element of uncertainty which is characteristic of the people, and which must make the most self-confident victor hesitate about pushing her to the wall. She has four or five times in her history been reduced to the lowest depths of exhaustion without apparently touching the springs of her energy and vitality. She has now been for eighty years in a condition bordering, even in the best times, on anarchy, and without a particle of the security as to the future which with other nations is almost necessary to existence, and yet it has not seriously affected either her material prosperity or her industry. She ploughs, and sows, and reaps, and weaves, retains the cunning of her hand and the fertility of her brain, with the full knowledge that she is sitting over a volcano. She does not become great in the highest sense of the word, or free in any sense, but she remains a considerable force in modern civilization, and has an army which no enemy ever yet engaged without at least wishing that the day were well over.

## IMPROVEMENT IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

ANYTHING that Mr. Charles W. Eliot has to say on the subject of education is sure to deserve attention. As president of one of the two oldest and best colleges in the country, he is in a position

to study and observe thoroughly not only those questions which immediately relate to the "higher education," but those which are suggested by the condition of the lower strata and their connection with the upper. Both as a writer on education and as a college president, he has been eminently successful in persuading people of the truth of his ideas, and in carrying them into effective operation. His article in the last *Atlantic* on economy in schools is one which ought to be read by every one. What he says with regard to them is substantially this: There is at the present time a strong current of opinion in favor of economy in city and town expenditure. This is a healthy tendency, and it is much to be hoped that it may prove strong enough to bring honesty and economy into the administration of public affairs; but it is of the utmost consequence that behind the eager desire for economy there should be a well-informed and careful judgment concerning the best methods of retrenchment. Particularly is this so as regards the public schools—a department which we see is often selected as that in which economy is to be tried. Every one will agree that nothing should be done merely for the sake of saving money which will make them, in the judgment of competent persons, worse than they now are.

Mr. Eliot then proceeds to examine a few of the common ways of economizing in public schools. The first of these is to build a large school-house, which will contain every child that can possibly be sent by the taxpayers, instead of building several smaller ones. Of course this proceeding saves money, but it impairs the quality of the schools, unless the school is situated in some district in which all the people are of one kind; it brings under one roof a horde of children, good and bad, diseased and healthy, of rich and of poor parents, differing in early associations, in religious and moral training, in taste, in intellectual capacity, and differing also in their probable futures—most of them being destined, as most of mankind have been from the earliest ages, to a life of toil, some few to wealth and ease, others to moderate independence. Now, it is obvious that forcing all this heterogeneous mass into one vast school-house to be educated can only mean one thing—a dull uniformity of training and discipline, which will tend for the time being as much as possible to wipe out all individual differences, to destroy individual ambition, and to produce in the end, as Mr. Eliot says, an "average product," a sort of mental, moral, and physical mean standard, which has been obtained quite as much by stunting what is good in the children educated as by forcing work out of the dull. In fact, the general result is a good deal like the result in an army of a uniform drill. You can obtain out of very indifferent material a good average soldier, who will stand fire, fight with coolness, and obey orders; and so you can in a gigantic school turn out a well-drilled scholar, who will pass an examination creditably, and who will be able to show a good record for industry; but this is not education. What we want in education is the development, not the repression, of individuality at all points.

Again, a favorite way of "economizing" is to reduce the proportionate number of teachers. Mr. Eliot thinks that twenty-five is as great a number of children as can be taught by one person, but it is no uncommon thing to find from forty to sixty children in a single teacher's hands. Or, money is saved by substituting inexperienced teachers for competent and skilled ones, thus giving the untaught instructor the same opportunity of "fitting himself for the duties of citizenship" that Mr. Boutwell used to think the principal duty of the Treasury in the case of another class. Then, a school-committee will sometimes succeed in economizing by employing a second-rate kind of teacher, reinforced by a good superintendent. Another way, and the favorite of all, is to engage female teachers where men ought to be employed. Women, Mr. Eliot maintains, though their employment is very often advisable, can never be expected to make in all cases the best sort of teachers, because they generally take to teaching, not as men do, for a permanent lifelong calling, but as a temporary occupation, terminated as speedily as possible by marriage. After marriage, a woman does not teach; after marriage, a man does; and, when the best kind of teaching is needed, we must go to the sex which is the strongest, the most enduring, and which has the most urgent motives to excel in teaching considered as a profession.

These being instances of what Mr. Eliot calls "unwise economy" in public schools, he next proceeds to give illustrations of what would be wise methods of economizing. Of these, there are two most important. The first is to make the business of teaching an honorable, secure, and independent means of livelihood, by respectable salaries and by secure tenure of office. The second is to save money, by making the parents of the brighter pupils whose education reaches a certain level, pay for a further advance. Of course, in the case of poor children, he would have the same thing done at the public expense. Few of our readers, we suppose, will dispute the value of these suggestions, which are put forward by Mr. Eliot in a guarded and conservative way. Indeed, it seems an almost self-evident proposition that saving money by lowering the quality of the public schools is the very worst use they can be put to. Nevertheless, we suppose that even the most sanguine person would not after reading the article find himself expecting that its recommendations would be adopted at once in many places. We say to ourselves that this may be very true, but it will not be carried out; and the reasons why we think so are two. The first is comprised in one word—politics, and the second is a sentimental regard for a theory of the public schools which is wholly wrong and vicious and yet has a wonderful vitality.

As to the effect of politics on the schools, it is unnecessary to say more than a word. The schools are in a certain sense the natural prey of the practical politician. If the times are times of wasteful extravagance and reckless generosity, the schools may be preyed upon in a variety of ways; if the politicians have been frightened into a fit of economy, the schools suggest themselves at once as the easiest quarter in which to save. If curtailment of the expenses of the police, the construction of public works, or of the roads is suggested, a yell of opposition is raised by a large number of able-bodied voters "inside politics," who are themselves dependent upon salaries from these sources, and who are able to assist one another to blast the future of any one who attempts to reduce their incomes. With the teacher, however, the case is entirely different. The teachers are not, as a rule, a body of strong, muscular, powerfully framed "workers," who will struggle and resist if oppression is practised upon them; they are half of them young women, and the other half men of a sedentary turn of mind, thoughtful, and trained in science or the classics, living on a narrow income given them by the state, with a dislike very often to active life, and practising those virtues of meekness, forbearance, and humility which nowadays—in the "political arena" at least—are so completely out of place. The extent to which "pressure" of all kinds is brought to bear upon these poor creatures is almost incredible; but when we reflect that in many large cities it is necessary for applicants for school positions to "see" active politicians of the lowest stamp to secure their places, we can easily guess how much may be wrung out of them by judicious squeezing. We have ourselves known of a case in which a well-qualified teacher in Boston, trying to get a particular position, found himself obliged in his search for one of the body having the appointing power to go to a low grog-shop owned by him, and there to state his case to the bar-tender, one of the "workers" for the absent statesman, who, after listening with great suavity to the statement of the applicant, made this reply: "Say no more. Tom Finnegan's got to do what I say; you'll have the place"—a prediction, we believe, not at all verified by the event. It is easy to say, "How shocking, to go to a low bar-room and ask for a 'position' as a school-teacher!" It is certainly a shocking illustration of the influence of politics on the schools; but, politics being as they are, of course places in the schools must in some cases be got by going the rounds of the grog-shops. The practical man, bent on making his way, who goes and interviews Tom's factotum, will get the start of the shrinking man who stays away, and in the struggle for existence the practice of interviewing Tom's factotum comes very soon into vogue.

But there is another obstacle which stands in the way of improvement in the public schools, also political in its character, though not created solely by the politicians: we mean the tenacity with which everybody—politicians, public, and all—clings to an antiquated theory of the relation of the schools to the world outside. It is clear, as Mr. Eliot points out, that improvement in the public schools must be effected, not by making education a uniform, blind drill, but by giving it variety, and recognizing among the pupils the existence of variety produced by that gradual developing and differentiating process which we call civilization. But this is exactly what those who have the direction of the educational machinery refuse to recognize. According to the traditional theory, the public schools are a sort of "miniature republic," in which the scholars are equal in rights, duties, and capacities, as citizens are in public life. In them the children of the educated and the uneducated, the rich and the poor, the proud and successful, and the meek and lowly, all come under the beneficent operation of our institutions—all learn how noble a thing a republican government is. It follows from this that they must all in the eye of education be equal, and any attempt to divide them into groups, to discriminate between those who are bright and those who are dull, to separate those who are at once ambitious and able to pay the cost of ambition from those who merely will take as much instruction as may be forced into them, is regarded as an attempt to break up the American school system. Nothing can be more ridiculous. It is true enough that the schools must be an "epitome of life"; but what, in the name of common-sense, is the life of which they are to be an epitome? Is it a life in which every chance is given to the play of individual ambition, talent, and strength of character, in which energy and rivalry in the struggle for power and wealth are encouraged and rewarded, or is it a life paternally superintended by a superior authority, hemmed in with all sorts of barriers and restraints? There is a strong feeling as regards the schools that "all should pay alike," for instance; but this is not a maxim of general American life. The equality which we boast of is not a repressive equality, intended to prevent the exertion and triumph of individual force; it is nothing more than a guarantee on the part of the public that no one shall be hampered in the race of life by any but natural obstacles. When we turn to the schools, however, it becomes a sort of guarantee that no one shall be permitted to have the benefit of his natural advantages. We know what the result has been: the increasing unpopularity of the public schools among the very classes—the rich and intelligent—who ought to give them their best support; the opening in this way of the school-funds to attacks from every sectarian body; and their impoverishment for political objects.

## ENGLAND.—SCOTCH AND IRISH LEGISLATION.

London, May 8, 1875.

A STUDENT of national character might find material for his studies in observing the different manner in which the Scotch and Irish members of Parliament conduct the political business relating to their respective countries in the House of Commons. There are 60 Scotch and 103 Irish in an assembly of 652 members, or, in other words, the Scotchmen number about one-eleventh and the Irishmen one-sixth of the whole House. The Scotch sixty are thus but a drop in the ocean of representation. But somehow the Scotchmen generally succeed in getting what they want from Parliament, while the Irishmen generally fail; and why, you may naturally ask, should this be? The reasons are not far to seek, and any one may find them by looking a very little way below the surface. It is not that the Scotch representatives have special powers of persuasion or special gifts of eloquence. Even if they had, such agencies would not help them much, because nothing affects the voting power in the English House of Commons less than eloquence. The oldest member of the House could in all probability not point to a dozen instances in his experience where a speech turned the fortunes of a division. The Scotch members, however, are without exception but indifferent speakers. For the most part, they are respectable but rather commonplace country gentlemen, or tolerably wealthy manufacturers and mercantile men, whom their native towns have delighted to honor. In point of ability or eloquence, they are below rather than above the average representative. They are, however, all men of integrity, and, with one distinguished exception, they do not number an adventurer in their ranks. They trust each other, and they have full confidence that no one among them is playing for his own hand to the sacrifice of the rest and the interests of their country. They have, further, the good sense to know exactly what they want, and to ask only for what can be reasonably granted. Starting with such excellent moral qualities, which contrast in some respects with those of their colleagues from the sister isle, they make up for possible intellectual deficiencies by management. They arrange their legislation outside the House of Commons, and, by a little unobtrusive manœuvring, they exercise a modified form of the Home-Rule for which the Irishmen are always agitating. A "Scotch Parliament," as it is called, or caucus of Scotch members, is held in the office of the Lord-Advocate, who represents the Government of the day, and there and then they settle among themselves the terms of the measures and the resolutions which Scotland would wish them to carry. Their proposals, therefore, are cut and dried and settled with the representative of Government before they are introduced into the House, and when they are brought in it is merely to ask for the formal recognition by Parliament of what has been arranged outside. In most cases, this system answers perfectly. Scotland wants but little here below from Parliament, because Parliament cannot affect her climate by legislation, and that is her principal obstacle to prosperity, and she is too sensible to cry for the impossible. The measures that are wanted are mainly of a local, not to say parochial, character, and such measures can be arranged under a semi-private system better than in open debate. English and Irish members are so ignorant of and indifferent to Scotch affairs, that they cannot be got to take an interest in legislation dealing with these affairs. Their knowledge of Scotland is confined, for the most part, to an occasional visit in the shooting season to some wealthy English friend who has hired a grouse-shooting or a deer-forest. They know nothing of Scotch land, or Scotch ecclesiastical politics, or Scotch educational questions—all of them differing essentially from their counterparts in England or Ireland. The Scotch members, at the same time, prefer to be left alone, and accept with a condescending acquiescence the apologies with which English or Irish members always preface their speeches when they interpose in a Scotch debate. They keep their questions as far removed as possible from imperial considerations, and would rather get what they want in a corner than make a great display and fail.

The Irish members act upon a different principle. There is quite as great ability, and much greater eloquence, to be found among them than among the Scotchmen. But they do not trust each other as the Scotchmen do, and they could no more settle their measures and resolutions at an "Irish Parliament," or caucus of Irish members, than they could do so at Donnybrook Fair. They have no official to whom they can look for guidance as the Scotchmen do to their Lord-Advocate. They have a Secretary of State for Ireland, who is always a Cabinet Minister and a leading member of the Government, but he is almost invariably an Englishman, and they have an Irish Attorney-General who holds a position at the Irish bar similar to that which the Lord-Advocate holds at the Scotch bar. But the Irish Attorney-General is not entrusted with the same powers of government over his countrymen with which the Scotch Lord-Advocate is entrusted over his. They would not submit to such authority, and no Irish Attorney-General in his senses would undertake the responsibility of restraining and managing five million Irishmen. The Lord-Advocate can and does rule his three million Scotchmen, because they are an orderly and prosperous race. But he would be a bold lawyer who would undertake a like task for Ireland. When, therefore, Irish business comes into the House of Commons, it is as often as not the signal for a free fight all round. No one can guide the erratic councils of the hundred-odd Irish members, and the only sort of consistency which they display is a consistent hostility to every proposal affecting them made by the Government of the day.

The action of the Scotch and Irish representatives during the past fortnight with regard to the business relating to their respective countries may be regarded as a fair specimen of the manner in which Scotch and Irish legislation is conducted. Wednesdays, during all but the two or three weeks at the end of the session, are always reserved for bills introduced by private members, and no Government measures are considered at the Wednesday sitting. A Scotch Wednesday is not invariably a lively day, but as a rule more of the work of law-making is got through on a Scotch Wednesday than on many days reserved for more ambitious work. The Wednesday before last no less than four Scotch bills were introduced by private members, and they were all disposed of after discussion. The Lord-Advocate was in his place on the Treasury bench, and during the greater part of the sitting he

was the solitary representative of the Government. But, thanks to the comfortable arrangement which, as I have said, is made outside the House, he had little difficulty in satisfying the promoters of three of the bills, and the fourth was—*haud invito* the Government—what is technically called "talked out," the rules of the House not allowing any business to be transacted after a quarter to six o'clock on Wednesdays. None of the four bills, it is true, was of first-rate magnitude, though one of them raised important questions relating to appeals in criminal cases, and another dealt with ecclesiastical matters that must very soon become urgent. But such as they were, they were disposed of at a single sitting of five hours' duration, and the Scotchmen were satisfied.

But what have the Irish members been doing during the same fortnight? A short bill of five clauses for the amendment and continuation of certain acts for the preservation of the peace in Ireland has been before them in committee, and they have actually consumed no less than nine protracted sittings on the consideration of this little bill. It was introduced by the Irish Secretary on the 1st of March, and, in the eyes of all but the Irish members, amply discussed on the motion for the first reading. The second reading was taken on the 23d of March, and again discussed at great length for two nights, no less than thirty-one of the Irish members taking part in it. On the 22d of April the discussion was resumed on the question whether the House should go into committee on the bill, and then it was that Mr. Biggar, the member for County Cavan, distinguished himself by talking and reading blue-books about Ireland for five continuous hours, and five valuable days have been given up to this wretched little bill since then in order to get its five clauses through committee. There is no novelty in the bill. It is one of those necessary measures which had their origin in the unsettled state of Ireland in 1847, and which, owing to the existence of Fenian conspiracies, Ribbon societies, and agrarian outrages, it has been found indispensable to continue from time to time The new provisions introduced into it are mainly of a conciliatory character, and are intended to relax some of the more galling restrictions contained in former acts of the kind which are still in force. The Irish members, however, or at least the Home-Rule section, made up their minds that something was expected of them, and they have fastened on this bill as a suitable occasion for a demonstration. A rumor was circulated that the Irishmen had placed forty-one amendments on the notice paper, and that they had resolved to divide on every one of them. As each division occupies on an average about twenty minutes, the prospect of nearly fourteen hours being given up to the mechanical routine of counting heads on forty-one foregone conclusions (the Irishmen were certain to be in minorities on every occasion) was more than the non-Irish members of the House of Commons could tolerate. Pressure was put upon those of the Home-Rulers who were supposed to be amenable to reason, and the threat of forty-one divisions was not carried out. No pressure, however, could be made to influence Mr. Biggar, and as he could not keep dividing he took it out in speaking. They have got nothing by all this The bill has passed committee and will soon become law, and then the Irishmen will find another grievance, and carry on similar tactics. It seems strange that they will not take a lesson from the "canny" Scotchman's book. A minority of an assembly of human beings constituted as the British House of Commons is can never get its way by irritating and vexatious tactics. I have often watched an ambitious man trying to force himself into office by persistently attacking the Government of the day and all the ministerial measures. Sometimes, if he is a strong man—a hard hitter and a skilful opponent—he succeeds. But where one man succeeds by hostility, twenty succeed by conciliation. A minority like the Irish members may force the Government hard at times when parties are equally balanced and the swinging of a few votes from one side to the other may turn the scale. But the present is not one of these times. The Government have a compact majority, and are indifferent to the Irish vote. Vexatious tactics, therefore, are useless just now. They merely waste valuable time and result in nothing. It is obvious to any one who thinks about it that in this Parliament the sagacious adaptability of the Scotch members is likely to produce more legislative fruits for Scotland than the ill-considered hostility of the Irishmen will produce for Ireland.

## A SOUTHERN PARADISE.

MELBOURNE, March, 1875.

I HAVE just returned from a visit to Tasmania. Americans probably know the island better by its old name of Van Diemen's Land, and connect it with traditions of the convict system. It is only natural they should do so; and yet to Australians of this generation the name carries with it hardly any associations except of a genial climate and great natural beauty. Politically, Tasmania is trying no experiments that are of any but the smallest local interest Commercially, the island for years back has been a failure. Even its natural beauty will not bear rigid examination, and has often been over-praised. Its hills will not bear comparison with the Blue Mountains of New South Wales, with the Mount Cook range in New Zealand, or even with the Gipps' Land Alps. It has no scenes of weird, fairy-like beauty such as the northern island of New Zealand boasts in its marble terraces and hot lakes and geysers. Altogether, indeed, it bears to New Zealand the same sort of relation that Devonshire or Kent bears to Switzerland. But precisely in this is its great charm for Australians. We are fanatically English, and Tasmania is not only the most English part of the antipodes, but is England glorified and transfigured—with virgin forests, with English-looking parks, farms, and cottages, with native growths of umbrageous fern-trees and gum-trees that match the mammoth trees of California, with gardens in which every fruit of Europe and every Australian tree will grow, with a summer that knows neither drought nor hot wind, with an autumn that is never laden with mist, with a winter in which snow never lies except on the mountain-tops. So far as my experience goes, there is no part of the antipodes that will match California for fruit; but I do not think California itself can show gardens equal to those of Tasmania. It seems to come midway between England and Australia, so that the plants which in England we have to shelter from the cold, and in Australia to roof-in from the sun, flourish here with rare luxuriance in the open air. Everywhere the eye wanders over bright tints in the distance. Here it is a scarlet hedge of geraniums, there a bower over which fuchsia has been trained, and here, again, English hawthorns growing wild, as gorse grows on the English commons. The plants of the Old World have invaded Tasmania as conquerors, and are rapidly driving out the native flora. In a walk up the spurs of Mount Wellington—the hill that overhangs Hobart Town—I recognized only one native plant, the tea-tree. English hawthorn, bluebell, pimpernel, and wild geranium were a perfect tangle at one's feet. I have said that I think Tasmanian landscapes have been a little over-praised. I must except Hobart Town, the situation of which is more like Bergen than any other place I know. With a background of high hills lying round it like the walls of an amphitheatre, with a splendid river sweeping past it on one side, and with a grand look-out from the spurs on which it is built over a broad bay studded with islands, Hobart Town may fairly claim to rank among cities of exceptional beauty. With a little energy on the part of its people, it would certainly be the queen of Australian watering-places; but Tasmania is the Sleepy Hollow of these latitudes.

If a critic of British colonial administration desired to make a special study of the colony in which its blunders had been most signal and disastrous, he would do well to consider the claims of Tasmania. The very settlement of the island was a mistake. The first founder had been sent to form a colony on what is now Melbourne. We in Melbourne are apt to think our climate and soil reasonably good, and our position above the average. But the British officer in command had been promised £525 compensation if he found it necessary to move, and he soon reported that the district of Port Philip was uninhabitable. This time the move to Tasmania was a final one, as the promise of compensation was not renewed. But Tasmania, like Port Philip, was considered part of New South Wales, and governed from Sydney, then distant at least a week's voyage. Naturally, the Sydney administration was not much troubled by the complaints of a handful of distant colonists, and treated their new dominion as a convenient home for refractory convicts. Under the wisest and best of governors this system could hardly have worked well. But colonial officials in early times were not generally either very wise or very good. O'Connell once told a political opponent that he had been guilty of conduct which must for ever exclude him from the society of gentlemen, and which ought to place him at the bar of a criminal court; "but," he added, "if you will abstain from contesting a seat at the present election, I will promise you an appointment in the colonies." Tasmania had its fair share of drunken, arbitrary, and dishonest men among its first administrators, but even the able and upright were forced to obey their instructions, and govern in the interests of Sydney and London. Accordingly, the fearful mistake of peopling a new country with convicts was nowhere so effectually carried out as in Tasmania. In 1846, out of a population of six thousand, about half were actual convicts, and at least a third of the remainder were old members of the criminal class. Of course, bushranging was an institution; and even in Hobart Town itself outlying houses were freely entered, not once and again, but time after time, by men who levied blackmail or at least helped themselves to drink. But the few desperate convicts at large were comparatively a light scourge The curse of the island was in the system that entrusted coarse and brutal men with almost absolute power over the convict class, and encouraged in-

formations, perjuries, and crimes committed to be imputed to others. Years after the system of transportation had been abolished, the "convict taint" was still rife in every class of society; and servants, depraved by early association, carried suggestions of vice, dishonest ways, and foul language into quiet and respectable households.

Happily for mankind, time and free institutions are wonderful purifiers. One of the worst evils of the convict system—the disproportion of women to men—had at least this qualifying result: but comparatively few convicts founded families. Many escaped to Victoria at the time of the diggings; the remainder have settled down, and are now, in the second generation, mixing freely with the descendants of free immigrants. There is still some recollection of the old times. I have heard a drunken woman boast that she paid her own passage out, but it is no longer thought necessary to add the triumphant legend, "came out free," to epitaphs, and I have noticed that the richer classes are not as careful as in Sydney to avoid all allusion to convict days. In a very short time, a few local names that commemorate famous bushrangers or their exploits will be the chief memorial of the old régime. But the most marvellous of all changes is the transformation of a whole people, so largely tainted with crime, into one that will compare favorably with most for decency and the absence of grave offences. A tourist in Tasmania sees here and there a markedly repulsive face, which he sets down—rightly, no doubt—to descent, at least, from villanous progenitors. But generally he can only say that the Tasmanians are rather shorter, squarer, and chubbier than the Australians of the mainland, and perhaps more stolid and less intelligent-looking—in a word, more British. One may account for this in several ways. There is no doubt that the free emigrants by whom Australia has been mainly peopled are the pick of the British population, and there seems reason to think that our warm climate adds an inch or two to their stature in a generation. In fact, the colonial-born in New South Wales are currently distinguished as "corn-stalks." In manner the Tasmanians have a little more of the old-country deference for superiors than is found in Melbourne or Sydney. The first settlement of the country in more conservative times will account for this. In morals, strange to say, they stand well. There is, indeed, some pauperism; and here, as everywhere else in these parts, there is a class of disorderly boys and young men—"larrikins," as we call them—for whom the want of a sound school system is mainly responsible. But crimes of violence are almost unknown, and other offences not inordinately above the English average. In a word, the country is not yet in the millennium, but life and property are safer there than in many long-established communities. With better schools, which they are now introducing, and a few years' more exemption from disturbing causes, civil war, or gold-fields, the Tasmanians may probably rank high among respectable societies. Such a result seems to me very remarkable. No doubt, many of the prisoners sent out were nothing worse than poachers or political rioters; still, they graduated for freedom in bad companionship and under bad treatment, and no man could much have wondered if the island had been a nest of thieves and ne'er-do-weels to this day.

I was sorry to miss the U. S. frigate *Swatara*, which had brought over the party charged to observe the transit of Venus. Its officers and scientific men, especially Professor Harkness, won golden opinions during their stay from the Tasmanians, and I hope will take back a good report of colonial courtesy and hospitality.

# Correspondence.

## LIFE-INSURANCE COMMISSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your No. 516, pp. 346, 347, you express certain views on the subject of life-insurance agents which do not seem to me so well grounded as your opinions generally are. The case stands thus: Of the moneys paid by the public for life insurance, a certain percentage—I shall probably be below the truth in saying ten per cent.—never reaches the companies at all, being kept by agents as commission, and in consequence, on the average, every one gets ten per cent. less insurance than his premiums would buy him if the company could only get the full amount. That this is a great evil, if not a flagrant abuse, every one except agents, the companies included, agrees. That such an evil is irremediable I should be very sorry to see you maintain. In the article which you do me the honor to call attention to, I remarked that the companies' own members were its natural soliciting agents. At this you smile, likening it to the appeals of a newspaper to its subscribers to increase its circulation.

I might ask in reply to this whether the good opinion of a paper entertained and expressed by its readers is not really the way in which the circulation of good newspapers is most effectively extended. But a very important point which you seem to overlook is that the members are themselves the shareholders of the company and the sole parties interested. To make the case of the newspaper a parallel one, the subscribers appealed to ought to be themselves the shareholders, who had put money into the enterprise, and were interested in having their neighbors do the same.

To the large majority of "practical men" a nearly conclusive argument in favor of my views is that they have been put into practice with entire success. The following English companies have ceased the payments of commissions, and the result has been a diminution of the percentage of expenses to receipts which I wish all your readers would learn by heart and compare with the percentage of the best of our own companies. I took some pains to collect the figures when in London last winter:

| | Ratio of expenses. |
|---|---|
| Equitable, of London | 2.3 per cent. |
| London Life Association | 2.8 " " |
| Clergy Mutual | 3.4 " " |
| Metropolitan | 3.4 " " |
| National Life | 8.6 " " |

I think you misapprehend what it is necessary the members should do to forward the interests of their companies. They need not go from house to house. Thirty years ago it would have been necessary. But the subject of life insurance is now one so widely discussed that the field for solicitors is rapidly diminishing. From what I have seen, I do not think that half those who now insure their lives do so in consequence of the solicitation of an agent. Having made up his mind to insure, a man enquires among such friends as he supposes to be informed about the relative standing of companies. He then visits the agents of those of which he hears the best accounts, gets pamphlets setting forth the dozen or more peculiar and advantageous features of each, and finds that between the three or four leading companies of the country there is very little choice. It seems to me that all that is required is that every member of the company first dispensing with the payment of commission shall be able to say to his neighbor, when his opinion is asked: "My company can give you ten per cent. more insurance for your money than any other company can, because there is no agent between you and it to deplete your premium."

Yours very respectfully, Simon Newcomb.

Washington, May 22, 1875.

## NEW HAMPSHIRE POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As recent transactions in this State are just now the subject of much newspaper comment and discussion all over the country, largely based upon misstatements of facts and ignorance of the laws applicable to them, I venture to ask space in your journal for a brief presentation of the case on the part of the Democrats of New Hampshire. The love of justice and independence of the *Nation* can well afford this, since the vigorous pen of its editor is free to combat our views and action if they do not accord with its sentiments.

Our Constitution provides that the votes cast for senators in the several districts shall be returned to the Secretary of State by the clerks of the several towns, and that in due time the Governor and Council shall examine the returns and issue certificates to those who appear to be elected. Their action in this matter is subject to review by the Senate when organized, under the provisions making that body the "final judges of the elections, returns, and qualifications of their own members." The Constitution also provides that, to be eligible to the Senate, a man must be an inhabitant of the district for which he is chosen, and must have been an inhabitant of the State for seven years immediately preceding his election. An absolute majority of votes is required to elect. We have a statute in relation to elections which reads as follows: "The full Christian and sirname of every person voted for, with the initial letter or letters of the middle name, and the usual abbreviations of junior, second, third, and the like, shall be written or printed upon every ballot, and every ballot not thus prepared and cast shall be regarded as a blank and not counted." These are all the provisions of our Constitution and laws upon the subject; and, keeping these in mind, I ask the reader to give his attention to a brief statement of the facts of the case.

The returns of the votes for senators were duly laid before the Governor and Council, and upon examination they found ten senators whose election was unquestioned, five of each party, while in the other two districts (the

Second and Fourth) the returns were as follows: In the Second District, James Priest (Democrat) had 3,834; Natt Head (Republican) had 3,771; and there were 101 for other persons. In the Fourth District, John Proctor (Democrat) had 3,495; George E. Todd (Republican), 3,457; Arthur Deering and others, 64.

In regard to the Second District, objection was made to counting the votes returned for Natt Head on the ground that the votes were avowedly intended for Nathaniel Head, and as they did not have on them "the full Christian name of the person voted for," they must "be regarded as blanks, and not counted," as provided by the above-quoted statute. It appeared that Head was named and christened Nathaniel; that his name so stands upon the check-list of his town, and he voted upon it last March; that by ballots bearing that name he was chosen moderator of the town-meeting of his town last March, and that by that name he has always been voted for and elected to various offices in his town, and never by any other. Therefore, by the provisions of the law above quoted, the votes cast for him in the name of Natt Head were void, blanks, when they were put into the ballot-box, and their reception and return to the Secretary of State could not give them life and legality—they were void and blanks still, and the Governor and Council had no alternative but to so treat them. Those votes did not bear "the full Christian name" of Nathaniel Head, but an abbreviation—just what the statute was avowedly passed to prevent the use of in voting—and, in strict compliance with the letter, spirit, and purpose of the law, those votes were "regarded as blanks and not counted," and Mr. Priest was declared elected.

In the case of the other (Fourth) District, it was objected that the votes for Mr. Deering and several others, about sixty in all, should be rejected on the ground that those men were ineligible to the office of senator for lack of the qualifications of residence. The ineligibility was undisputed. It was argued that votes for ineligible persons are void, and they are always so regarded in elections by the legislature; and the Governor and Council so regarding them in this case, Mr. Proctor had a majority of legal votes, and was therefore declared elected.

Here is the whole case, the law and the facts in brief. In their decisions the Governor and Council were fortified by the opinions of many of the ablest lawyers of the State, of both parties, including two Republican ex-judges of the Supreme Court, who had fully investigated the grave questions involved.

It is objected that the Governor and Council had no jurisdiction in the matter; but upon this point the opinions of lawyers are quite as emphatic in support of the executive as upon any other, and we regard it as beyond serious doubt. It is said that the decisions, especially in the case of Head, are based upon a mere technicality—that the intention of the voters was evident and should have been regarded. To this we reply, that the statute requires that the intention of the voter shall be manifested in a particular manner, and emphatically declares that if it is not so manifested it shall not be regarded; and it is perfectly evident from the facts of the case which induced the enactment of the statute that such was the intent of the legislature in passing it. In further reply to this objection, we say that the men now declared elected were the choice of the people of their districts, but were placed in a minority at the polls through frauds, and they saw no other way of securing their rights except by a resort to this method.

But it is sufficient to say that the Governor and Council were bound by the plain letter of the law, which they could not ignore or disregard in the face of the facts and opinions before them. And we hold their action to be right, and believe that, in spite of the unparalleled partisan malignity it has evoked, it will be fully sustained by the people of New Hampshire and by the sober second thought of the country.

Yours truly,

WM. BUTTERFIELD,
Secretary of State.

CONCORD, N. H., May 24, 1875.

## GERMAN DIPLOMAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is very gratifying to those holding German diplomas to read your correspondent's letter on that subject, published in the last issue of the *Nation*. The ordeal at Leipzig is, however, different from that at Heidelberg, and is as follows: The candidate must first present certificates of his whole course of instruction, from the time he learned the alphabet down to the day he presents his application for the doctorate. His technical course is to cover a period of ten semesters. If his character and credentials are acceptable, he is required then to write an original dissertation on any subject (chosen by himself) that may lie within the range of his profession. This is duly deliberated upon by the Faculty, being passed from one to the other until each has read it; this requires from fourteen days to three weeks alone. The dissertation being declined, the matter ends there. If, however, the candidate is so fortunate as to have his work meet the approbation of the Faculty, he is then admitted to a rigorous examination, appointed a week or ten days later, in the following branches (supposing him to be a candidate for the M.D. degree): anatomy, microscopical, comparative, and general; physiology, general and special; general and special pathological anatomy, general and special surgery, general and special medicine, obstetrics, ophthalmic surgery and medicine, diseases of children, diseases of women, materia medica, etc. The physician's examination at the end of the first two and a-half years embraces all the elementary branches, such as botany, chemistry, physic, zoölogy, etc.

It is supposed by Americans to be a very easy thing. One of these gentlemen went to Munich to pass in medicine last year, wrote *acne* "*agne*," and fell through.

Your obedient servant,

GEO. HALSTED BOYLAND, M.A., M.D.,
Laureate Leipzig Medical Faculty; late Surgeon French Army, etc.

BALTIMORE, May 22, 1875.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The private letter printed in the last number of the *Nation* cannot fail to interest a large circle of readers, especially the *philosophiæ doctores*, past and prospective. These latter it might be well perhaps to inform that the ceremonies in getting a doctorate are not identical, though similar, in all German universities. Some, as for example Berlin and Leipzig, make a printed dissertation on some topic in the *Hauptfach* (principal subject) a *sine quâ non* in obtaining the Ph.D., and more stress is laid upon this than upon the examination proper. This dissertation is permitted but not required by the Philosophical Faculty of Heidelberg.

My object in addressing you, however, is to correct the Heidelberg "tradition," of which the author of the letter speaks, that no American hitherto has secured the *summa cum laude*. A most remarkable case occurred some six years ago, when an American, who was entirely deaf, obtained this first degree. He learned his German by reading from the lips of his teachers, and acquired his knowledge of the lectures of Professors Bunsen and Kirchoff in the same manner. PH.D. (Lips.)

ANN ARBOR, May 22, 1875.

[Another case has been reported to us of a graduate of Harvard (1868), who took the degree of Ph.D. *summa cum laude* in the subjects of chemistry, physics, and mineralogy the following year at Heidelberg, and another degree *summa cum laude* in 1871, at Berlin, as mining engineer.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

J. SABIN & SONS are about to reproduce in exact facsimile Cruikshank's 'My Sketch-Book.' A few copies will be printed on India paper.——L. W. Schmidt sends us the first number of *Hallberger's Illustrated Magazine* (Stuttgart and Leipzig). It is a large octavo of fifty-six pages, half of which is occupied with Miss Braddon's "Hostages to Fortune." Another story, "Jeanette," is from *Scribner's Monthly*, but, on the whole, the selections suggest an English rather than an American audience.——The *Athenæum* states that the 'Unseen Universe' is the joint production of Professors P. Guthrie Tait and Balfour Stewart, of Edinburgh and Manchester respectively.——The London *Bookseller* for May gives a useful list of literary pseudonyms from the time of Sir Walter Scott. We notice a few errors in the American portion: *Mrs.* L. Redden ("Howard Glyndon") and *Mrs.* Mary Dodge ("Gail Hamilton") instead of Miss; *O.* K. Philander Doesticks for Q. K. "Bret Harte" is set down as the pen-name of an author we never heard of before—C. B. Hart. It is, of course, a real name. The late J. C. Hotten figures prominently in this list, with four pen-names.——One of the economies of the newspaper business is shown in a copy of the *Evening Telegram* of this city for May 8, extra edition of 11.30 A.M. The only news of the day it contains is the wreck of the *Schiller*. This appears on the first page, which is otherwise made up of the despatches of the day previous. The remaining three pages bear date of March 18.——The revival of the University of Pennsylvania begins to have its natural effect on

a rich and public-spirited community. The late John H. Towne, who died suddenly in Paris, bequeathed $10,000 to the Hospital connected with the University, the same sum conditionally to the Academy of Natural Sciences, and $5,000 to the Academy of Fine Arts, and made the University his residuary legatee for an amount estimated now at $300,000, and eventually by reversion at nearly a million. The money is to swell the endowment fund, and the income to be applied solely to the salaries of instructors in the scientific department. Mr. James Lick's numerous gifts to the people of San Francisco appear to have been bettered by his temporary revocation of the trust. The most eccentric one, viz., the monument to the author of the "Star-spangled Banner," has been reduced nearly two-thirds from the original provision ($150,000).——The announcement that the school at Penikese will not be opened this season for want of support will cause general regret. We hope that before another year elapses the several State boards of education will have induced their legislatures to found scholarships, as proposed by the directors, for the benefit of teachers desirous of enjoying opportunities nowhere else obtainable for the trained study of natural history.——*O Novo Mundo* of May 23 prints by arrangement with the *Tribune* one of Arsène Houssaye's letters to that paper in the original.

—We fell into an error last week in saying that Father Gerdemann, on his late trial in Philadelphia, was acquitted by a disagreement of the jury—ten against and two for him. These figures should have been reversed. In other respects, we believe we did him no injustice.

—The prose of the *Atlantic* for June is very readable. Besides a number of minor articles which we have not space to notice, there is a chapter of Mr. James's novel, 'Roderick Hudson,' which is perhaps the best instalment yet of a novel sure to attract a great deal of attention when it appears in full, and which indeed is doing so already. An article on "Wise and Unwise Economy in Schools," by Mr. C. W. Eliot, which we have discussed elsewhere, deals with a subject perhaps the most important of any before the public. Mr. Lowell's "Ode read at the Concord Centennial" is likely to be the most permanent memorial of the day, and to be read a hundred years hence with as fresh an interest as that with which we read it now. Mr. Lowell is a master of poetic form, and shows in this, as in his noble Commemoration Ode, the apt union of art with inspiration. The Ode is a pœan to Freedom, but there is no Fourth-of-July exuberance and conceit in Mr. Lowell's celebration of her. The Freedom that he sings is that which dwells with knowledge and with duty.

> "Freedom, not won by the vain,
> Not to be courted in play,
> Nor to be kept without pain."

The poet becomes the voice of the better spirit of the community, and his imagination presents in concrete forms the vague popular ideals. Such high, inspiring, manly poetry as this is a permanent addition to the spiritual treasures of the nation. The *Atlantic* opens as well as closes with an ode. Mr. Aldrich calls his piece "Spring in New England," and he shows himself in this, as in much of his previous work, an excellent artificer in verse. He has skill and knack, and there are some pretty touches in this ode, which is not, as its name might imply, merely pastoral, but is in effect an elegy on the graves of our dead in the South. But what is the meaning of

> "On obelisk and urn
> Shall the myrtle's *azure burn*"?

Mrs. Thaxter and Mrs. Moulton have each a contribution of the sort appropriate to the magazine, and Mr. Edgar Fawcett prints a morbid copy of verses on "Waste," which is by no means up to the level of his exquisite little poem called "Immortelles" in the last number. Mr. Fawcett ought to be a more severe critic of his own verse. The most noticeable poem in the magazines for June, after Mr. Lowell's, is a long piece called "The Symphony," by Sidney Lanier, which appears in *Lippincott*. It is fluent, fanciful, and sweet, not over-sensible, and hurt by mannerisms both of expression and sentiment, some of which seem to be original and some caught in Mr. Morris's school. But it is better than most magazine verse, and is worth reading for the sake of the fancy it displays. In *Harper*, Mr. Aldrich reappears with a clever little sketch in verse, called "In an Atelier." It is bright but crude, and the absence of delicacy, both of touch and of sentiment, spoils the effect of what might have been a pleasant piece of liveliness. The other verses in *Harper* for this month are, we may say, for those who do not read poetry or do not care to read it. The editor of *Scribner* exhibits a kindly consideration for its readers by affixing to the titles of the contributions in verse in the contents the word "Poem." There are six such pieces in the June number; none of them is of great importance.

—In his Concord Ode, Mr. Lowell, speaking of the presence of Freedom in the "low village of the plain," says:

> "She loves yon pine-bemurmured ridge
> Where now our broad-browed poet sleeps,
> Dear to both Englands; near him he
> Who wore the ring of Canacë."

All his readers may not at once recognize that in these words Mr. Lowell calls up the memory of Hawthorne and Thoreau; nor will all understand the reference to the ring of Canacë. In Chaucer's 'Squyere's Tale' we are told how the King of Araby and Ind sent marvellous gifts to King Cambynskan on his birthday, and with them a ring for my lady Canacë, his excellent daughter:

> "The vertu of this ryng, if ye wol heere,
> Is this, that whoso lust it for to were
> Upon hir thomb, or in hir purs to bere,
> There is no foul that fleeth under the heven
> That sche ne schal understonden his steven,
> And know his menyng openly and pleyn,
> And answer him in his langage again;
> And every gras that groweth upon roote
> Sche schal eek know, to whom it wol do boote,
> Al be his woundes never so deep and wyde."

In a familiar passage in the 'Penseroso' Milton refers to the ring:

> "Or call up him that left half told
> The story of Cambuscan bold,
> Of Camball and of Algarsife,
> And who had Canacë to wife,
> That own'd the virtuous ring of glas;
> And of the wondrous horse of bras
> On which the Tartar king did ride."

—We spoke some weeks since in these columns of the successful and, in some respects, brilliant revival of "Henry V." at Booth's Theatre, and of the merits of Mr. George Rignold in the only part in the play which admitted of much acting. The management having found that Shakspere could be made to pay, and having Mr. Rignold still in hand, have lately been offering "Macbeth"—by no means with the same splendor as the other play, but with some pretensions to care and completeness. Is it to be accounted an additional resource that they have also had the services of Miss Clara Morris? From an at all exacting point of view, we think not. It is one thing to make a great hit with Shakspere in a case where much spectacle will carry off little acting, and another thing to succeed where, whether the spectacle be much or little, the acting must not in decency fall below a certain level. Mr. Rignold had immense good fortune with the part of Henry V, which seemed to give him a chance to do all he could, and to ask of him nothing that he could not. With Macbeth he stands on different ground, and he stands much less firmly. He has great good-will, and good looks and good taste, such as prevent him from ever being disagreeable; he is what is called "sympathetic"; one rather likes him, even in his weaker moments, and one has a sort of sense of friendly relief in witnessing his stronger ones. But the part is too large for him, and he does not in the least fill it out; he occupies at best, now here, now there, an outlying corner of it. He desires to be natural and real—a most laudable ambition; but there is reality and reality. When you have Shakspere's speeches to utter, your reality must be a sort of imaginative compromise; you must wind your whole conception up to a certain exalted pitch, and there, at that impressive altitude, you may keep among the levels. Mr. Rignold is best when he has a chance for movement and violence, as in the scene with Banquo's ghost at the banquet. In passages of pure declamation he is ineffective; he gave such speeches as the "Duncan is in his grave," etc., quite without richness or resonance. He is an actor who probably can do certain parts so very well that it is a pity to see him doing certain others but half well. It is to be supposed that there are some things that Miss Clara Morris can also do well; but the utterance of the tremendous speeches of Lady Macbeth is not one of them; to speak frankly (this is a case for it), the disparity between the actress and the part was simply ludicrous. Miss Morris's meagre voice, her vulgar intonation, her trivial conception of her opportunities, are all fatal disqualifications. Every speech seemed to us distinctly missed, and the actress's facial play and the introduced business of her own invention struck us as an insufficient compensation. This is not harsh criticism. Miss Morris, it seems to us, has a large reserve of good fortune to draw upon in finding it so easy to display her incompetence on an eminent stage. The truth is, no artist need expect to play parts demanding style and elevation in this familiar juxtaposition and alternation with the "realistic" drama of the period. Realism is a very good thing, but it is like baking a pudding in a porcelain dish; your pudding may be excellent but your dish gets cracked. An actor who attempts to play Shakspere must establish for himself a certain Shaksperian tradition; he must make sacrifices. We are afraid that as things are going, most actors find it easier to sacrifice Shakspere than to sacrifice to him.

—The regular spring exhibition of the Brooklyn Art-Association contains the interesting painting of "Corinne," by Miss Gardiner, intended for and catalogued with the exhibition of the Academy of this city, but delayed in Paris until too late to be hung.; it is an elegant, chilly bit of classicism. Other noticeable pictures are Yewell's richly-colored representation of the Senate Chamber in Venice (180), the Gothic Mountains (73) by A. Parton, the "Golden Hour" (325), by William Hart, a "Landscape at Queens, L. I." (296), by C. H. Miller, a "French Village" (197), by Mrs. Coman, and some attractive foreign paintings lent by their owners, such as Julius Breton's "Peasant Girl" (347), Merle's "Nursery Tales" (1), and Guillaumet's "African Landscape" (302).

—A pleasant notice in the London *Times* on 'International Playing-Cards' published by De la Rue & Co., affords several curious particulars which may bear repeating. These cards were recently devised by "Felix Summerly" (Sir Henry Cole, K.C.B.) and elaborated with the aid of Mr. Reuben Townroe, an artist whose designs for the ornamented terra-cotta work on the exterior of the Royal Albert Hall and many decorative works at South Kensington Museum are of a high and original character. The cards have the appearance of the modern stereotyped form, adopted from the French cards made at Chartres in 1702, but on closer inspection we find the Prince of Wales doing duty as the King of Diamonds, the King of the Belgians as the King of Hearts, the Crown Prince of Prussia as the King of Spades, and the King of Italy as the King of Clubs. The aces in this new issue are allotted to the greatest potentates; thus, Her Majesty, as Empress of India and Queen of the United Kingdom, appears as the Ace of Hearts, the President of the United States as the Ace of Spades, the Emperor of Russia as the Ace of Diamonds, and the German Emperor as the Ace of Clubs. By an irreproachable compliment the high office of Queen of Hearts has been allotted to the Princess of Wales, while to the Crown Princess of Germany is assigned the dignity of the Queen of Clubs; the Queen of Greece appears as Queen of Diamonds, and the Empress of Austria as Queen of Spades. The four knaves have a more original character about them than the other Court cards. A Scotch piper with distended cheeks, vigorously blowing his pipe, and with the utmost determination of purpose in his features, is presented as the Knave of Hearts; an officious and splendid functionary, obviously a gendarme, is the Knave of Spades; a yellow-bearded Swiss guide, with his rope over his shoulder, and clenching a spiked staff, is the Knave of Clubs; while Spain is represented by a keen-eyed and carefully-coiffed matador as Knave of Diamonds. The portraits of the principal personages are pronounced successful.

—Cards have not been the vehicles for portraiture only. In England, during Charles II.'s reign, a pack of cards was issued by Randal Taylor, near Stationers' Hall, which was purchasable from most booksellers at one shilling per pack, "forming a history of all the Popish plots that have been in England, beginning with those in Queen Elizabeth's time, and ending with the last damnable plot against His Majesty Charles II., with the manner of Sir Edward Godfrey's murder." Other cards relating to heraldry, geography, history, politics, grammar, sciences, etc., were also published, but, except for the insertion of the well-known heart, spade, club, or diamond, the designs might have been merely little pictures. On the cards, of an earlier date, in 'Ottley's Etchings by Early Masters,' the usual symbols are supplanted by swords, goblets, fruits, trees, etc. In Germany, hearts, bells, leaves, and acorns were generally adopted; in Spain, swords, cups, batons, and coins prevailed as devices for cards. Besides cards printed from etched steel and copper plates, wood-blocks, and by lithography at South Kensington Museum is a pack of silk-embroidered cards. A pack of white-metal engraved cards was also shown at the Museum. The date of the first use of cards is not to be exactly ascertained. Poupart, the Treasurer of Charles VI. of France (close of the fourteenth century), made an entry in his accounts of certain "*jeux de cartes*." In 1387, an ordinance is said to have been issued by John I., King of Spain, against card-playing; while in 1379 the gambling which arose from cards in Italy is recorded by Feliciano Bussi, in his 'History of Viterbo,' as having caused much distress; the game, it is said, "comes from the country of the Saracens, and is with them called *Naib*." M. Boilleau d'Ambly quotes Court de Gébelin, an antiquary of note in the last century, to support his opinion that cards were first imported into Europe by the wandering tribes who migrated from Mongolia and settled in large numbers in Bohemia. As early as 1120 the Chinese had a certain kind of cards for gambling purposes. Breitkopf, who has written on the subject of cards in a masterly manner, considered that there was a self-evident affinity between chess and cards. Chess is of Oriental origin. The game of the four kings or Chaturagi or Chartur Nawaub is similar to chess. The employment of the four kings with other minor elements of this game suggests cards; and it may be a question if the word "card" be not in its technical sense derived from *chartur*, the Hindu word for four. In its ordinary sense, its etymology from *carta* or *charta* is obvious. But there are other considerations which to a great degree may be held to support the theory of the Hindu etymology.

—F. W. Christern sends us, in four superb quarto volumes (nominally two), the complete 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française' of M. Littré. No scholar is ignorant of the merits of this remarkable work, which is of the same order of genius as that of Sainte-Pelaye, and which has been eleven years in passing through the press. We shall seek an early occasion not to praise it, but to give some idea of the plan and execution of it. While no public library should be without it, and no student of French who aims at something more than a superficial acquaintance with the language can well dispense with it, its costliness puts it beyond the reach of many. We are glad to meet, therefore, the announcement of Hachette et Cie. that an abridgment of Littré is already well advanced, and has begun to appear in weekly parts. There will be twenty-five in all, selling in France at fifty centimes each, which ensures a moderate price for the entire work (1,300 pages 8vo). The editor is Prof. Beaujean, who was M. Littré's invaluable colaborer in preparing the great dictionary for publication, and who is pre-eminently qualified for the task of making an abridgment with knowledge and discretion. The smaller work will still contain 8,500 words more than the Academy's dictionary (the words not found in the latter being marked with an asterisk); it will indicate the pronunciation in difficult cases and the etymology always, but without discussing it; the definitions will follow the order of natural development observed in the larger work, but examples will be cited only by way of helping out the definition, or to support a questionable signification with respectable authority. Finally, the old Gallicisms, figurative expressions, and proverbs, which so abound in the larger work, will all be retained in the abridgment.

—Another work also just begun by Hachette et Cie. is noticeable for its magnitude as well as for its intrinsic worth. We refer to the 'Nouvelle Géographie Universelle—La Terre et les Hommes' of M. Élisée Reclus, who has been happily spared to science. The author describes it in his prospectus as a sort of specialization of his general survey published some years ago under the title of 'La Terre.' It will deal with the several countries of the earth in such a way that one may purchase separately the volume which particularly interests him. Its five hundred parts, selling at fifty centimes each, will make ten or twelve volumes of the best French workmanship, illustrated by more than 600 wood-engravings, and containing in the text some two thousand maps, of a kind not found in atlases. Volume I. will embrace Mediterranean Europe. For the special student of geography we may mention here an African bibliography which has lately appeared in France. The full title, as given in *Polybiblion*, is: 'Bibliographie des ouvrages relatifs à l'Afrique et à l'Arabie; Catalogue méthodique de tous les ouvrages en langues étrangères traitant de la géographie, de l'histoire, du commerce, des lettres et des arts de l'Afrique et de l'Arabie'; the compiler, Jean Gay. In 312 pages octavo, 3,696 titles are recorded, and there are frequent notes of authors and works which are as readable as they are instructive.

—Baron von Richthofen had been misunderstood by the Abbé Armand David, the eminent French naturalist and traveller in China, to hold the opinion that the population of that country did not exceed one hundred millions. He took pains, therefore, at the January meeting of the Berlin Geographical Society, to disclaim this opinion and to set forth in some detail his reasons for maintaining the credibility of the general results of the Chinese census. He began by explaining the causes which tended towards an under-enumeration—an evil fully recognized in the penal laws, while the opposite contingency is not contemplated. When the known objects of the census were the imposition of a poll-tax and the conscription of the male population for socage and military service, there was every inducement for the people to avoid being fully numbered, and for the officials to reap the reward of connivance in the fraud. In passing through the several grades of these gentry, the population and tax receipts fell off *pari passu*, with the effect of enriching the officers at every stage by the exact difference between the figures reported to them by their subordinates and those reported by them to their superiors. This state of things prevailed till 1711, when the Emperor Kanghi converted the poll-tax into a ground-tax, and gave out as the special aim of the census the equal distribution of the state's benefactions in case of famine or scarcity. For the first time the people had a motive for being counted to the full, and an over-count might have ensued but for the continuance of the conscription already mentioned. That the latter consideration (perhaps added to a lack of con-

fidence in the sincerity of the charitable pretext) outweighed the former, and that the total of 28,605,716 obtained by this census was too small, is to be inferred from the progressive increase of subsequent censuses, beginning with 177 millions in 1749—an impossible increase over the former figure, and yet in harmony with the results of subsequent censuses, viz., 284 millions in 1783, 362 in 1812 (especially trustworthy, says Richthofen), and 415 in 1842. The density of population is on the average 5,500 to the square mile, or very nearly the same as that of Great Britain, but very much more unevenly distributed; in places it amounts to upwards of 30,000 to the square mile, exceeding even that of the Ganges delta. The year 1842 marks the close of a long period of peace and the beginning of a marked increase in the use of opium. These causes have prevented the normal increase of the population to some 500 millions, as may be estimated in the absence of any published census since 1842. The frightful intestine wars reduced the inhabitants by millions—the Tae-ping rebellion alone destroying no less than 30. That such destructiveness is not incredible is apparent to any traveller through the now deserted, once thickly-populated regions, in which whole cities were put to the sword, as, to take the latest example, at Tali-fu in the province of Yunnan, the seat of the Mohammedan rebellion. As regards opium, Baron Richthofen makes the suggestive remark, that if the effect of this drug in diminishing the reproductiveness of the Chinese were ascertainable, we could determine the surplus available for the populating of other parts of the world—a surplus which, if there had been neither wars nor opium, would already have become an almost irresistible flood. He concludes that a safe estimate of the present population of China is 420 millions. The total assigned it in Behm and Wagner's 'Bevölkerung der Erde,' just come to hand (*Ergänzungsheft* No. 41 of Petermann's *Mittheilungen;* New York: L. W. Schmidt), is 404,950,000.

## MR. GREG AND HIS WARNINGS.*

WHY is Mr. Greg doomed to perform the part of Cassandra? He has many gifts which ought, it would seem, to make him not only an impressive but a successful teacher. He has devoted his life to speculation. He combines the experience of a man of the world with the training of a thinker. He can express his thoughts in a forcible style, and his thoughts are always worth attention. On the subjects, moreover, of which he writes he is full of information, and hence avoids that special failing of so-called thoughtful writers which consists in the attempt to make ingenious speculation do the work of accurate knowledge. But in spite of all these, and of some other excellent qualities, Mr. Greg is, by his own admission, a prophet whose warnings pass unheeded by a perverse generation, who buy and read his works, and then live on without one serious thought of the "rocks ahead" on which (if the man at the mast-head is to be believed) not England alone, but every civilized community may make shipwreck. What makes Mr. Greg's failure the more remarkable is, that few will care to dispute that the dangers pointed out in "the warnings of Cassandra" are, whatever their extent, real perils. No one acquainted with the municipal government of this city, for instance, will deny that universal suffrage is compatible with gross misgovernment. No one who observes the present condition of France will question that a divorce between intellect and religion is both a possibility and, when it takes place, a grave national calamity. What, then, is the weak point in Mr. Greg's teaching which deprives it of at least half its effect?

No amount of general reflection could suggest so easily the reply to this enquiry as do the following sentences from a letter in which the author of 'Rocks Ahead' replied to an opponent who advocated in moderate terms the possible utility of trades-unions. "I believe," wrote Mr. Greg, "it may be stated as a rule, almost if not quite without exception, especially in the great industries, such as coal, iron, cotton, etc., that *whenever disputes between masters and men culminate in a 'strike,' the workmen must be in the wrong*, for the simple reason that the inevitable loss to the masters consequent upon a stoppage of their works is so grievous, and in the case of coal mines and blasting furnaces so *enormous*, that no man will face it if he can afford to give way to the demands of his workpeople."† Now, this passage (the italics are Mr. Greg's) is remarkable, not so much for the statement it contains as for the picture which it gives of the writer's turn of mind and mode of reasoning. The main doctrine which it is intended to enforce, namely, that the benefits derived by artisans from strikes and trades-unions are open to grave question, is probably true, and it is characteristic of the best side of Mr. Greg's intellect that he maintains this position with unflinching boldness and in unmistakable terms. It is, however, equally characteristic of his weak side that he cannot for a moment occupy the position of an impartial theorist, and that he obtains a momentary intellectual triumph by the use of a "simple reason" which is quite inadequate to support the conclusion which is founded on it. The one-sided unfairness of a writer who can honestly assert that the "workmen are always in the wrong" hardly calls for observation. Such assertions are simply a vehement mode of contradicting the equally absurd dogma that "workmen are always in the right." The inadequacy of the "simple reason" is a much more noticeable matter. It assumes, in the face of the best-known facts both of experience and of human nature, that men can be relied upon to act solely on the view of their immediate material interests. The impossibility of conceding to an unreasonable demand, the calculation that concession to-day will lead to encroachment to-morrow, the dislike to dictation, class feeling, or the mere combativeness engendered by opposition—a hundred other motives, good, bad, and indifferent, lead either capitalists or laborers to rush into one of those industrial battles which are known as strikes. To say that such a strike must, like any other combat, necessarily involve loss to both sides, and ought, whenever it is possible, to be avoided, is to assert an obvious truism. To point out that workingmen are specially liable to misunderstand the conditions of the conflict, to overestimate the possible gain and underestimate the certain loss, is to reiterate the truth constantly in danger of being forgotten; but the assertion that either one side or the other must of necessity be "always in the wrong," is to make just one of those fallacious statements which, from being the exaggeration of a limited truth, are at once irritating and unconvincing, and exhibit a narrowness of mind on the part of writers who, like Mr. Greg, try to solve complicated problems by the lucid exposition of some utterly inadequate "simple reason."

The belief in "simple reasons" is indeed a feature of Mr. Greg and of the school of political economists to which he belongs. The greater writers on political economy never forget that the object of that science is to trace what are the results which ensue *in so far* as men act on motives of obvious self-interest. The inferior exponents of economical doctrines fall insensibly into the belief that men do invariably act on principles of immediate self-interest. From this error Mr. Greg is certainly not free, and he combines with it (not unnaturally) a tendency to believe that what is needed to carry conviction to opponents is simply the vigorous statement of obvious truisms. Hence the habit of confusing strength of assertion with force of argument, and of constant indulgence in the rather offensive dogmatism of assured common-sense. In none of his later works are Mr. Greg's weaknesses more visible than in 'Rocks Ahead.'

His first rock is the danger of modern and especially of English society from the political supremacy of numbers. He proves, what scarcely needed proof, that the majority of every community must necessarily be ignorant and uninstructed. He further proves, what also may easily be admitted, that the English artisan, though he has his virtues, has certainly his glaring faults. He proceeds to show that since the last Reform Bill the majority of the electors have been and are artisans, or persons of no better education than artisans. He then lifts up a voice of warning against the danger which awaits society whenever the majority of electors see fit, under the instigation of want and ignorance, to attack the fundamental arrangement of society, and especially the institution of property. Now, the curious point in this line of argument is that almost every sensible person will admit most of the premises, while hardly any sane man really shares the conclusion. The paradox is explained by the fact, which every one feels, that Mr. Greg, writing under a tremendous bias in favor of what may be termed the capitalist point of view, overlooks various considerations which immensely affect the practical force of his inferences. It is not true, in the first place, that to give a mass of men votes is necessarily to give them supreme power. For years the English electorate has been a comparatively poor and by no means very enlightened class. The £10-householders, on whose rule Mr. Greg looks with satisfaction, might easily, on his views, have governed with the narrowest attention to their own immediate interests. They might have oppressed at once the rich and the poor. As a matter of fact, they did not do so, not so much because they were not selfish as because they had not in reality the power which their numerical supremacy appeared to give them. Exactly the same thing is true of the householders who are now with great exaggeration described as the governing body in England. In effect, their theoretical sovereignty is limited at every turn. If universal suffrage were to-morrow established in England, no one really believes that the mass of the people would have despotic power. The electors would be as now a king who reigned but did not govern. Nor does experience show that a popular government involves insecurity of property.

* 'Rocks Ahead; or, The Warnings of Cassandra. By W. R. Greg.' London: Trübner & Co.

† *Spectator* for February 6, 1875.

Mr. Greg alludes constantly to Switzerland, though he gives occasional signs that his knowledge of Swiss history is not precise. He would do well to enquire whether, on the whole, the one genuine European republic has not solved the social and political problems of the day with at least as much success as any state in Europe.

The third rock with which Mr. Greg deals is the gradual divorce observable in every civilized country between the intellect and the religion of the nation. This is a point on which he may well be expected to write impressively. It is one which seems far removed from the questions in answering which a man may be biassed by his political or economical theories. Moreover, the author of the 'Enigmas of Life' has shown singular power of applying to the consideration of theology the rare gifts of honesty and common sense. Nor is the reader's expectation altogether disappointed. In much that Mr. Greg says as to the moral and intellectual evil which is the certain fruit of a condition of society in which religious feeling is at war with intellectual conviction, every man will agree who values either religious belief or intellectual sincerity. Unfortunately, Mr. Greg suddenly turns from the religious and moral evils likely to afflict an age which is at once sceptical and credulous, to speculate on the results which may ensue from the weakening of the "police influence" of Christianity. The result of his speculations, shortly summed up, appears to be that the poor have hitherto been content to acquiesce in the inequalities of life through hopes of the rewards of heaven, but that if anything should lessen the belief in future compensations for a life of misery, there is every reason to fear an attack on those who possess all the good things of this life. To put the matter plainly, an indigent man will, on Mr. Greg's view, begin to sack the jewellers' shops if once convinced "that there is no wealth of gold and jewels awaiting him in the spiritual kingdom."

Of all the delusions into which a man of marked ability ever fell, the belief that Christianity has been, or can be, or ought to be, the great policeman of the universe, is the strangest. In societies where Christianity was unknown, property has been at least as safe as in London or in Paris. The ostentatious alliance of kings and priests has again and again failed either to strengthen the monarch or to support religion. To suppose that the fear of hell or the hope of heaven has been the influence which has directly kept men from picking and stealing is in one sense to overrate, and in another sense to degrade, the real power of religious belief. Few men are really influenced by the thought of remote future and uncertain misery or happiness; and to suppose that the masses of men, who have been in many cases ignorant of the very elements of religion, have been kept in order by religious fears, is to display an ignorance at once of history and of human nature. We fully believe with Mr. Greg that any general disbelief in Christian doctrine might effect grave social results, but it is for the poor and weak and not for the rich and powerful that we should dread the fall of a creed which has fostered if it has not created humanity and charity. The strange thing, however, is that Mr. Greg fails to see that the policeman view of religion is one which spiritual feeling inevitably repudiates. Moreover, his teaching has been long ago anticipated by a far more vigorous writer than even the author of Cassandra's warnings. Swift's "argument to prove that the abolition of Christianity in England may, as things at present stand, be attended with some inconveniences," etc., sums up all the arguments which can be used in favor of the thesis that the poor must be credulous in order that the rich may be safe, and renders such arguments, it might be thought, at once superfluous and useless. Could Mr. Greg state his case better than in the following words: "Whatever some may think of the great advantages to trade by this favorite scheme, I do very much apprehend that in six months after the act has passed for the extirpation of the Gospel, the Bank and East India stock may fall at least one per cent., and since that is fifty times more than ever the wisdom of our age thought fit to venture for the preservation of Christianity, there is no reason why we should be at so great a loss merely for the sake of destroying it"?

## ART REMAINS OF SOUTHERN ITALY.*

THE time of the singing of birds is come, and the yearly exodus to Europe has fairly begun. And this reminds us that we have never noticed two very important archæological books, which no lover of ancient art, whether he proposes to loiter away spring and summer on classic ground, or to stay at home, can afford to leave unread. The one deals with the sculpture of a very important part of the oldest period of art, the other, with the painting of an equally important part of later art. Both are by eminent scholars, and both are specimens of the best German method.

The letterpress and the illustrations of Otto Benndorf's 'Metopes of Selinus' are beautifully got up. Nevertheless, sit is not an expensive book. But we have failed to find it, on enquiry, at some of the great public libraries, and think it only proper therefore to comment on it somewhat in detail. The Introduction gives a history of Selinus, now Castel Veterano, in the southwestern part of Sicily, where a mass of gigantic ruins marks the places where once eight temples stood. We say eight temples. Benndorf mentions only seven. But since his book was printed one more has been added to the list (in March, 1874) by Cavallari, whom many an old Göttingen student in this country will remember from the pleasant days when he was engaged with Baron Sartorius on his great 'Ætna.'

Selinus was founded in the year 628 B.C., and enjoyed an extraordinary prosperity for nearly two centuries, rivalling the proudest cities of Magna Græcia and Greece proper in art, opulence, population, and splendor. Then came the terrible catastrophe of 409 B.C.; the Carthaginian "came down like a wolf on the fold," and took the city after an heroic resistance of nine days. Untold horrors followed: burning, killing, destruction in every hideous shape. Selinus never recovered; and during the First Punic War in 249 B.C., it was taken by the Carthaginians a second time, and the population was deported to Lilybæum. Here endeth the brief story of Selinus: from that day to this it has been nothing but a ruin. It is obvious, however, from the most casual inspection that the destruction never can have proceeded from the hand of man; gigantic masses of column lie flung a hundred feet apart. Nothing short of an earthquake can account for the havoc. The impressive remains would of themselves inspire an interest if no chronicler had recorded the story of the city and no lingering tradition told of its doom: their demonstrable antiquity and the precision of the dates give them in the eyes of the archæologist a tenfold interest and importance.

These eight temples then, by the side of which the ruins of a theatre and of the city walls, gates and all, shrink into insignificance, stood in imposing grandeur on two hills a hundred feet high or so. The hills put out to the sea, enclosing a valley, the higher part of which may very likely have been the market-place, while the southern or lower part touches the waters of the great harbor: dams belonging to this harbor have been found under water at some distance out. A second harbor was constructed at the mouth of the river Selinus, 'Parsley River' (σέλινον, σελινόεις, Σελινοῦς), from which the town takes its name. The city had two large burial-places, which have furnished a great number of interesting vases.

The oldest temple is the one on the Acropolis designated by long-standing usage, even in the guide-books, by the letter "C." It was built at the very founding of the city and dedicated to Apollo, the principal divinity of the town of Megara, from which the settlers of Selinus came. From its irregularities of construction it must be set before the establishment of the Doric canon. It was decorated with the famous archaic metopes in relief, which with the Lion Gate of Mycenæ lead off the grand array of Greek sculpture. Three of the metopes are preserved, and these are characterized by great crudity of style. The faces are all turned towards you, with monotonous and hideous features; but the feet are all seen from the side, just as a child might draw a picture on a slate, to dodge the difficulties of foreshortening. The flesh is puffy and lumpy, the hair a succession of tight curls, the pose stiff and ungainly, helped out in many places with the painter's brush where the rough chisel felt itself inadequate to the task and gave it up in despair. And yet, withal, there is just a trace, just an inkling, of the Greek feeling for art. Such is the impression made by these remarkable reliefs, executed in the very childhood of Greek sculpture, almost two centuries before Phidias set up the colossal Athene on the Acropolis of Athens, or put together his Olympian Zeus with cunning workmanship of ivory and gold.

Plate I. shows Perseus composedly cutting off the oversized head of Medusa. The Gorgon is indeed a monster of most frightful mien, with a long and lolling tongue and an enormous mouth, garnished with the tusks of a swine:

> "All set with yron teeth in raunges twaine,
> Appearing like the mouth of Orcus grisly grim."

A row of corkscrew-ringlets on each shoulder attests her tender sex; while the hair of the other two figures is what is called by ladies "banged," that on the forehead of Medusa looks like rosettes. On the left stands a sister of the unhappy victim, without a ray of interest, simpering in stony apathy. Poor little Pegasus, in Medusa's arm, is touch-

* 'Die Metopen von Selinunt: mit Untersuchungen über die Geschichte, die Topographie und die Tempel von Selinunt: veröffentlicht von Otto Benndorf.' [The Metopes of Selinus. With investigations on the History, Topography, and Temples of Selinus.] Berlin: F. Guttentag, 1873 (dedicated to Frederic Ritschl).
'Untersuchungen über die campanische Wandmalerei: von Wolfgang Helbig.' [Studies of Campanian Mural Painting.] Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel, 1873 (dedicated to Ernest Curtius).

ingly helpless ; he has all the wooden look of a Noah's-Ark horse or a student in an Ulster coat. Plate II. represents Hercules carrying the two Cercopes hanging from a yoke across his neck. The thievish gnomes hang down in the queerest, most impossible way. Plate III. is a stiff chariot-and-four, seen *en face*, the horses fairly done ; Phœbus Apollo and the Sun-chariot. Plate IV. gives fragments, including two heads, of which one is exceptionally in profile.

The other metopes (Plates V.–XI.) belong to later epochs. They are not from the region of the Acropolis, but from two temples of the eastern hill, designated "E" and "F." The older temple, F, was embellished with a Battle of Giants, spread over ten metopes, of which, unfortunately, only two are preserved. One appears to be a goddess, Athene or Artemis, giving the *coup de grâce* to a giant sprawling on the ground ; the other a god, probably Dionysus, doing the same to his enemy, who has sunk on his knee. The value of these metopes is immensely enhanced by their rarity. We find here in all the details of representation, in the slender, more natural proportions, in the free-and-easy swing of the limbs, an unmistakable advance. And yet there is a lack of harmony in the whole, a want of that naturalness which tells so powerfully in the marbles of Ægina, now in the Munich *Glyptothek*. Still, the mannerism of the hair and the peculiar expression of the mouth do rather remind one of the Ægina group.

These archaic monuments are chiefly interesting in a historic point of view. The metopes of the third temple, the one called "E," are works of real classic beauty, and worthy of the age of Phidias (Plates VII.–XI.) Plate VII., tasteful and clear in composition, represents Hercules overtaking the Queen of the Amazons and forcing her to halt by treading on her foot : she is making a feeble effort to defend herself with her battle-axe ; but Hercules holds her in the firm grip of his left hand, while his right is just going to deal the fatal blow. Plate VIII. is a fit counterpiece to this splendid metope : the meeting of Zeus and Here on Ida (Iliad, xiv. 153–351). Zeus, in a sitting posture, is drawing Here to him ; Here is standing with affected coyness, toying and fumbling with the ample folds of her raiment. Plate IX.: Actæon and Artemis, according to the Sicilian version of the myth. Actæon had been a suitor of Semele, and thereby drawn down upon himself the jealous wrath of Zeus. In order to stop a union with Semele, Zeus sent Artemis, who was to throw a deerskin over Actæon, and have him torn in pieces by his own hounds. This last scene is the subject of Plate IX. Plate X : Athene fighting with the giant Enceladus, who was believed to lie under Etna, and made himself terrible to the Sicilians by his eternal unrest. Plate XI. gives only fragments.

The reliefs of Temple E are made of various materials, somewhat after the analogy of a chryselephantine statue. Mostly they are of tuff, but the female flesh is represented in Parian marble, the accessories—for instance, the crown of Zeus—are in bronze. Great taste is shown in the tinting ; the background is red, and the sharp contrast between the bright marble and the duller tuff is toned down by layers of color. An inscription shows that this temple was dedicated to Here.

The second book—the last thing on Campanian, or, as it is popularly called, Pompeian mural painting, by Wolfgang Helbig, Secretary of the German Archæological Institute in Rome—is a good guide to Pompeii itself, and good reading for such stay-at-homes as are forced to find their Pompeii in the pages of Zahn, Ternite, etc., in the Astor Library. People who have read a former work of this author ('Wandgemälde der vom Vesuv verschütteten Städte Campaniens'; Leipsic, 1868) need not be told that it is well-written and clear, in many parts deeply interesting, and everywhere brimful of the choicest erudition. Apart from all other merits, it is of signal value for the history of art : Helbig proves, and that most convincingly, that most of the Pompeian mural paintings are only reproductions and adaptations from the Hellenistic period. He shows that the Pompeian fresco, in general, is a substitute for the panel-painting (*tabula picta*) which was the rage in the period of the Ptolemies and the Seleucidæ ; that the peculiarities of manner, foreshortening, etc., are found in Pausias and his contemporaries ; and proves, principally from passages in the poets, that the management of the atmosphere, as found in Pompeian and Roman frescoes, goes back to Hellenistic art. There are two other points of resemblance : common to both is an idyllic coquetry and a tender, languid sensuality.

Perhaps the most interesting and original chapter of the book is the last, on "the fundamental difference between ancient and modern landscape." The principal difference between the ancient and modern landscape is in the aerial perspective. Modern art revels in the dim, the vague, the undefined ; the distant hills and mountains melt insensibly into the air. In ancient landscape there is no such mystery, no such sentiment. The outlines are never dim, but sharp and precise. Not only this, but the ancient languages themselves are singularly defective in expression for atmospheric effects. The most dexterous Hellenist or Latinist, says Helbig, would be quite at a loss to find appropriate Greek or Latin words for many of the commonest terms used in modern descriptions of landscape ; and in the bits of scenery found in Dicaearchus, Apollonius Rhodius, Virgil, and other writers after Alexander the Great, in the description of pictures given by the two Philostrati, no account whatever is taken of the air, its effects on the landscape, or the impression it makes on the mind of the beholder.

If this is true of landscape, it is also true of other departments of painting, and we need not be surprised if in the Campanian genre-pictures there is none of that tender and sympathetic handling of the lights which gives to modern pictures, and particularly to those of the Dutch school, their peculiar charm. The realism of the ancients is therefore confined within very narrow bounds. A modern artist may venture to represent common subjects in all the literalness of nature ; he has the means of throwing a poetic halo round lowness and vulgarity by a judicious and appropriate management of the light. To take an extreme instance of modern realism, pictures of Courbet, like "The Funeral at Ornans," or "The Stone-Breakers," are artistic in spite of the vulgarity of the subjects, and artistic through the temper of the atmosphere ; in the first, the air is grey, cloudy, damp ; in "The Stone-Breakers," we have the noonday glare, hot, dry, and charged with particles of sand. Lacking, then, the modern means for glorifying the ugly or the common, ancient art could not "hold the mirror up to nature" and copy real life directly as it lay before the eye. It was forced to cull carefully from the material presented, to purify, and to make new combinations.

We have forgotten to tell how the author traces out the continuity of art. He has an astonishing familiarity with the countless pictures on vases which have come down from ancient times, and this enables him to illustrate any Pompeian subject that turns up by a number of parallels. In this way he often proves conclusively that a given composition was not invented at Pompeii, but goes back to a Hellenistic original—sometimes an original of great reputation.

## THE UNSEEN UNIVERSE.*

IN *Nature*, nine or ten months ago, there appeared a communication signed "West," registering, for the sake of establishing priority of date, a discovery which, in the anagrammatic form the author chose to give it at that moment, ran thus :

$A^6\ C^3\ D\ E^{12}\ F^4\ G\ H^6\ I^6\ L^3\ M^3\ N^6\ O^6\ P\ R^4\ S^5\ T^{14}\ U^6\ V^2\ W\ X\ Y^2$.

These letters placed rightly compose a proposition—"Thought conceived to affect the matter of another universe simultaneously with this may explain a future state"—of which this book is the full elucidation and expansion. It seems probable, therefore, that "West" was one of the two reputed authors of the 'Unseen Universe,' and presumably the senior partner. Of him it may be said that he is at all events no sciolist in physics, and the way in which Biblical texts and the most ruthless of modern scientific hypotheses combine to shape and support his conclusions is, in the year of grace 1875, a phenomenon which really gives one an impression of freshness and originality.

His argument runs somewhat as follows : Modern physics postulates, in addition to the gross matter which we can weigh and feel, another form of material existence called the ether, or medium. Some very transcendental speculations have endeavored to explain how such a characteristic property of the gross matter as gravitation might be derived from the pressure of the ether. Furthermore, the qualitative difference which the gross matter presents to our senses and reagents are explicable by various hypotheses as to its quantitative internal molecular arrangement. The "elements" of chemistry may owe their distinction from each other to the different groupings of the homogeneous primordial atoms of which they are built. Now, primordial atoms themselves are supposed by Sir Wm. Thomson to be vortex rings generated out of a perfect fluid filling all space—in other words, eddies in the medium, or portions of it mechanically differentiated. This conception does not, it is true, account for gravitation ; hence its originator adopts the additional hypothesis of ultramundane corpuscles, which he supposes to be a finer form of vortices. Our present author, who is a determined adherent of development, objects to the hypothesis of the medium being a perfect (frictionless) fluid, because in that case we cannot suppose matter to have been evolved from it, but must needs resort to the hypothesis of creation, which is an appeal

* 'The Unseen Universe ; or, Physical Speculations on a Future State.' New York : Macmillan & Co. 1875.

to the unconditioned always to be avoided ; and moreover, because certain facts connected with the light of the stars suggest the conclusion that the ether is not perfectly transparent, but *absorbs energy*. But with whatever differences of detail, the upshot of all these speculations is that matter and the medium, or the visible and the invisible, are considered materially and dynamically continuous. One arose in time by a coagulation or precipitation occurring in the other, and must needs end in time, if the other be not a perfect (frictionless) fluid, by the undoing of the momentum of rotation it contains. The great law of dissipation of energy, too, which requires us to imagine a constant leakage into the ether of heat vibrations from the visible world—vibrations which will never be restored—leads to the same conclusion. The energy which is leaving our visible world in every direction at the rate of 188,000 miles a second *is not lost*. "It will all be ultimately appropriated by the invisible world, and we may now imagine as a possibility that the separate existence of the visible universe will share the same fate, so that we shall have no huge useless inert mass existing in after ages to remind the passer-by of a form of energy and a species of matter that is long since out of date and functionally effete. Why should not the universe bury its dead out of sight ?"

This bold conclusion is the culmination of the author's scientific argument. The use he makes of the ethereal world thus left upon his hands, with all its stored-up energy, is, if possible, more purely speculative still. In the first place, it has a *history* connected with that of the visible world, since by transfer of energy from the latter it is conditioned in time, direction, amount, etc., by the particulars which are now and here occurring. Every event here, then, is recorded by its traces on the invisible world, and these traces may be organized (it is not attempted to define how) into a memory. A possibility is thus afforded for a continuity of being, both conscious and material, between the two worlds, and our faith or fancy may fill out its details in the way that seems most fitting. The author's aim simply is to explode the notion that science *debars* the supposition of such a continuity. He indulges in some further speculations about superhuman intelligences in that world, and concludes that it must contain an *immanent* intelligent agency which once determined the manner of formation of the visible universe from it, and impressed upon the molecules thereof that uniformity which Clerk-Maxwell calls the stamp of the "manufactured" article. This immanent agency is proved by Scripture to be the Second Person of the Trinity as distinguished from the First, who is transcendent.

The points which strike us most in the whole attempt are, first, the urgency of the author's demand for "continuity," or the principle of explaining one conditioned event by another conditioned event, and "pushing back the Great First Cause as far in time as possible," combined with his hopelessness of "driving the Creator out of the field altogether," and resulting in the compromise by which he gives us the Son as indwelling in the world, and merely determinative, not creative, of its molecular events, whilst the Father stays outside in inscrutable majesty, with apparently no function but to keep up logical appearances. Secondly, we are struck by the way in which he immediately resorts to teleology to determine the particular constitution of that unseen world of whose existence his previous arguments have established the probability. In a word, his tactics are in logical form precisely identical with those of the most primitive, "unscientific," and short-winded natural theologian, the only difference being in the scale of his operations. He shows us the same mechanical determinism in the line of events we clearly and familiarly apprehend, and he bounds the penumbra *a parte ante* in the same way by the Absolute Cause, and defines it *a parte post* by faith, guided by teleological reasoning. It is only the incomparable superiority of the modern scientific imagination on its *quantitative* side that may seem at first to give our author's speculations a different aspect. And truly enough, if vastness of scale be a real character of the universe, both in space and time, those Hindu-like imaginations which are pleased with the contemplation of monstrous lengths, and are able to feel the difference between sums expressed in units of different orders of infinity, would seem the best fitted to divine its secrets. The German and English imaginations are fast being educated up to this spaciousness, whilst the French mind lags behind both in this point and in its feeling for continuity. Our author, therefore, may enjoy the credit of having attacked the problem of natural theology (and solved it in his way) on a scale not unworthy of the grandeur of the theme's dimensions.

But when he professes to have *mediated* between Science and Religion we cannot grant his claim. He simply gratifies the demands of science for an ever-wider scope, and thus throws upon religion a vaster task for her translating and interpreting powers. But his scientific unseen world is by no means identical with the world "behind the veil" of religion. Christian devoutness has never expressed its trust simply in "another," but always in "another *and a better* world." Our author's belief in the "betterness" of that "other" world which he constructs for us demands from him at the end of his mechanical gyrations, be they never so ingenious and rarefied, the same simple act of teleologic trust, the same faith that the end will crown the work, with which the most narrow-minded old woman so quickly envelops her briefly-recited cosmogony. We for our part not only hold that such an act of trust is licit, but we think, furthermore, that any one *to whom it makes a practical difference* (whether of motive to action or of mental peace) is in duty bound to make it. If "scientific" scruples withhold him from making it, this proves his intellect to have been simply sicklied o'er and paralyzed by scientific pursuits. In the physical realm the "subjective method" of finding truth may be the root of all evil. But the affirmation that this physical world has *also* a moral meaning and a moral plan is one that no argument drawn from purely physical truth can either establish or impugn. It is nevertheless an affirmation which either is or is not true, and which if true may, from the very nature of the case, be intended to command from us only that inward, free, or moral assent, or rather consent, in which the subjective method consists. As we have said, the 'Unseen Universe' does not make this consent essentially easier. It establishes no "continuity" whatever between mechanical reasoning about facts at our feet and teleological reasoning about ultimate things. But it widens the data and horizon which teleology receives from science, in accordance with the sentiment of the day ; it will, doubtless, be found suggestive both by men of science and divines ; and it deserves to be widely read.

---

*Brief Biographies of European Public Men.* Edited by Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Vol. I. English Statesmen. Prepared by Thomas Wentworth Higginson. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1875. 12mo, pp. 363.)—It is not often that a new publication is so precisely fitted to fill an empty space as this little book of Col. Higginson's. Everybody was wondering, for instance, the other day, who, or rather what, the Marquis of Hartington was, that he should be selected as successor to Mr. Gladstone ; and certainly, of the eighteen names here given, very few are more than a name—many not even that—to the majority of American newspaper readers. Here we find just the information that was needed, and in a very compact and at the same time readable form. The book is divided into three parts : the first containing eminent statesmen—Messrs. Gladstone, Disraeli, and Bright, Earls Russell and Granville, and the Duke of Argyll ; the second, Mr. Disraeli's Ministry ; the third, candidates for the Liberal leadership. It professes to be nothing more than an attempt to condense several books into one, which task has certainly been accomplished with great skill Nearly every paragraph is marked with inverted commas ; but the books thus condensed are at once so graphic and so discerning, and the selections are made with such good judgment, that the whole leaves little to be desired. We notice frequent extracts from the correspondence of the *Nation*. If there is any deficiency, it is in quotations from the statesmen's own words ; there is a long speech by Mr. Forster, and some excellent passages from speeches of Messrs. Gladstone, Disraeli, Bright, etc. ; but the American public would, we think, particularly relish more abundant illustrations of English eloquence. The next volume is to contain "English Radical Leaders," by Col. R. J. Hinton ; a third, "French Statesmen," by Edward King. In neither of these will there be lack of equally good material. Other volumes, which will follow if demanded, may be somewhat more difficult to prepare, but will, we are sure, be equally acceptable and useful.

---

*Alexander the Great in the Punjaub.* From Arrian, Book V. With Notes. By the Rev. C. E. Moberly, M.A., Assistant-Master in Rugby School. (London, Oxford, and Cambridge : Rivingtons. 1875. 16mo, pp. 68.)—Alexander's campaign in India has, to an American boy, only the general interest which attaches to an episode in the name and career of a great warrior, but in an English school it must appeal to the personal sympathies and associations of the pupils in a degree which would be the case with very few of the ancient classics. It is therefore admirably adapted to the use of an English school ; and Mr. Moberly in his edition has taken pains to enhance this immediate interest by continual allusions to and comparisons with the modern campaigns. The work is scholarly, and is suited to American schools or college classes as well as English.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* |
|---|---|
| Appleton (T. G.), A Sheaf of Papers | (Roberts Bros.) |
| Bancroft (H. H.), Native Races of the Pacific Coast, Vol. II. | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Bric-à-Brac Series : Reminiscences by Cornelia Knight and Thomas Raikes | (Scribner, Armstrong & o.) $1 50 |

Brotherhead (W.), The Centennial Book of the Signers, Parts 1-4, swd.....(J. M. Stoddart & Co.) $9 50
Carpenter (Prof. S. H.), Introduction to the Study of Anglo-Saxon.....(Ginn Bros.) 1 25
Chambers (Dr. T. K.), Diet in Health and Disease.....(Henry C. Lea)
Dana (Prof. J. D.), The Geological Story Briefly Told.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) 1 50
Davidson (T.), Short Account of the Niobe Group, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Fessler (Dr. J.), True and False Infallibility of the Popes.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Fitzmaurice (E.), Life of William, Earl of Shelburne, Vol. I.....(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Field (Mrs. H. M.), Home Sketches in France.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), The Religion of Humanity, 3d ed.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Galton (F.), English Men of Science: Their Nature and Nurture..(D. Appleton & Co.)
Gross (Rev. M. S.), Baptism as a Sacrament in the Catholic Church, swd.(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Gregory (Rev. D. S.), Christian Ethics.....(Eldredge & Bro.) 1 50
Harrison (J. A.), A Group of Poets and their Haunts.....(Hurd & Houghton) 1 75
Harvey (T. W.), Primary Speller and Graded-School Readers....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)
Headley (J. T.), Sacred Mountains and Scenes in the Holy Land.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Huston (R. G.), Journey in Honduras, swd.....(Robert Clarke & Co.) 0 50
Keetels (Prof. J. G.), Illustrated Child's First Book in French.....(Clarke & Maynard)
Lacey (J. F.), Digest of Railway Decisions.....(Callaghan & Co.) 10 00
Leland (C. G.), Fusang; or, The Discovery of America.....(J. W. Bouton)
Manning (Cardinal), Vatican Decrees and Civil Allegiance.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
McCarthy (J.), Paul Massie.....(Sheldon & Co.) $1 50
Morris (W.), The Defence of Guenevere, and Other Poems.....(Roberts Bros.) 2 00
Pierce (Dr. R. V.), Common-Sense Medical Adviser.....(Buffalo)
Revue des Deux Mondes, Table Générale, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Satchel-Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe.....(Hurd & Houghton) 2 00
Sheppard (F. H.), Love Afloat.....(Sheldon & Co.)
Southall (J. C.), The Recent Origin of Man.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Steamship Notes for Travellers to Europe, 2d Year.....(F. B. Patterson)
Stevenson (Sarah H.), Boys and Girls in Biology.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Taine (H.), Notes on Paris.....(Henry Holt & Co.)
The Syllabus for the People, swd.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
The Unseen Universe.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
The Famine in Asia Minor, swd.....(F. W. Christern) 1 00
Thompson (Prof. R. E.), Social Science and National Economy.....(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Tholuck (Prof. A.), Hours of Christian Devotion, 2d ed...(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Twells (Mrs. J. H.), The Mills of the Gods: a Tale.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Ullathorne (Bishop), Mr. Gladstone's Expostulation Unravelled, swd.(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Vogel (Dr. H.), Chemistry of Light and Photography.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Walford (L. B.), Mr. Smith: a Tale.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Whitney (Prof. W. D.), The Life and Growth of Language.....(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 50
Wilcox (J. M.), Elementary Philosophy, Part I.....(Porter & Coates) 0 75
Wilder (Prof. B. G.), What Young People Should Know.....(Estes & Lauriat)


## *Family Record Album*

IN BLANKS CLASSIFIED ON A NEW SYSTEM.

Large quarto, 320 pages, cloth, $5; half-morocco, $8; full Turkey morocco, with clasp, $15; full Levant morocco, with metal rims and lock, $25. (Sold only by Subscription.)

This book has been made because the editor felt the need of it, and supposed that many others felt the same need. The pages are of seven kinds, viz.: Family Pages for the names of the immediate family; Genealogical Pages for the ancestry; Tabular Pages to record with a word or figure, and to ascertain them at a glance, such particulars as parentage, time, and place of birth; weight and height at various times of life; dates of vaccinations, naming, dentition, walking, talking, learning to read, write, swim, etc., going to and leaving schools and college, entrance upon trade or profession, marriage, residences, diseases, accidents, etc., etc.; Biographical Pages, for fuller personal details not otherwise provided for; Heirloom Pages, to keep records of interesting things about the house; Domestic Economy Pages, to record the manner of living, house-rent, expenditure, income, etc.; Miscellaneous Pages, for matters not falling under any of the previous divisions

Sold only by subscription. Orders received by the publishers.

☞ Agents wanted. Persons of character and ability can increase their incomes and do useful work by devoting all or part of their time to disseminating this work. Correspondence invited.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,
25 Bond St., N. Y.

NEW BOOKS.
Eastern Fruit on Western Dishes.

*THE MORALS OF ABOU BEN* Adhem. By Petroleum V. Nasby (D. R. Locke). 1 vol. 12mo, cloth, $1 50.

Oliver Optic's new book.

*OCEAN BORN;* or, The Cruise of the Yachts. Illustrated. $1 50.

Elijah Kellogg's new Story.

*WOLF RUN;* or, The Boys of the Wilderness. Illustrated. $1 25.

*SOCIALISTIC, COMMUNISTIC,* Mutualistic, and Financial Fragments. By William B. Greene. $1 25.

⁂ For sale by all booksellers. Sent, post-paid, on receipt of price.

LEE & SHEPARD, Publishers, Boston;
LEE, SHEPARD & DILLINGHAM, New York.

*THE SCHOOL BULLETIN AND* *New York State Educational Journal* for June will contain five hundred examination questions, a full report of the Social Science Association, and the *London Quarterly* article upon "Education in America." The *Bulletin* is now the largest educational journal published. Subscription, $1. Specimen copies, 10 cents. Address *School Bulletin*, Albany, N. Y.

*G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,*
Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street,
NEW YORK,
Have just published:

## *The Keys of the Creeds.*

12mo, cloth extra, $1 25.

"A religious work that will undoubtedly make a sensation."—*Springfield Republican.*

"A remarkable work, that will attract the same class of readers as 'Ecce Homo.'"—*Newark Courier.*

"Promises to attract much attention. . . . The authorship is kept secret, and may become the subject of as many conjectures as that of "Ecce Homo.'"—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"May be said to be the Darwinian theory of development applied to religion. . . . Ably written, reverential, full of novelty, and certain to be widely read."—*Memphis Appeal.*

*PRINTERS' Cabinet, Type, Press, and Boxwood* Depot; Eagle Cabinets; Pattern Letters for Machinists. —VANDERBURGH, WELLS & CO., cor. Fulton and Dutch Sts., New York. N. B.—Engraving—Electrotyping.

## *Starr & Marcus,*

*Jewellers and Silversmiths.*

DIAMONDS AND GEMS.

*Works of Art in Stone Cameos.*

BRONZES, CLOCKS, AND ORNAMENTS.

*22 John Street, New York.*

*F. W. CHRISTERN,*
FOREIGN BOOKSELLER AND IMPORTER,
77 UNIVERSITY PLACE, NEW YORK.

Large assortments of the publications of Charpentier, Didier, Didot, Hachette, Lévy Frères, etc., on hand; also complete lists of Tauchnitz's Collection of British Authors, and Teuner's Greek and Roman Classics. All European periodicals received weekly in parcels.

Complete in Five Parts.

## *Smith's Historical Atlas.*

An Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical. Compiled under the superintendence of Dr. William Smith and Mr. George Grove.

This magnificent and valuable work is now completed in Five Parts. It contains forty-two large and beautiful Maps and complete Indexes.

"The whole work is a splendid specimen of what can be achieved by learned labor and technical skill."—*London Athenæum.*

Price $7 per Part.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., PUBLISHERS,
BOSTON.


## *SPECIAL NOTICES.*

TERMS: In advance, four weeks, 10 cents per word; one year, $6 24 per line. Letters forwarded.

### *Wants, etc.*

*A GRADUATE of Columbia College desires a* position as resident or visiting tutor during the summer or coming year. Best references given. Address KAPPA, *Nation* office.

*A HARVARD GRADUATE desires an engagement* as travelling or visiting tutor. Address Z, office of *Nation.*

*A LADY, graduated, experienced in teaching,* desires an engagement for fall in family or school. Teaches French and German. Satisfactory references. Address Box N, *Nation* office.

*A LITERARY GENTLEMAN, late Assistant* Editor of a London Journal, is desirous of a similar appointment in the city or immediate neighborhood. Address ENGLISHMAN, *Nation* Office.


## *Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

## *Buckingham Hotel,*

*Fifth Avenue, cor. Fiftieth St. (opposite the Cathedral).*

Great care has been bestowed on the Steam-Heating, Plumbing, and Ventilation of this elegant House, which will be completed September next.

*"THE READER" discusses on page* iv *a new work on Botany, of the highest importance, just issued by Macmillan & Co.*

*JAMES TOLMAN & CO.,*
FINE CUSTOM TAILORING,
No. 249 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON,

Respectfully invite attention to their stock of goods for gentlemen's garments. All orders carefully and promptly executed. Location very central, being midway between School and Court Streets.

*AN AMERICAN BOY, of a good family,* wishes to help out of doors at some gentleman's country residence during the summer. Address C. C., *Nation* office.

*AN EPISCOPAL DIVINITY STUDENT* wishes a position as travelling companion to one or two boys. Travelling expenses only desired. Refers to patrons of last summer. DELTA, *Nation* office.

*A YALE GRADUATE desires pupils to fit* during the summer for fall examination. Refers to the College Faculty. Address M., office of the *Nation.*

*MME. M. DE MALTCHYCE, of Boston,* wishes to take charge of several young ladies, for an educational turn in Europe, during a whole year. For particulars, please apply at her residence, 102 Mt. Vernon Street.

*TWO HARVARD JUNIORS wish pupils* for the summer. Satisfactory references given. Address J., *Nation* office.

*WANTED—A situation as Teacher of the* English branches by a graduate and person of experience. Address J. W. R., Box 1,042, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

*WANTED—Resident Lady Physician for* Lasell Seminary, Auburndale, Mass. Apply at once.

*AMER. SCHOOL INST., founded* 1855, is a reliable and practical Educational Bureau—
To aid Families and Schools of every grade in need of well-qualified Teachers;
To represent Teachers who seek positions;
To give parents information of good Schools;
To sell, rent, and exchange School Properties.
Twenty years have proved it efficient in securing "the right Teacher for the right place."
J. W. SCHERMERHORN, A.M., Actuary,
14 Bond Street, New York.

*LUCRATIVE SCHOOLS for Teachers of all* Grades. Apply for circulars. "Western School Agency," Chicago, Ill.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE Pennsylvania Republicans appear to have made up their minds thoroughly that a "third-term plank" is now needed in the platform of any party which means to be successful at the polls. The platform adopted at the Convention at Lancaster on Wednesday last accordingly contained one; it may be said that it was the only interesting thing in it. The correspondent of the New York *Times*, who is strongly Republican, reports that the audience cheered vociferously on hearing it, but listened to all the others, including the eulogy on the Administration, in dead silence. For the rest, the resolutions are framed on the plan—which we trust will become popular—of the New York Democratic resolutions of last year; that is, each describes in brief terms an object of desire, and nothing more. But then, one hardly knows after reading them any better than before what desires the Pennsylvania Republicans have which all decent men of every party do not share, except that for protection and paper-money. They seek equality before the law, harmony of National and State Governments, purity and efficiency of administration, reconciliation between labor and capital, cheap transportation for man, beast, and goods. They also demand "free banking and a safe and uniform currency adjusted to the growing wants of the business interests of the country," which is an exact description of coin, but is generally taken to mean unlimited paper, or Kelley's 3-65 scheme. After the usual vigorous round of abuse of the Democratic party, the present Governor was renominated.

---

The President has at last quieted the apprehensions of people who thought he was going to run for a third term, by an explicit letter of denial. He says he took the office the first time unwillingly, is not now, and has not been, a candidate for re-election, but thinks the people ought to have the right to elect a man for a third time if they please, and declares that the reason why he did not sooner announce his withdrawal from the arena was because he thought it "beneath the dignity" of his office to answer any question on the subject until it had been presented "by a body of such dignity as not to make a reply a fair subject of ridicule." The fact is that he has delayed his denial, in spite of the urgent solicitations of prominent men in the party in all parts of the country, until the formal repudiation of him by the Pennsylvania Convention showed that he was likely to be visited with a similar slight by every Republican convention which would meet during the coming year. He has at last spoken, but only when threatened with an unprecedented indignity by his own party. The allusion to the "dignity of his office" he might very well have omitted. Of this no President has shown himself so careless. His sensitiveness about the newspapers, and the extraordinary measures—such as keeping disreputable men in office after exposure—to which he has resorted in order to produce an appearance of indifference to their clamors, to make no mention of the character and social standing of many of his intimate friends, make his talk about "dignity" either meaningless or repulsive.

---

He does not even now say positively that he will under no circumstances consent to another nomination, but he does say that he is not a candidate, and "would not accept a nomination if it were tendered," unless circumstances should make it an "imperative duty"—a "circumstance," as he says, "not likely to arrise." This declaration, although it does not absolutely prevent his taking office again, for practical purposes amounts to a declaration that he is out of the field and does not mean to try to get into the field, and the Republicans are now so thoroughly convinced of the danger to the party which the incubus of the Administration has created that they may be relied upon to give him all the assistance in their power to keep him out of the way of doing them any more harm. The President says, among other things, that he is "surprised" that so many "sensible persons in the 'Republican party'" should permit their "enemy" to force this issue upon them, and declares it to be his conviction that the idea that any man could ever renominate himself as President "is preposterous," and that it is a reflection upon the intelligence and patriotism of the people to suppose such a thing possible. In reading this delicate compliment, it is difficult to believe that it comes from the same man who four years ago was so deeply impressed with the danger to the country from the office-holders, wire-pullers, and politicians generally that he proposed to take all temptations away from them by means of civil-service reform.

---

Decoration Day in the State of New York, though not, we believe, universally throughout the country, is a legal holiday, and on Monday last it was observed, certainly in New York, more generally than has been the custom in previous years. The sentiment of the day is so natural and touching that we should be sorry to see any sign of its observance dying out; but the press has begun to discuss the possibility of keeping it up as the years go on and the memories of the war fade, and this is in itself an indication of uncertainty. We have not been very successful with the holiday which the war of the Revolution bequeathed to us—the exclusively political character given to it in the early days having become rather monotonous as time has gone on and furnished other subjects for reflection than the heroism of the fathers and the tyranny of British rule. Decoration Day has, however, the great advantage in its favor of being a natural holiday, and originally the result of a spontaneous expression of genuine, not merely statutory feeling. It may be said against its continuance that it will be impossible to keep alive the interest in the graves of the men who fell in the rebellion after this generation has passed away, and that it will then become an empty ceremony; but even in that case the holiday will still remain, and holidays with our overworked people are so few that any reasonable addition to their number is a cause for congratulation. The idea that putting flowers on the graves keeps alive the "animosities of the war" is a pure piece of nonsense. In the way of a commemorative observance, there is probably nothing which would so tend to soften them.

---

Before our last issue had come from the press the misfortunes of the Erie Railway had culminated, and the company had been placed in charge of a receiver—Mr. Jewett, the president. The application for a receiver was made by the Attorney-General of the State, and was supported by a complaint making the most damaging charges in regard to the present condition of the company, as well as its management, since the "rescue" of the property from Gould. Among other things, the complaint charges that the dividends which have been declared under the "reform board" were not earned, that the latest issue of bonds (nearly $15,000,000), for which the company received only about 40 cents on the dollar, was fraudulent, that the negotiations and contract with the Atlantic and Great Western were scandalous, and that, in effect, the company has only been kept from declared insolvency for years by questionable "financing." The directors of the company made no opposition to the appointment of a receiver; three of them became bondsmen for Mr. Jewett, to whom the court gave almost absolute power. It is probable, if the Delaware and Hudson and Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Companies (which now practically control the coal market and which were anxious to extend their control to the coal-lands of the Erie) had been satisfied with the security which

the Erie offered for a loan of $500,000, that the failure would have been "bridged over." The turn in Erie affairs promoted speculation not only in its shares but in those of other companies. At the Stock Exchange it has been the most active week of the year, and prices have declined more than in any other six days. Much of this depression was due to purely speculative influence, but the developments in Erie have raised suspicions as to the manner in which other companies, no less respectably officered, are managed. The effect of the railroad war on Erie receipts since January has also raised the question whether the other trunk-lines are not suffering to the extent of impairing their dividends to shareholders. It is not likely, however, that the railroad war will be kept up longer than midsummer, although Mr. Garrett, of the Baltimore and Ohio, has within the week defiantly proclaimed at Chicago that he has no idea of abandoning his present position. It is conceded that he is better equipped for the fight than is either the New York Central or the Pennsylvania, but with the Baltimore and Ohio stock declining (it has fallen about twenty "points" in the past four weeks), and with Baltimore deriving no marked advantage in its trade, it is doubtful if his utterances are more than might be expected of a man of his temperament at this stage of the contest.

---

While what is called general trade has not been so good as was expected, the foreign-trade figures of the port show activity. The foreign imports for the week were $9,357,000, against $8,580,000 last year, and $6,515,000 the year before. The exports of domestic products were $6,050,816, against $5,376,000 last year, and $5,205,000 the year before. The latter have undoubtedly been stimulated by the breaking-up of the speculative clique at Chicago which undertook to control the price of grain not only for this continent but for the European markets as well. The load became too large for the idle resources of the Chicago banks, and liquidation has been forced, with the result of a heavy decline in the price of grain and a general improvement of Chicago credit. It is now tolerably clear that the "grasshopper plague" was exaggerated in the interest of Chicago speculators, staggering under the attempt to carry the grain markets of the country on their shoulders. The prospects of the cotton crop continue good, the best estimates giving a larger acreage and better condition than last year. The Erie speculation here and in London diminished the specie export for the week, which was only $1,598,112, but most of that in the latter part, when the indications were that, Erie bills having been all taken up, the outflow would again be large. Thus far this year we have exported $31,461,000 specie, about $8,000,000 more than last year, and $11,000,000 more than in 1873. The New York banks continue to gain legal-tender notes, and have now $63,371,000. Money is unwholesomely cheap. It is gratifying to know that Mr. Bristow has been able further to reduce the legal-tender circulation by $1,000,000, making a reduction of $5,000,000 since he became Secretary.

---

Two very singular incidents have taken place in Boston. A prominent trust lawyer, after a long career of usefulness, committed heavy defalcations, and disappeared. After two or three weeks he was found in a village in the Adirondacks, making arrangements for a summer's fishing, and on his way to Canada to examine some "blooded stock," after the manner of the Honorable William S. King of Minnesota. On being arrested, too, he expressed great surprise, and, like so many other accused persons of late years, declared that the stories of his troubles were a "newspaper scandal," or, in other words, that he was the victim of a "licentious press." He doubtless asks himself sorrowfully what is going to become of the country if no means can be found to check the growing meddlesomeness of the newspapers. The other affair was the murder of a little girl in a church tower, five minutes after she had left her companion's side, by the sexton. It now appears that the sexton was and is well known to the police as a man of doubtful character, who has been already suspected of complicity in a murder. It would seem from this as if the religious organizations in Boston were beginning to take lessons from "the best civil service on this planet," and were appointing persons to places of trust without any reference to character and antecedents. A sexton, it is true, does not need to be a saint, but he needs to be a man of fair reputation and of peaceable disposition.

---

Senator Anthony recently paid a visit to the South, and in giving an account of the state of things there which he did not find satisfactory, he mentioned, among the bad phenomena, the refusal of Southerners and their wives to associate with officers of the United States army and their wives. Whereupon the New York *Tribune* remarked that, unfortunate as this might be, it did not see what Senator Anthony could do about it, and insinuated that he might like to compel association by law. Mr. Anthony replies to this in his paper, the Providence *Journal*, with an amount of good sense which has of late not been common among Republican politicians, by acknowledging that there is no help for this condition of things, that there is nothing in it to legislate about, and that all talk about it is "tea-table nonsense"; that it is not an evil, but the "expression of an evil"; not a disease, but "the symptom of a disease." We wish sincerely some of his colleagues could have taken this view sooner. Two-thirds of their talk about the condition of the South has been "tea-table nonsense." Most of the Civil-Rights Bill is "tea-table nonsense." The Force Bill is mainly arrant nonsense, inasmuch as it undertakes to remedy things which do not admit of legislative remedy. The theory that people ought to be prosecuted for refusing to love you is, however, an old one. "Sois mon frère ou je te tue" was an old cry of the Jacobins, and it has to be the cry of any party which tries to carry out Sentimentalist theories by the use of brute force.

---

The loss of the *Schiller* continues to undergo a good deal of discussion in the English papers, and, as might have been expected, a good deal of attention is directed to the failure of the captain to sound as he approached the coast. Several nautical men of high standing have written letters asserting positively that if he had sounded, the character of the bottom would have given him his position within sufficient limits. One captain in the navy gainsays this by averring that reference to the chart will show that the character of soundings, even in the channel in which the *Schiller* was lost, is often the same at points twenty-five miles apart; but this simply amounts to saying that sounding in foggy weather is not as satisfactory as an observation in bright weather. That it does not give a navigator his exact position is no reason for not resorting to it at all after several days of reliance on dead-reckoning, as appears to have been the case of the *Schiller*, or as was more notably the case with the *Atlantic*, where the captain ran eight days in fog, never sounded, and went plump on shore on a calm night. The answer of the officers at the subsequent official investigation to the question why they had not sounded was "that they thought it was of no use"—or, in other words, were so stupidly sure of their position that they would not take even a small amount of trouble to ascertain it. It has been suggested in England, and very sensibly as it seems to us, that the taking of soundings under given circumstances should be made imperative by law, as well as the record of the result in the log-book, that its omission should be made a penal offence as regards the officers in case of an accident or the loss of the ship, and should, as far as the owners are concerned, be made to vitiate the insurance, and thus enforce greater care in the choice of officers. It is evident that it is in this direction, rather than in that of life-saving apparatus, that we must look for greater security at sea. In spite of all the improvements in life-boats of late years, and in life-preservers and lowering tackle, lives are hardly ever saved in a serious accident by any of them, because they all need an amount of organization, discipline, presence of mind, and powers of endurance which, in moments of supreme peril, are not to be looked for among a motley crowd.

Mr. Jenkins, the author of 'Ginx's Baby,' seems, as might have been expected, to have been completely thrown off his balance by the success of that thoughtful work and his own subsequent election to the British Parliament. He has just headed an amusing deputation of authors and writers, some known and some totally unknown, to Mr. Disraeli to demand the appointment of a Royal Commission or of a Parliamentary Committee to examine the rights and wrongs of authors, and "the incidents of literary property," whatever that may mean. The deputation complained of all sorts of things in connection with the existing law of copyright, and amongst others of the unauthorized copying by other periodicals of articles from the daily papers. Mr. Moy Thomas, of whom few persons have ever heard until now, was the principal spokesman of the deputation, while Mr. Tom Taylor revealed the wrongs of dramatists; Mr. Sala, those of journalists; and Mr. Charles Reade, those of novelists. Mr. Disraeli "put the question smiling by" by promising entire attention to their statements and grave consideration of what had best be done. Mr. Jenkins, however, as the only member of Parliament in the deputation, was not disposed to let the matter rest in this way, and asked Mr. Disraeli the same evening in the House of Commons whether he was going to issue the Commission or not, and this gentleman replied, amidst the amusement of the House, that he had not had time for deliberation during the day, and must ask for longer delay, which it is to be hoped Mr. Jenkins will give him. It is not everybody who can solve knotty social problems with as much rapidity as this "thinker."

---

The more recent advices from Europe confirm the belief that the late visit of the Emperor of Russia to Berlin, in so far as it had any political significance, was favorable to the preservation of peace, and that if there exists anything in the shape of an alliance or understanding between Germany, Russia, and Austria to-day with regard to the general politics of the Continent, as there probably does, it guarantees the existing situation; that is, while it would oppose any attempt on the part of France to recover her lost provinces, it would also oppose any attempt on the part of Germany to treat the efforts of France to restore her military strength as a *casus belli*, or to crush her utterly as a precaution against future attacks. It is not denied that some such scheme as this has found a lodgment in the brains of some of the Prussian military men, who, as a class, are perhaps now less sensible to purely political considerations, and to the feelings and necessities of civil life, than any similar body of men in the Western world; but there is no pretence that these views were shared or countenanced by any German politician properly so called. Nor is there the least sign that such an atrocious plan would have been tolerated by the rest of Europe. In such a fight as it would entail, France would certainly have the sympathy of the civilized world, and probably the material aid of more than one power.

---

In France, the "scare" has after all produced no great effects, the Government being all along aware that its relations with Germany were perfectly friendly, in form at least, and the people, in so far as they pay any attention to politics, having their thoughts turned to the approaching dissolution of the Assembly. This, it is now conceded on all sides, is close at hand. The Legitimists, who have most to fear from the dissolution, do not pretend that it can be deferred in any event beyond the spring of 1876, while everybody else looks for it by October next. Its importance to the private members may be guessed from the fact, that while this Assembly consists of 750 members, the next will only contain 500, and of course a large proportion of those now sitting have no hope of being returned under any circumstances. A good many of them are therefore naturally going to try for a seat in the Senate, which the present Assembly will probably now elect, as their last chance for public life. One of the curious incidents of French politics is to be found in the denunciation by the Ultramontane papers of a bill providing for the extension of the powers of savings-banks, on the ground that these institutions tend to destroy people's trust in Providence.

---

In the meantime, Bismarck pushes on the war against the Ultramontanes without flinching. The Pope's last letter to the German Bishops, declaring the Falk Laws null and void, has been answered by two bills, which may be said to cap the climax of this rigorous legislation. One gives the Old Catholics the use of the parish church and a share of the church property, proportioned to their numbers, whenever they may choose to form a separate religious organization. The other extinguishes the religious orders, male and female, at one blow, allowing those devoted to charitable work a respite, which must depend on good behavior, but summarily suppressing the purely spiritual and educational ones. The convents are to be shut up to keep the religious from keeping schools; and in order to prevent their carrying on the work in private families, and thus evading the law, the Government is to determine in what part of the country they are to reside, if they do not wish to leave it altogether, as they probably will. Dr. Falk made a speech in support of this bill during the debate, in which he quoted a speech of a leading Ultramontane, Herr von Buss, made at a Catholic religious gathering at Baden in 1851, just after Prussia had succumbed to Austria, in which the Ultramontane plans were foreshadowed, and in which the speaker regretted the pacific settlement of the Austro-Prussian troubles. If Radetski, he said, had forced his way to Berlin, the authority of the Pope would have been restored in Prussia, and all the Protestants of that nation brought back to the bosom of the Church. He then declared that, though this had failed, the Catholic programme must be faithfully carried out. Austria, as a Catholic power, must be strengthened and supported, and the work of propagandism in Prussia through Catholic agents vigorously carried on, so as to wrest from her finally her Catholic provinces, and to build up again the Holy Roman Empire. Dr. Falk maintains that this plan has been faithfully carried out, or would have been if the events of 1866 and 1870 had not arrested it. In 1851, there were only 1,200 monks and nuns in Prussia; there are now more than 9,000, and they have secured a large share in the work of education.

---

The Committee of Thirty of the French Assembly, the Conservative members having resigned in a huff, has been reconstructed, with a two-thirds representation of the Left—a result due, it is said, to divisions in the Conservative ranks. Of the ten Conservative members of it, six owe their places to votes of the Left, and that party in putting them in made a display of magnanimity which, under the circumstances, is something new in French politics, and, small as it is, shows considerable gain in both skill and moderation on the part of the Radicals; but the places have, it is said, been refused. However, the composition of the Committee has lost most of its importance, if not all, since the passage of the Constitutional laws. As to these, the Government has given in its adhesion to them in the fullest manner. The Minister of Justice has given notice by circular to all the judges and law officers that a permanent government has been established and that they must see that it is respected. The Minister of War has made the same announcement to the army in general orders. The Minister of Public Instruction, M. Wallon, has declared in a speech that the Assembly has simply, by its recent legislation, recognized a republic which it found already established, by force of circumstances, on the ruins of the empire. From all sides, in short, except the Bonapartists and the extreme Legitimists, there come expressions of adhesion to the new order of things, and of thankfulness that France had at last obtained a government by means of peaceful discussion. There has occurred in Paris, too, and within two months, a scene such as few Frenchmen have ever witnessed before—a peaceful and chatty interview in a drawing-room between M. Thiers, the late "chef de l'état," and Marshal MacMahon, his successor. For eighty years, the predecessor of the French chief-magistrate for the time being has usually been a refugee in a foreign country. In short, the situation looks more hopeful than ever.

## THE SOUTH AND THE CENTENNIAL.

THERE appears to be every likelihood, owing to the legislative failures of the Administration at the last session of Congress, that the Centennial year will really witness a substantial restoration of good feeling between the North and South. The first step towards this most desirable consummation was taken when Congress refused to carry out the policy of hatred and dissension which a portion of the managers of the Republican party seemed to have decided to be necessary in order to keep it in power. The speeches which they delivered during the last canvass in support of this policy would have been discreditable to their intelligence even if they had been based on carefully-collected facts; based as they were on fictions prepared in the main by the disreputable adventurers who have so largely represented the party at the South, they indicated something worse than want of intelligence. Mr. Dawes, for instance, when he was stumping for Butler last fall, can hardly have believed, as he said he did, that every negro at the South went to bed at night in expectation of having his throat cut before morning. If he had thought so, he could not have gone calmly about his business ever since, leaving so many of his fellow-citizens in this deadly peril. Nor could Mr. Boutwell have rested on his pillow at night had he really believed that we were last winter on the eve of another civil war. Even if the condition of the South had been what they represented, the remedies which some of the party chiefs proposed would have been none the less barbarous and futile. Violence is not cured by violence, nor lawlessness by illegality. The evils from which the South suffers are social diseases, which must be got rid of not by this or that quack remedy, but by the growth of civilization. But the condition of the South not being what they said it was, the country is to be still more warmly congratulated on the failure of Republican plans for its government. The defeat in Connecticut, following on the wild and inflammatory speeches of the prominent orators sent into the State, the failure of the crusade against Louisiana and of the Presidential conspiracy against Arkansas, found the South in just the state of mind to receive the frustrations of such schemes as peace-offerings. They were taken, and rightly taken, as indications that the North was weary of strife, of distrust, of suspicion, of proscription, and was willing to recur again to the old-fashioned American treatment of political diseases, and was fast reaching Burke's conclusion—so aptly quoted by Governor Chamberlain at Lexington—that "a great empire and little minds go ill together," which is simply an epigrammatic way of saying that political maladies are not to be got rid of, as small politicians sometimes suppose, in two days, by taking a blue pill; that time and patience and hopefulness and a generous faith in human nature are the remedies with which the madness or corruption of communities has to be fought; and that a generation or two of politicians has often to pass away before the recovery need be looked for.

That the recovery has set in at the South, we think there can be no question. When even Jefferson Davis preaches not only resignation or acquiescence, but cheerful adhesion to the new régime, we cannot be far wrong in supposing that the South will be ready to make its contribution to the general rejoicing next year. The importance of its contribution can hardly be overestimated. Indeed, it is safe to say that, with the South sullen, or hostile, or defiant, no efforts on the part of artists or manufacturers could have made the celebration of the anniversary anything but a hollow mockery, because with the South in this frame of mind the Union could hardly be called a success. A hundred years of independence of Great Britain is not the only or the principal thing to be rejoiced over next year. Mexico will before long have a hundred years of independence to boast of, and so will Guatemala. It is the results of independence that it is proposed to celebrate; and if the theory of the condition of the South which some of our benevolent friends at the North have been recently urging on our acceptance were correct —viz., that it was inhabited in part by ignorant and helpless Africans, and in the remainder by ferocious white robbers and assassins—the American Union would hardly be a phenomenon for civilized men to be glad over. For such a state of things the abolition of slavery even would be but a flimsy compensation; for the truth must be told that it is no great thing for a Republic which started on its career with the declaration that "all men are created equal," to succeed by the end of one hundred years in putting an end to chattel slavery within its own borders. Some of our anti-slavery friends are so dazzled with it that they can hardly see that we were called on to do more. But boasting of it at the Centennial, with the South in the condition Senator Dawes described, would be somewhat like the rejoicings of a community over the abandonment of piracy and the conversion of its population to the more peaceful pursuits of wrecking and counterfeiting. Of course, it was a great achievement, measured either by its difficulty or by its results, but it was an achievement rather to be rejoiced over at home than exhibited for the admiration of the world, just as a family might very well celebrate privately the reclamation of a drunken or reprobate son, but could hardly call in the neighbors to share in the festivity.

If the Centennial had come five or even three years sooner, it could probably hardly have been made the occasion of this restoration of harmony and this revival of common hopes and memories. The war was still too near, the South still too unused to the new situation, and the North too ignorant of the exact nature of the problem before it, for either to have frankly resolved to let bygones be bygones. As matters stand, if our internal politics had been shaped deliberately, during the past two or three years, in preparation for the Centennial, the work could not have been better done. Everything has apparently fallen out for the best. Even Hester, and Spencer, and Pinchback, and Kellogg, and Parker, and Moses have all contributed their share to the good work, and ought to have a place in the Exhibition as benefactors of the Union.

There is one other reason for rejoicing over the probable restoration of a community of thought and feeling between North and South, which probably many good people at the North will have some difficulty in appreciating, and which it is a little difficult perhaps to explain at the close of an article; but we shall come near an explanation of it when we say that the readmission to our politics of an element which has not taken part in the "advanced thinking" and general rage for social and political experimentation of the last twenty years, will be a great gain for the whole country. The dogged Southern conservatism of the last twenty years was, it is true, due to a bad motive, but it has left behind a temper of considerable political value, which may now serve us all in good stead. Incredulity about the possibility of enormous social improvement through legislation is by itself an evil; but mixed with so much faith in legislation as has crept into Northern politics, it produces one of the main conditions of good government. Nearly all the real representatives of the South, belonging to the more enlightened class, are men who, either by temperament or training, are not only hostile to experiment, but have a strong faith in the traditions of Anglo-Saxon politics. Such men will have their use for many years to come, none the less because there are already numerous signs of the general subsidence of the spirit of vague political aspiration at the North, and of a decided growth of sobriety. All the recently made constitutions recognize, in a tolerably marked way, the difficulty there is in changing human nature rapidly, and the persistence of certain weaknesses in it which earlier legislators perceived and provided for about as well as is possible, as we now begin to see.

## SOME PLAIN TRUTHS ABOUT THE SCANDAL.

THE appearance in the New York *Times* of a full-page "statement" from a son of Mr. Henry C. Bowen with regard to his father's connection with the Brooklyn scandal, coupled with the evident determination of some of the newspapers not to be concluded by the verdict in the case now pending before Judge Neilson, seems to threaten us with what may be called a long appendix to the main charge against Mr. Beecher, in the shape of a body of

very minute, vulgar, and disgusting addenda concerning such portions of his life and manners, and those of his interesting flock, as have not been fully revealed to the long-suffering public. The *Tribune* having carried off the honor of most fully reporting the trial, the *Times* and, we dare say, plenty of other papers are thirsting for the honor of showing, by additional particulars of their own collection, that the whole case was not brought out in court, and that everybody who wanted to know "the true truth," as the French say, would do well to listen to their enterprising and veracious reporters.

Our readers know that we have refrained carefully ever since the case came before the jury from any comment or allusion to it which would betray a leaning either to one side or the other. Whatever we have said about it has been said by way of protest against an appearance of shirking, evasion, or suppression. We have urged in the public interest that the enquiry should be full, that the defence should not be technical, and we are bound to say that, on the whole, the public has not had much to complain of. Evidence has been admitted pretty freely and, our lawyers might and do say, loosely. If the jury cannot make up their minds, it will not be for want of material for the formation of a judgment. As to what their verdict ought to be, we have no more intention of expressing an opinion now than we had a month ago. We have not changed our minds as to the propriety of supplementing the discussion in court by discussion in the newspapers, and we shall reserve what we have to say on the main question until the jury have either agreed or disagreed. We refer to the case now for the purpose of bringing to the notice of all persons who may still be of opinion that they can promote their interests, or satisfy their hates, or feed their passion for notoriety, by fresh contributions to the odious literature of this scandal, the fact (which those most immediately connected with it may not have perceived) that a considerable change has taken place in the public mind with regard to it. They must not, for instance, presume any longer on the popular curiosity which caused the earlier "statements" to be so eagerly read, and which caused their charges and countercharges to be weighed in every household in the country with an anxiety which it is no exaggeration to call painful. *That* has unquestionably died out. There is, no doubt, still an appetite for fresh details, and if Mr. Bowen takes it into his head to supply them, undoubtedly he will find readers in abundance for the kitchen gossip about his wretched quarrels with his pastor and fellow-Christians of which his son gave us a specimen the other day; but it is the appetite to which the *Police Gazette* and the *Sunday Mercury* pander. What we mean to say is, that the desire to hear about the relations of the pastor and brethren of Plymouth Church to each other which marked the earlier stages of this painful investigation, has disappeared amongst all that portion of the American public whose opinion is of any consequence, or which can make or mar the reputation of any man or body of men.

The reason of this change, as we see it, we shall give frankly. It is that the Henry Ward Beecher who is now fighting Tilton in the Brooklyn court-room, and over whose doings Mr. Evarts and Judge Porter are so eloquent and ingenious, is not any longer the Henry Ward Beecher whom Tilton assailed last summer, to the horror and astonishment of so many millions. He may be still pure and pious and much belied, but he is unquestionably not the same man in the eyes of the American people. It is due to them to say this. A decent regard for their public and private reputation requires it to be said. They would not, we venture to affirm, have greatly cared last August whether the Henry Ward Beecher revealed by the evidence on the trial had or had not "invaded the home" of Theodore Tilton, as that has been described on the trial, or how all the Brooklyn busybodies lied to each other, and gossiped about each other, if they had known them all then as they know them now. The person over whose sins that great wave of excitement passed through the country, we now find, did not exist when Tilton began his lamentations. We all thought of Henry Ward Beecher not only as a good man, but as a man of almost unequalled sagacity and experience in dealing with the problems of life, and to whom concealment, or prevarication, or the suggestion to others of things that were not true, or association with men whom he could not respect, would have been abhorrent. We now know, on his own confession, that we were greatly mistaken about him; that his experience of life has brought him little wisdom; that he faced a parcel of conspirators and extortioners with as much cowardice and subterfuge as if he were a silly boy; that he consented to be their partners in a game of concealment which involved falsehood in some degree and in some form at almost every step; that he remained on friendly and even affectionate terms with them after he was satisfied that they were guilty of the lowest baseness; that he had so little sense or discretion as to flatter a silly, uneducated woman into an unlawful passion for him, and had not the moral strength, when he discovered it, to tell her that she was a fool, and he himself another, and that she had better find some other vent for her unholy worship. We are now telling the story as he tells it, and not as his enemies tell it, and we are not adding anything to its coloring. We know, too, that the religious community he has trained up in the five-and-twenty years of his pastorate is not marked by either Christian grace or simplicity; that it somehow has become in a remarkable degree a refuge for the unregenerate; and that its members, when produced in a court of justice, have given to the world a display of perjury which would have shocked the members of the Sicilian *mafia*.

These are hard things to say publicly, but they are things which the best men and women in the country are saying privately, and with great sorrow and disappointment. They are sick of the proceedings in Brooklyn, and have, in their disgust with the state of society which these proceedings reveal, lost all or nearly all their interest in the original question of Mr. Beecher's guilt. *That* the jury may decide pretty much as they please; and, no matter which way they decide it, the place the defendant once held in popular estimation will not be filled again by him. The verdict cannot re-establish him, because he is not the man against whom the public thought the charge was brought; nor do they in truth take any comfort in the theory of a conspiracy against Mr. Beecher which Mr. Tracy set forth so vigorously at the opening of the trial, even if it has been made out, because they cannot shut their eyes to the fact that, if conspiracy there was, Mr. Beecher himself was one of the conspirators. He aided in getting it up and carrying it out, and supplied whatever papers and declarations were necessary. The conspirators needed either to overpower their victim or impose on the public. Indeed, there is to our minds only one more sorrowful hypothesis than this one, and none which makes a more complete wreck of the peculiar kind of reputation Mr. Beecher once had.

Nor can they say to themselves that this was, after all, but the momentary weakness of a brave man at the close of a long and useful career, and find compensation for it in contemplating the results of his labors in the religious culture of his congregation; for assuredly the appearances of the members in this case have not furnished any very strong testimony under this head. Indeed, some of his own definitions and illustrations of "Christian character" in the court-room have been listened to by the community not only with surprise, but with indignation. Of one of the ways in which "Christian character" grows, he offered, while on the stand, Mrs. Tilton as an illustration, just after he had been telling the shameful story of her falsehood and treachery—telling that she had lied with deliberation and circumstance, for one of the basest purposes a woman could entertain. If Mr. Beecher thinks such a person a fair product of Christian culture, there are few who will not rejoice in the reflection that the scandal has destroyed his influence.

## THE TWO AMPÈRES.

PARIS, May 7, 1875.

IT is long since I have read a more interesting book than the two volumes of correspondence, just published, of the two Ampères—André-Marie the father, and Jean-Jacques his son. This correspondence extends from

the year 1805 to the year 1864. Ampère the father is better known to men of science; he made discoveries in the physical sciences which will render his name immortal. He found by instinct the relations between the electric and the magnetic forces, and verified the intuition of his genius by direct experiment. This is enough to place him among such men as Newton and Fresnel and Faraday. The correspondence shows him at the same time to have been the best of men, with the candor of a child, utterly devoid of selfishness, always forgetting the *moi* (which, says Pascal, is hateful), full of enthusiasm for every noble cause, devoted not only to science, but to his son, to his friends, very religious in the best sense of the word. He was very poor, and struggled through the greatest difficulties. It is hard to see a man like him, a soul open to every greatness, constantly borne down by the drudgery of life. Still, we will not pity him too much; for he was blessed with what must be to a man of heart the greatest blessing on earth —a tender and good son, of whom he could be proud. Ampère the son enjoyed in his time more popularity than his father, for he was a literary man and a man of the world; he reaped from his youth the advantages of a good name; the eternal rule, "sic vos non nobis," threw him at once into the most refined society in the world, and even if he had been a man of moderate talent his position would have been enjoyable. But he was himself far above the common level of men; he seems to have been able to imbibe every sort of knowledge, he understood all the sciences, he knew every language, he tried his hand at poetry, he wrote historical works. Indeed, this very facility was his great defect; he was a receiver, not a creator; his works of imagination are very deficient, while those in which his descriptive faculties are used, as well as his encyclopædic knowledge, can still be read with much profit and amusement. He travelled in almost every part of the world, and his impressions were always fresh and interesting. He stayed so long in Rome that he became almost an Italian, and his 'Roman History in Rome' is full of the most valuable knowledge. Still, I doubt if his fame as a writer will live long. There is a certain weakness in all his productions; he wrote too much as people speak, and he was perhaps the best talker of his time; but there is in his literary work something as evanescent as there is in a conversation. I enjoyed his personal acquaintance for many years, but I could see him but rarely, as he had taken a great dislike to Paris after the *coup d'état*, and spent most of his time in Rome and in Italy. His conversation was the best I ever heard—he was what the French call a *causeur;* he allowed, however, others to speak and to suggest new subjects. His wit was not that of many English famous talkers, who tell what are called "stories." Do you know the story about so-and-so?—this way of introducing a *bon-mot* has always seemed to me a little awkward. In dining with a celebrated English wit, it always seemed to me that I saw his "stories" come from too great a distance. The best were always prepared for the end of the dinner. "I hear you coming with your big wooden shoes" is a proverbial French phrase, addressed to people who introduce a subject too clumsily.

Ampère's wit was of a more volatile kind; his *esprit* had a natural flow, it was not cut up in slices; his stories, anecdotes, and *bons-mots* came naturally, without introduction, brought on, as it were, by the torrent of the conversation. He was almost unconscious of his *esprit;* he never tried to be more brilliant at one time than at another. He was extremely learned on a number of points, had an excellent memory, and to these advantages he joined the inestimable merit of having frequented intimately the best society which had survived the French Revolution. The history of his relations with the famous Madame Récamier throws much light on a time which seems already very distant; he was presented to her by Ballanche, his compatriot, in 1820. Madame Récamier was already forty-four years old, having been born in Lyons in 1777. Ampère was a very young man, but Madame Récamier, who had known his father and his family, received him with much kindness. He fell under the charm of the celebrated beauty, who from her youth to her death was always surrounded with adorers, and who gently turned all her lovers into friends—the best of friends herself, a type of purity, of chaste coquetry, and of loveliness. She was married at an early age to a rich banker, who was like a father to her, and she lost in after-life the great fortune which he had brought her. She retired to the Abbaye aux Bois, which is a convent in the Rue de Sèvres, where some apartments were let out. There are no woods any longer in that part of Paris, but it still preserves a quiet and provincial air—that is to say, it did a few years ago. Madame Récamier never went out into the world, but she received every day a chosen number of friends, and it was a great distinction to be admitted to this *cœnaculum*. Young Ampère of course fell in love with the charming woman who looked like one of the Madonnas of Raphael; who gave him the best of advice, helped him in his career, made him acquainted with the most distinguished people of the time. He soon became one of the happy few who always had a place ready for them at the Abbaye aux Bois. He brought her all the literary news of the day and the echo of the enthusiasm which had seized the younger generation under the Restoration. You will see by this extract what his state of mind was in 1821: "My will, Madam, no longer belongs to myself; I have abandoned it wholly to you. I will not claim it back, it is only too delightful for me to feel that something in my destiny can be decided by yourself and to look upon you as my providence." And again: "The more I know you, the more I love you; and the more I love you, the more do I feel the need to do so. My books, my projects, my successes, my annoyances, all are yours; you inspire and console and better me. I live by you."

The principal guest of the Abbaye aux Bois was at first Mathieu de Montmorency, who was Minister of Foreign Affairs till the Congress of Verona. His successor at the Foreign Office was Châteaubriand. The political differences of these two men became one of the troubles of Madame Récamier. Châteaubriand was very irritable and proud, and by degrees he became, I will not say the tyrant of the Abbaye aux Bois, but the gentle nature of Madame Récamier gave way to him. Young Ampère could not help being jealous of the author of 'Atala' and 'René,' for whom Madame Récamier exhausted all the resources of friendship. But how could Madame Récamier, who was no longer very young, be led away by the juvenile ambition of Ampère? She loved and respected in Châteaubriand a man of genius, the man who had dared to resist Napoleon after the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien, who was surrounded by the halo of glory and of misfortune. Driven away from France by the Revolution, he had fought with the *émigrés*, had travelled in America, on the Mississippi; he had known the most dreadful misery in London; and now he was the first orator in the House of Peers, and his haughty language was a match for Canning. Madame Récamier never fell in love during her long life; but if there was one man who ever had a complete empire over her soul, it was Châteaubriand. Ampère had therefore to content himself with holding only a secondary place in the circle of the Abbaye aux Bois. He accepted this rôle, and remained attached to his idol to the end of her life. He once offered to marry her, but she refused him, as she refused Châteaubriand himself, after his wife had died.

In 1823, Madame Récamier goes to Italy; Ampère goes with her and the faithful Ballanche. The correspondence seems to show that at that time the handsome Juliette (she was better known under that name in her circle) was flying from Châteaubriand, who had become too pressing and too dangerous. They stop in all the great cities, visiting the museums together. Madame de Récamier in Rome lived on the Piazza di Spagna, in the company of the Duc de Laval-Montmorency, the painters of the French Academy, Guérin, Schnetz, Léopold Robert. "This journey," wrote Ampère to his father, "will influence my whole life." He became enamored of Rome; he felt very keenly the poetry of its ruins, its solitary grandeur, the elegance and majesty of the country which surrounds it. "The two monuments which strike me most are Saint Peter and the Colosseum. . . . It is something unique this dome always visible, which is seen seven leagues from the city, before you see the city itself; it is the complement of everything in Rome, like the sun in the sky." "The Colosseum is a world of ruins; all the accidents which can be produced by light, vegetation, time, are there." This enthusiasm has been felt by almost everybody in Rome. After the first great impressions came the study of every detail, the first preparation for that book which became really the book of his life, 'Roman History in Rome.'

While the travellers visited Naples, Pompeii, Ampère the father was made professor at the Collége de France. He was already professor at the Polytechnic School. He announces the good news to his son, and tells him that it has been spoiled for him by the announcement made to him by his sister (who kept his house) that he is in debt to the amount of four thousand francs. He had spent too much money in instruments, in experiments. It is painful to think of such a man struggling with such difficulties. Ampère, on his return from Italy, kept house himself for his father, but he was no better fitted than his father for such work. He used to go himself to get the wine in the cellar. These details are not unimportant, as they show how much simplicity there remained in the life of such men as the friends of Madame Récamier, who daily associated in her house with foreign princes, ambassadors, etc. This plain, patriarchal, domestic view of life is not at all incompatible with the highest culture. The worship of money and the habits of luxury of our time were unknown to the families who had lived through the hard times of the Revolution and the Empire. Even now there is much simplicity in French life. The relations of servants and masters are not as friendly as they were in old times, but it is the fault of the servants as much as of the masters.

Ampère had left Madame Récamier in Italy; he writes to her from Paris despairing letters, urging her to return; he cannot live without her; he feels that his life has no object; he works without a purpose. Her answers are not given in the volume published. Judging from the letters of hers I have seen, they must have had the effect of a quiet, soft rain on parched grass. Every time she has written a line he seems a little less uneasy. At last, she comes back; but it is a settled thing he can, he ought to expect nothing from her but a devoted friendship. It is extraordinary to find a woman inspire such passion in the autumn of her life; but Châteaubriand was even more enraptured than Ampère, and the Duc de Laval said once, speaking of Madame Récamier: "Ils n'en mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés"—a citation from one of La Fontaine's fables. It seems to have been the destiny of Ampère to be the shadow of some adored person whom he could not call his own. When Madame Récamier was dead, he thought for awhile that all was over with him; but after some years he contracted a second moral marriage, if I may so express myself. He became the intimate friend of a young lady who was obliged to spend her winters in Italy, as she was attacked with consumption. This lady had not the beauty of Madame Récamier, but she was agreeable, very refined, and her immense fortune allowed her to be a patron of art in Rome. Ampère spent a few years with her, together with her mother and father, who lived in the hope of rescuing the health of an adored daughter. He became, so to speak, a member of the family. It was at this period that he composed his last great work on Rome, and his 'Cæsar.' He was becoming old; he returned only from time to time to France; he had given his chair in the Collége de France to his friend, M. de Loménie. When Madame G—— died, he remained with her family; and when he died himself, he left to the mother and father of Madame G—— all his manuscripts and notes. The two volumes now published have been edited by Madame C——, the mother of Madame G——. They will be found interesting by all students of modern French literature. They also throw much light on the best side of French society. They will not much improve the reputation of Ampère: his literary life was, on the whole, a failure; he was always attached to a phantom in the world of ideas, as in the world of men.

# Correspondence.

## LIFE INSURANCE COMMISSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like a few words in reply to Prof. Newcomb's letter in the *Nation* of May 27. His percentage of commissions to premium receipts is altogether too high, the average being a trifle over six per cent., instead of ten per cent. as the Professor puts it, and the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York even figuring commissions down to two per cent. of the premium. This average percentage might be materially lessened by the older companies undoubtedly if they were content to stop procuring new business, or were only to take such as came to them unsolicited. But if the Mutual Life were to close up its agencies to-morrow it would cost much more than the two per cent. it now does to collect its premiums. An agent may, and often does, collect premiums for much less than it actually costs him, because it brings him into contact with other persons who may become policy-holders, and also gives him the opportunity to urge an increase of insurance already effected.

I had occasion years ago, as an agent and later as an editor, to look into this matter of agents' commissions, and I have been unable to find a similar business in this country where this expense is so small as it is in life insurance. In fire insurance, which is comparatively unsolicited, the agents' commissions are more than double those in life insurance. The Connecticut Report, which lies before me, gives the commissions to premium receipts of over one hundred of the best-managed companies in the country at 15.31 per cent. These are all stock companies, managed in the interests of their shareholders, and it is fair to assume that their business is as economically conducted as it can be.

As to the comparison of the English companies with our own in point of expense, it is very much like comparing the expense of a steam-engine standing still with that of the same engine at full speed, and arguing in favor of the economy of the former condition. The old English companies are at a standstill or rusting out, ours are growing. American life insurance need not fear any fair comparison with the business in England or elsewhere. It has made better returns to the insured than have been made in England or France or Germany. As I have reviewed Prof. Newcomb's paper elsewhere, and do not desire to weary the readers of the *Nation* with this discussion, permit me to conclude by saying that, having been both agent and editor, I know how much easier it is to criticise the agent than to do his work.—Respectfully yours,

H. R. Hayden,
Editor *Insurance Journal*.

Hartford, Ct., May 29, 1875.

## A STRUGGLING "INFANT INDUSTRY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to use your columns to call the attention of the citizens of our common country to the wrong perpetrated upon us by the Congress of the United States. We refer to their iniquitous action in passing a bill to admit *bolognas* free of duty.

We have always been in favor of free trade *as a theory*, but this act strikes such a vital blow at one of our most essential and struggling infant industries, that we feel that when it is thoroughly ventilated there will be such a howl of indignation that the bill will be repealed. What is to become of the vast amounts of capital and labor employed in making the machines for cutting and stuffing bolognas if we cannot have protection against the unprincipled competition of the hordes of starving German artisans? Who will buy the wheat of the farmer or the iron of the miner unless we can make the draw-cut butchers' machines, and sell for what profit we please? For if foreign-chopped bolognas flood our markets, our shops must be closed, and we and our poor handful of dependent artisans and their interesting wives and children must starve. Up to this time, from here in the heart of the country, we have sent our machines to Germany and other foreign countries, thus relieving the balance of trade and the flow of American gold abroad.

But I have written enough; a hundred such arguments will occur to patriotic editors and citizens why this bill *must be repealed*.—Truly yours,

S. R. Bartlett, Sup't.

Murray Iron-works, Burlington, Iowa, May 22, 1875.

# Notes.

Centennial literature continues to multiply itself. Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s 'Address at the Centennial Anniversary of the Meeting of the Provincial Assembly in Salem, Oct. 5, 1774,' has been published in elegant style by the Essex Institute. It is a very clear and graphic narrative of the events which led to the meeting of the Assembly, and of those which immediately succeeded it. A natural sequel to it is the Rev. Grindall Reynolds's article on the "Concord Fight," reprinted from the *Unitarian Review* and published in pamphlet form by A. Williams & Co., Boston.——The sale of the remarkable library of Mr. Thomas W. Field occupied five days last week, and the sum realized (between $13,000 and $14,000) is so far below the worth of the collection as to be one of the best evidences of the straitness of the times. There is some consolation in low prices for humble collectors and libraries, and we hope this reflection may not be without its comfort to Mr. Field. We may look for a review of the sale from Mr. Sabin (under whose auspices it was conducted) in the next *Bibliopolist*. The catalogue is well worth owning; it appears to be more accurately printed than the 'Essay towards an Indian Bibliography,' from which most of the titles are reproduced.——Bernard Quaritch, Piccadilly, London, invites subscriptions to the third and revised edition of 'Pugin's Glossary of Ecclesiastical Ornament and Costume' (1 vol. imperial 4to), at £5. It will contain seventy-four illuminated plates, and be bound in half-morocco ——'Frondes Agrestes' (readings from Ruskin's 'Modern Painters' selected by a lady among the author's friends) will be published by John Wiley & Son.——D. Van Nostrand announces a 'Practical Treatise on Roads, Streets, and Improvements,' by Gen. Q. A. Gillmore.——'At Capri,' by Carl Detlef, a story of Italian life, is in the press of Porter & Coates.——Roberts Bros. announce, for July, Jean Ingelow's 'Fated to be Free,' a sequel to 'Off the Skelligs.'

—We have received from Mr. John K. Tiffany, of St. Louis, a copy of his privately printed 'Philatelical Library: a Catalogue of Stamp Publications.' He has, as he states, been an ardent stamp collector for fifteen years, and owns most of the works he here catalogues. These number, in the first part, 539 titles, the American taking the lead with 211, the English coming next with 180, the Germans third with 102, and the rest being French,

Dutch, Italian, Spanish, and Danish. In Part II.—price lists—some Russian also are mentioned. Part III. is perhaps the most valuable of all, embracing mention of articles, etc., on stamp collecting, the history of stamps, of postal reform, and of the Post-office itself; and lists of postal periodicals and guides, of postage-stamp games, postage-stamp music (!), and postage-stamp photographs. The first title under this last head is: "Our Bleeding Country's Infernal Revenue Stamps." No less than five published manuals relate to the forgery of stamps, some idea of the extent of which may be gathered from title No. 367: ". . . . descriptions of nearly 700 forgeries, exclusive of essays and chemically changed stamps." The 'Philatelical Library' is printed in their best manner by John Wilson & Son, and is a handsome monument of the compiler's industry and painstaking.

—Some one (we do not quite make out whether it is a man or woman) writes with an easy familiarity on "Concord Books" in the June *Harper's*. The article is biographical as well as bibliographical, and the homes and faces of Concord's literary magnates are freely illustrated by the engraver, whose portraiture is fairly good. Thoreau's, however, is faithful rather to his youth than to his grisly latter years. Least known of all the writers mentioned is John A. Stone, who about 1828 composed the play of "Metamora," which furnished Forrest with a celebrated rôle, he paying five hundred dollars for it, as he afterwards did twice that sum for a second drama by the same author, called "The Ancient Briton." Hawthorne's first romance of "Fanshawe" appeared in 1832, and after that the town began to make its mark in literature, and has not yet left off doing so. Another of the half-dozen illustrated papers which make this number of the magazine peculiarly attractive is one on "Cape Cod, Nantucket, and the Vineyard." It is in Mr. Nordhoff's best vein, and is partly the product of personal observation, partly of some judicious pickings from local histories. Martha's Vineyard is barely mentioned, but of Provincetown and Nantucket we learn much that is worth knowing. These barren spots were once covered with a flourishing vegetation, and when the Pilgrims landed in Cape Cod Harbor, November 11, 1620, they found the present site of Provincetown "covered with large oak and walnut trees, which were used for ship timber and lumber, and pine-trees, which were tapped for turpentine." The colonists too late discovered the consequences of their reckless destruction of this bulwark against shifting sands and encroaching waves. Of the black-fish, often caught in the harbor, Mr. Nordhoff says that a singularly limpid oil is drawn from their jaw-bones, "which is used by watchmakers all over the world to oil the works of watches." Yet the total consumption is "only about two hundred gallons yearly, most of which is produced, or, more correctly, saved on Cape Cod." Provincetown "has a considerable population of Portuguese, who follow the water for a living, and give a foreign air to the town." The first of a series of articles on the "Wit and Wisdom of the Haytians," by Mr. John Bigelow, shares the common failing of collections of proverbs where an attempt is made to avoid a mere catalogue. It is rather needlessly explanatory, and rather solemnly didactic, but there are many apt comparisons of the proverbs of other countries with those of Hayti. None of the latter thus far cited by Mr. Bigelow seems racier than the "Pravette pas jamain gagné raison devant poule"—the cockroach is always wrong when it argues with the chicken. A parallel sentiment Mr. Bigelow finds in the wolf and lamb of Æsop; another, equally classical, is that of the Roman who would not discuss with the master of forty legions.

—In the *Galaxy* for June we have found Dr. T. M. Coan and Mr. R. G. White to be the most readable contributors. The latter, who seems to have lately undertaken the double task of instructing the public in the science of music and of demonstrating to them at the same time that music is an art and not a science, writes in this number an article reviewing Mr. Sedley Taylor's interesting treatise on harmony, which we see has been republished by the Appletons, and a book called 'What is Music?' by Isaac L. Rice, published by the same house. Dr. Coan, in his "complaint of printing," discusses, in a vein which is a little too like the satire of Matthew Arnold to be mistaken for him, a very old subject, the abuses of free printing. It is a dangerous vein to write in, for the manner consists in saying nothing positively of what you undertake to discuss, but of throwing out many evident and extremely pointed hints as to the direction in which you would dogmatize, if you ever should be so brutal and philistine as to dogmatize at all. Irony is, however, not merely a dangerous figure, but to be successful needs a good deal of force behind it in the way of moral indignation or contempt, and it is perhaps in this motive-power that Dr. Coan is lacking. We must confess that when we hear a new essayist beginning to write upon the well-worn theme of the press and its abuses, we have a longing to ask him the extremely vulgar question, "What are you going to do about it?" The press is not a beautiful institution altogether, and it no doubt has talked a great deal of nonsense about itself, has exalted and puffed itself up; though even its own self-laudation could, we believe, be easily matched by what has been said of it by admirers who hoped for its support in politics, in the church, or at the bar. But, in any case, there it is. For some reason or other, the modern world must have its newspaper, and so long as this remains true will the editor continue to have editorial columns, to talk to his audience, to exhort, denounce, praise, and blow his journalistic horn. The only thing that can be done with it is to improve it, and to complain of its existence is very much like complaining of the sewing-machine because sewing-women are sometimes swindled, or of railroads because they carry a howling locomotive through picturesque solitudes. However, we sympathize entirely with Dr. Coan in the main drift of his remarks, which is, that the importance of the press has been very much overestimated; that, in fact, there has been a sort of general conspiracy to make us believe in a salvation by journalism, when it must always be an absurdity to suppose that the world is going to be very much changed for the better or the worse by the fact that everybody can, if he pleases, and can find the money, keep a printing-press going.

—It is well enough known that portraits called life-size are not really of life-size nor anything like it; artists are commonly satisfied to explain their use of such a scale in portraiture by saying that it is a conventionalism. But Mr. Hamerton, in the May *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton), remarks that the question is exceedingly embarrassing to him. A life-size piece of statuary, he says, he understands to be really such when it measures identically with the proportions of a man; but he tells how, when he was shown a painted portrait which measured similarly with its model, he said and maintained that it was larger than life. The picture-frame may be conceived, he thinks, to represent a frame of plate-glass, upon which an artist has traced the man's head on the scale it would appear to have if set conveniently behind the glass. Now, it is true that this tracing would be in much-diminished perspective as compared with the aperture and width of the picture-frame, if we imagine frame, model, artist, and spectator to be all within arm's length of each other. But suppose the frame is hung where the owner is going to hang it, at some height over the chimney-ornaments, then the imaginary distance of the head behind the frame, by the removal of the whole apparatus of frame and head, would seem to be less, and the perspective not so precipitate; and are we to conceive that the subject himself, looking through his frame as through a window, with his face at its level, would be larger than life? At any rate, Mr. Hamerton, as at present advised, appears to consider that his host's sculptured head, if done to measure, is life-size; but that his host's painted head, if done to measure, is gigantic. Perhaps he will some day succeed in disembarrassing himself, and will tell us the steps of that process; and meantime, we may try to be content with the artist's usual explanation of conventionality. In concluding his article, the critic adroitly points out that if we could look at the moon as we do at objects from a tower, at a distance of 240,000 miles beneath us, we should be much surprised at its apparent smallness. In the same *Portfolio* Mr. Hamerton describes the etchings of M. Lalauze, in a series called "Le Petit Monde," and gives a specimen. The other etching in the number is by Mr. Wise, after Landseer's very-well-known work called the "Sleeping Bloodhound," which it appears is not really sleeping but dead, being a portrait of Mr. Jacob Bell's dog "Countess," after she had killed herself by falling over a balustrade at Wandsworth.

—The discovery of an unsuspected man of genius is always an interesting event, and nowhere perhaps could such an event excite a higher relish than in the æsthetic city of Boston. Many people just now in the New England capital are talking of Mr. Frank Duveneck, and incidentally of Velasquez. Mr. Duveneck is a young painter of great promise, a native (we believe) of Cincinnati, where he is now living, and lately a student of the Munich Art-School. A specimen of his work, not long since, found its way to Boston, and excited extreme interest. He was invited to make himself better known, and he accordingly sent five pictures to the exhibition now open at the rooms of the Boston Art-Club, where we have lately seen them. They are all portraits, and they have strongly confirmed the high opinion formed of the young artist's talent. It is a talent of an interesting order, and though as yet in an immature phase, it is full of vigorous promise. Mr. Duveneck is a painter of the rigidly natural school; unadorned reality is as yet his exclusive theme. These five portraits are indeed singularly real and natural. They are all male portraits—one at least is a head of a

baby, whose sex is not apparent—and they are also thoroughly masculine in execution. Mr. Duveneck's models happen to have been very ill-favored persons, and he has reproduced them without a hint of compromise or arrangement. The most important picture is a full-length of an old man seated, with his hat on, in a sort of Shaker arm-chair, dressed in plain, ill-made dark clothes; another is a half-length of a rather "seedy" young man in a black slouched hat, holding the stump of a cigar; a third is a full-face of a German professor, of an extraordinarily characteristic type. There are no accessories; the handling is of the broadest and freest kind; the color ranges through only two or three variations of black or gray; but the relief, the vigor, the frankness, the comprehensive simplicity, are most striking. Mr. Duveneck, on the exhibition of these works, was, we believe, invited to come to Boston, where a dozen immediate orders for portraits were assured him. After reflection, he declined the invitation, and decided that before producing on this large scale he needed to fortify his foundations. He is now about to return to Europe. This, doubtless, is the wisest course, and it would be a serious pity that he should adopt any but the wisest. We confess that, as things stand with us at present, almost any young artist of promise is likely to do better out of America than in it. We are fatally prone, in such cases, to use the superlative degree when the comparative is abundantly adequate, and to force second-rate power, even against its conscience, into attempting tasks of first-rate magnitude. But wherever Mr. Duveneck may establish himself, we wish him all prosperity. We should be very sorry to fall into the vice we deprecate, and begin to talk out of season in superlatives; but we repeat that these five portraits are, in quality, of signal interest. They lack, certainly, a dozen things—most of which the painter is probably quite conscious of; but they possess the great, the all-important quality—the air of the artist's having the temperament, the natural instinct, of his business; of the whole man infusing himself, without a scruple, into his effort. This is what makes (after years of labor) the work that is supreme in its kind. We learn with pleasure that it is proposed to bring these pictures to New York, and place them temporarily on exhibition. We hope, for the sake of every one concerned, that they will encounter perfectly adequate appreciation, but that it will be remembered that Mr. Duveneck is very young, and that if we praise him too lavishly now we shall have nothing left to say about him twenty years hence.

—Professor James D. Butler writes us from Madison, Wis., as follows: "The London *Academy*, of April 17, in the section of Notes and News, falls into a blunder which deserves exposure, or at least correction. Concerning the prostrate needle of Cleopatra, we there read thus:

"'The different estimates given of its weight are curiously divergent, varying from 700 tons downwards. *The actual weight of the column must be between eighty and ninety tons;* it is sixty-six feet high, seven feet seven inches at the base, cut out of one block of granite.'

Now it seems clearly demonstrated that this mass cannot weigh less than two hundred tons. Every one who has seen an Egyptian obelisk, even in photograph, knows that it tapers very slightly. The obelisk of Luxor, at Paris, according to Galignani, from a base of ninety inches square falls off only to sixty-four inches on a side. The Alexandrian obelisk may be presumed to diminish in the same proportion, like all the thirty-one others of Egyptian origin now erect and engraved by Bonomi in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature. If this be so, the Alexandrian obelisk has a width at top of 64.711 inches, its mean size is 77.855 inches square, which is 43.4812 feet, and being 66 feet long its solid content is 2891.75 cubic feet, or 239.78 tons. I am not ignorant that the normal apex of an obelisk is a pyramidion which grows sharp suddenly. But the fallen needle is five feet shorter than its erect sister. Possibly, this difference results from its pyramidion being broken off, as that at Paris is in part. But suppose the Alexandrian pyramidion to remain intact, it hardly extends further from the apex than the width of the base. If such is its size, the cubic feet below the pyramidion will be 2525.53, weighing 209.4 tons. The pyramidion is also a part of the same monolith. Its content is 73.50 cubic feet, and its weight 6 tons. Accordingly, the data furnished by Galignani and the *Academy* require us to believe the weight of the 'needle' to be at least 215 tons, or nearly three times as much as is stated in the *Academy*. The material of the monument in question is red Egyptian granite, which, on the authority of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' I have reckoned to weigh 165.875 per cubic foot."

—The vitality of the population of France as compared with that of the Prussian people has been made the subject of a statistical sketch by Freiherr von Firks (Berlin, 1875). According to this writer, the census of 1861 gave 18,491,220 inhabitants to Prussia, and to France (not yet stripped of her Rhine Provinces) 37,472,732; that of 1867, 19,671,841 to the former, and 38,284,470. In the interval, therefore, Prussia had increased her population by 6.99 per cent., France only by 2.37 per cent. In 1869, Prussia, having extended her territory, counted 24,325,405 souls; France, 38,469,282. During the eleven years 1860–1871, Prussia showed on an average 39.762 births (including still-births) to every thousand inhabitants; France, 27.480. More infants proportionally were still-born in France than in Prussia; and though French marriages are more frequent (by three to four per cent.), the ratio of living births to marriages is inferior by one to two per cent. What is specially noteworthy is that in Alsace-Lorraine this ratio of births to marriages, while it falls below the Prussian, exceeds that of France, thus furnishing a measure of the loss sustained by the latter country in reproductive energy. On the average, the excess of births over deaths in Prussia (1861–69) was nearly 12 per thousand; in France, little more than 3. Herr Firks also sets forth the marked extension of clerical instruction in France in connection with some suggestive statistics of illiteracy among the army recruits. In the matter of *analfabeti*, however, France has still something to boast of in comparison with the country which invented the term. If twenty-four Frenchmen in a hundred from 6 to 20 years of age, and thirty-one in a hundred from 6 upwards, do not know how to read, there are, according to the latest official census-reports, sixty-seven and sixty-eight Italians in the same classes respectively who have no use for the alphabet.

—Three numbers of Dr. Martin Waldeck's monthly journal of current politics, *Die Zeitgeschichte*, are now before us, and abundantly confirm the expectations of its utility which we formed on the first announcement of its publication. In plan, it differs from every other political review with which we are acquainted in being a daily record of facts, and not a vehicle of comment, discussion, or prophecy on the part of the editor. Typically, therefore, it stands in contrast with the *chronique* of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and with all similar retrospects; indeed, properly speaking, *Die Zeitgeschichte* is not a retrospect at all, but a diary, which is closed not too soon after the end of each month lest some event be omitted on account of the slow travelling of the news of it. Telegraphic despatches are chiefly depended upon for information in regard to distant states; but for Europe the newspaper mails are Mr. Waldeck's main reliance. He gives copious extracts and even whole articles from the German press; very full abstracts of the debates in the Imperial and Prussian assemblies, and occasionally entire speeches of Bismarck and other ministers; and the complete text also of many important pieces, such as, in the three numbers before us, the Emperor's short response to the New-Year congratulations of his generals, MacMahon's message (Jan. 6), Gladstone's letter of retirement to Granville, Grant's abortive message on Arkansas (Feb. 23), etc., etc. After the United States has been recorded, a page or less generally suffices for the rest of the world. German affairs naturally occupy much the largest space, in the proportion of about two-thirds. Such is a general account of Part I. ("Fortlaufende Monats-Chronik der Gegenwart"), though it remains to be stated that not always incidents but sometimes freshly published statistics are admitted to the diary, *e.g.* (p. 148), the number of Catholic orders in the several states of Germany, and (p. 230) the condition of the national debt of Italy. Omissions are repaired at the end of every quarter by means of addenda, and typographical and other errors are corrected in the same issue. (On page 236, by the way, the first errata reference to p. 127 should be to p. 117.) Part II. of the *Zeitgeschichte* is made up of documents which throw light on contemporary diplomatic history. Thus far it has contained only letters of the Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* in 1868, exposing Napoleon's intrigues in the Danubian Provinces at that time with a view to the isolation of Prussia. The value of this periodical to politicians of the better sort and statesmen is obvious, and it is scarcely less to journalists. Especially will it be convenient for the latter to have what the editor promises at the end of the year, viz., comprehensive chronological tables for the course of events, and exhaustive indexes of topics and of names. The *Zeitgeschichte* may be had through L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay Street.

—Two recent appointments in the University of Zürich seem to merit notice, as signs of the times. One is that of Professor W. Wundt to the chair of philosophy, the other that of Professor E. Hitzig to the chair of psychology. Wundt has long been occupied at Heidelberg, first as assistant, then as "ordinary" professor of physiology, whilst Hitzig has been a medical practitioner and lecturer on electro-therapeutics in Berlin. So far as we know, the latter has written nothing on purely mental science. His discovery of the irritability of the surface of the brain is his chief title to fame; all that he has written shows erudition, great experimental thoroughness, and conscientiousness in drawing inferences. Wundt is one of the most learned of German investigators. His own special work has lain

most in the line of the senses and the nervous system, the territory common to mind and matter; and all the elements of his training hitherto unite to make him an eminently well-qualified teacher of mental science. Indeed, we doubt not that his long apprenticeship in physiology was accepted by him merely that he might be the better educated for philosophy. In this country such appointments would probably provoke a good deal of orthodox alarm. But in Germany not only is thought more fearless of consequences, but "camps" in opinion are much less clearly defined, and materialistic and spiritualistic tendencies keep house together most amicably in the same professional brains. We cannot help regarding such appointments as these as hopeful tokens of a new era in philosophical studies—an era in which the old jealousy between the subjective and the objective methods shall have disappeared, and in which it shall be admitted that the only hope of reaching *general* truths that all may accept is through the co-operation of all in the minute investigation of special mental processes. We may then see solid philosophical conclusions gradually emerging from the mass of discoveries of detail, just as happens in the sciences more especially recognized as "inductive."

## LORD SHELBURNE.*

LORD SHELBURNE'S character is an enigma. He was known during life by the nickname of "The Jesuit" or "Malagrida." Goldsmith's blundering remark, "I wonder why they call *your lordship* Malagrida, for Malagrida was a very good man," may be stripped of rudeness by a change of emphasis, but remains a permanent record of contemporary opinion. Nor did the judgment of colleagues differ from the estimate of the public men who, agreed in nothing else, agreed in distrust of Lord Shelburne. The causes of this distrust are at first sight not very obvious, for it would be difficult to make out that his lordship's conduct fell much below the then current standard of political morality. The fact, however, remains that politicians who would act with Henry Fox, with Chatham, or with Bedford, felt an unconquerable suspicion of "The Jesuit," and distrusted his truth more than other men's lies. But Lord Shelburne is remembered by posterity rather as a patron of literature and philosophy than as a statesman. He made the acquaintance of Johnson. He introduced Blackstone to the King. He sought out and dragged from obscurity the unacknowledged genius of Bentham. The names of his philosophic friends sufficiently prove his discrimination, and he had qualities rarer in a patron than even the gift to detect unrecognized talent; he certainly inspired affection. The attachment of Bentham was strong and lasting. "He raised me," Bentham used to say, "from the bottomless pit of humiliation, and made me feel I was something," and the days passed at Bowood were the happiest of the philosopher's life. How did it happen that the same man was the tricky politician whom nobody could trust and the enlightened patron of philosophic talent?

To answer this question fully would be to write the life of Lord Shelburne, but the first volume of his biography, and especially the curious autobiographical fragment with which it commences, suggests at any rate a reply to the enquiry which must have often perplexed students of the politic of the last century. The problem cannot be solved by assuming, as apparently does Lord Edward Fitzmaurice, that his ancestor's political career has been misrepresented, and that the patron of philosophy was a virtuous statesman whose reputation was sacrificed to the slanders of Holland House. No idea can be more idle. It is possible that Lord Shelburne was not guilty of the perfidy imputed to him by Fox. The exact history of the so-called "pious fraud" can never now be known, and is not worth the knowing. Fox told one tale, Shelburne told another, and there is no more reason to trust the word of the first Lord Holland than to trust the word of the first Lord Lansdowne. Lord Shelburne is condemned on far stronger evidence than any single assertion of a witness such as Fox. His first step on entering as a young man into public life was to act as a go-between in negotiations the object of which was to induce Fox to sell himself to the Court and undertake to carry through Bute's policy by corrupting the House of Commons. When it is apparent that Lord Shelburne gloried in his success as a negotiator, and aided and abetted transactions which were held infamous even by the lax political morality of an immoral generation; when it appears that he does not ever seem to have felt any regret for the part he played, it is positively futile to hope that by correcting a few dates or putting forward a few extenuating circumstances a biographer can show that the suspicion with which Lord Shelburne was regarded was unfounded. The piety of a descendant or the credulousness of a biographer may hope to whitewash Lord Shelburne's political character, but the calm judgment of history will pronounce that his lordship was a statesman whose moral tone was to say the least rather below the morality of his age, and students curious in the analysis of character will seek some other mode of reconciling the contradictory aspects of his career than the assumption that he has been the victim of slander. Nor will a careful study of the present Life fail to suggest how the reconciliation is to be effected. Lord Shelburne's autobiography gives the key to his character and explains the peculiarities of his career.

He was born, it may be suspected, with few of those qualities which the eighteenth century glorified under the name of a "good heart." His intellectual powers were considerable; his will was strong; and he received the worst education which combined neglect and severity could provide. Till he was fourteen he lived in a wild part of Ireland, and was left almost without intellectual training. One fact sufficiently shows the character of the society in the midst of which his youth was passed. His grateful recollection paints Lady Arabella Denny—the only person whom he loved or who loved him—as a woman endowed with "virtues, talents, temper, taste, true religion, and goodness of every kind." Yet this admirable lady, to protect herself from the outrages of a brutal brother-in-law, trained herself to become a first-rate pistol-shot, and threatened her tormentor with certain death if he did not desist from his insults. A sagacious schoolmaster warned the boy of fourteen that if he did not educate himself he might chance to go without any education at all. The lad had the vigor to act on the advice, and acquired for himself such learning as he ever possessed. When at the age of twenty-one he came into public life, he was, naturally enough, a disbeliever in the virtues of all men, high and low, who was determined to push his own way and not to be deceived by the pretended virtues of men in power. The freedom at once from the principles and from the prejudices of those with whom he associated, and the cynicism often found in youths or professors which arises not from knowledge of the world but from absence of enthusiasm and theoretical disbelief in human virtue, were, to judge from his acts and writings, fundamental traits of Lord Shelburne's genius. The sketches of statesmen which make up the most interesting part of the present volume, show that his lordship thought ill of every leading man with whom he came in contact. Lord Bute, his first patron, was "proud, aristocratical, pompous, imposing, with a great deal of superficial knowledge, a little metaphysics, and a very false taste in everything." "He was insolent, cowardly—the greatest political coward I ever knew; he excelled in managing the interior of a court, and had an abundant share of art and hypocrisy." Chatham, of whom Lord Shelburne became in later life the avowed follower, appears in his disciple's memoirs as a man mainly marked by cunning and affectation. "What took much from his character was that he was always acting, always made up, never natural, incapable of friendship or of any act which tended to it, and constantly upon the watch and never unbent." Chatham's affectations are notorious, but it remained for Lord Shelburne to insinuate that he was not disinterested. "He told me himself that the world was much mistaken in thinking that he did not like patronage, for he was but a little man in 1755 and had to act the part he did, and he proved sufficiently that he did by catching at everything that dropped in almost every department." Of Wolfe alone does Lord Shelburne speak highly, but Wolfe showed him great kindness, and Wolfe died young.

The cynicism of a youth who disbelieved in everything but intellect and success naturally led him to join in an intrigue which the prudence if not the scruples of a hardened statesman would have avoided. It is perhaps equally natural that Lord Shelburne should not have perceived the discreditable character of his first entrance into public life. Neither experience nor philosophy seems to have taught him the moral feelings with which most men are imbued almost unconsciously under the influence of education and sympathy. He used frequently to say to Bentham: "Tell me what is right and proper; tell me what a man of virtue would do in this matter." It is at least something that in later life, at any rate, he sought to acquire from others information perhaps inadequately supplied by his own moral sense; and the habit of learning even in advanced life points to the connection between the worst and the best side of Lord Shelburne's character and career. If he was deficient in some of the better sentiments of his contemporaries, he was also singularly free from their prejudices. His comments on historical characters are extremely striking. He appreciated to the full the capacity of Walpole, and perceived, what was hidden from most men of his time, the statesmanlike genius of Cromwell. He was in other points not only unlike but before his age. He entered into the theories of political economists, and showed an interest in that class of social questions which in modern times have nearly superseded the purely political

* 'Life of William, Earl of Shelburne, afterwards first Marquess of Lansdowne. By Lord Edward Fitzmaurice. Vol. I. 1737-1766.' London and New York: Macmillan.

interests of the last century. His respect for intellect and genius was so fully in keeping with the whole turn of his mind that one can hardly doubt that it was sincere, and in the main disinterested. He no doubt expected that the men whom he patronized would be serviceable to his ambition, but no one can read Bentham's life without seeing that Lord Shelburne had a genuine sympathy with intellectual pursuits and a desire to aid men of talent. Bentham's testimony is the more valuable because gratitude did not blind him to his lordship's defects. "Lord Shelburne," he writes, "had a wildness about him, and conceived groundless suspicions about nothing at all. I remember going to ride out with one of his servants, and being accosted by some man whom I spoke to out of mere civility, and on mentioning it to Lord Shelburne, he seemed to think I was deserving of suspicion." This wildness and suspicion are easily enough explained by his character and education. They may well ally themselves with that kind of caution which runs near to hypocrisy. The diary of Lady Shelburne tells how her husband "came up to me soon after breakfast and read part of a sermon of Abernethy." "Lord Shelburne avoided talking on religious subjects for fear, he hinted, of getting into a scrape, but he avowed to Bentham that his opinions were what is called sceptical." He was not, in short, called "The Jesuit" for nothing, but his merits, no less than his faults, were not those of his contemporaries. If he had lived a century later he might have been eminent and respected as a promoter of social science, and have indulged a taste for casuistry in the appropriate field of theological discussion.

## SPECULATIVE DYNAMICS.*

WHETHER when a body moves it is proper to say that it is *in* motion, or that the motion is *in* it, is a question often suggested by the language of even the most guarded writers on mathematical dynamics,† though the strictly mathematical definitions, formulas, theorems, and problems of the science are free from any ambiguity. With what meaning the preposition "in" is used in these expressions is a further and more pertinent question. If with that meaning which the unmathematical language of these writers seems to authorize, then they have really exposed themselves and their readers to the difficulty involved in Zeno's famous paradox of motion, namely, that since a motion must be either *in* the place of the moving body or *in* some other place, and since the moving body does not move *in* its place, and does not move *in* any other place, motion is really a contradiction, and therefore, according to logic, an impossibility. The solution of the paradox, for which the science of logic had to establish a distinct principle, recognized that in such expressions the preposition "in" is not properly used in a locative sense, but only in the vaguer sense of appertaining to or being predicable of its object. That a body *in* motion has the attribute of motion (that is, the attribute of having a continuously-changing distance from some other body, or from some position which is regarded as at rest, or as not having this attribute); and the other form of the same fact, namely, that the motion *in* the body is an attribute of the body—are equivalent or entirely accordant expressions of what is signified by the preposition "in." Zeno's paradox is logically solved in such terms as these: motion transcends the "sphere" of the locative, or is distinct from both the positive and negative or the contradictory locative meanings of "in." It is neither here nor there as a phenomenon, and yet is not an excluded middle, since the contradiction of this and some other place is a contradiction in relations, both of which are distinct from the nature of motion. Nevertheless, judging by the current language (not mathematical) and the past disputes of mathematicians on the definitions of force and motion—disputes which, having been settled within their own province, they have bequeathed to unmathematical speculators in dynamical philosophy—we should be inclined, at first sight, to allow that such speculators have the warrant of high authority for their attempts at revising the fundamental conceptions of this science. Whether consciously or not, the mathematicians of the seventeenth century and unmathematical sciolists of later times were impelled by this old paradox to a solution of its difficulty by a metaphysical or non-phenomenal conception of the "force of motion," so-called, as something locatively *in* a moving body, constituting the substantive or sustaining cause of motion; seeing that the phenomenon itself of motion, being a continuous change of distance from a fixed position, could no more properly be *in* a body than this very distance could be locatively *in* it.

Newton from the first, and all competent mathematicians of a later time, saw that the mathematical discussion of dynamical problems had no concern with any such metaphysical conception. The supposed cause of the uniformity of motion in a fixed direction which a body has independently of external relations or *vires impressæ*, is not any part of dynamical science. Moreover, the causes of change in the velocities and directions of motion, or these *vires impressæ*, were conceived in a purely phenomenal or descriptive way, and measured by actually visible and tangible quantities. It was not on account of any speculative inability in Newton to conceive a possible ulterior cause of gravity that he excluded from mathematical dynamics the search for it, or remained contented with the descriptive quantitative law of this action, but simply because such a research departed in a direction just the opposite of that which led to rigorously-demonstrated explanations of the observed phenomena of nature. If any of these phenomena could have led, "in a mathematical way," to the law of action in gravitation, Newton's genius would surely not have failed to deduce it from them. He took gravity with its law for an ultimate fact, simply because it did not follow as a consequence from any other observed laws in the same manner of mathematical deduction in which he had shown that Kepler's laws follow from it and from the three laws of motion. But even mathematicians, and especially those of Germany, whose men of science are even to this day more given to metaphysics than those of other nations, were for a long time haunted by the metaphysical spectre of a cause called the "force of motion," and supposed to be needed to keep a body agoing as well as to set it in motion or bring it to rest. The mathematics of this science, however, deals only with the defined or measured quantitative phenomenal conditions of persistence and change in motion; and the metaphysical mathematicians were so far true to their science as to seek for a measure of this metaphysical cause of motion. A fierce dispute accordingly arose in the seventeenth century, and was continued into the eighteenth, in which the most illustrious men took part, as to whether the "force of motion" should be measured or defined by the velocity directly or by the square of the velocity. But after a bitter contention, prolonged by the rivalries of national honor among European scholars, the question was finally seen to resolve itself into whether the name *vis viva*, or "force of motion," ought properly to be given to one or to the other measure. For all mathematical and experimental purposes, these measures were all in all, and were perfectly consistent as measures of different phenomena or relations of motion, if only called by different names. And it was seen that dynamical science could get along perfectly well without any use of the confusing word "force." But the word continues still to have at least four distinct meanings in dynamical science—technical meanings related to the use of the word in mathematical reasonings, which are never, however, confounded by mathematicians. All that is really common to them is a vague reference to the production or persistence of states of motion or rest. The real gists of their meanings are in the qualifying terms annexed to them, as in the *vis impressa* of Newton or the *vis mortua* of Leibnitz, otherwise called *vis acceleratrix*, the *vis insita* or *vis inertiæ*, the *vis viva*, and the *vis motrix*. In place of these names, modern treatises often use, without the substantive word, the terms *acceleration* (retardation being a *minus* or algebraically negative acceleration); secondly, *mass* (the coefficient of velocity, or of its square, in estimating either); thirdly, the *momentum*; or, fourthly, the *energy* of motion. But the term *energy* still has that metaphysical taint of vagueness, even with modern mathematical writers, which so long infected the word "force." It is still spoken of, both with reference to its actual and potential forms, as if it were something locatively *in* the moving body, or *in* a body capable of a defined motion; instead of being only predicably *in* the permanent internal and the special external conditions, which mathematically determine relative movements and their rates of change. It is not surprising that an unmathematical speculator in dynamics should be misled by such expressions as the following from the eminent authors, Professors Thomson and Tait, to which many parallel expressions in other authors might be added, namely, "A raised weight, a bent spring, compressed air, etc., are *stores* of energy which can be made use of at pleasure." A mathematician, knowing in what terms these antecedent conditions of motion are expressed and measured, understands them to refer only to sensible properties in these "stores," together with the restraining causes which also have sensible measures, namely, what makes them "stores," or holds the weight *up*, or the spring *bent*, or the air *compressed*. It is *in* the being held up, or bent, or compressed—*in* these antecedent circumstances, as well as in what is locatively in the bodies, that the storing of energy consists; and this energy is also dependent in the case of the raised weight on an equally sensible and measurable outward relation, namely, distance from the ground.

* 'The Mechanism of the Universe and its Primary Effort-exerting Powers. By Augustus Fendler.' Wilmington, Del.: Printed by the "Commercial Printing Company." 1874.

† We follow Professors Thomson and Tait in using "dynamics" in a wide sense, including Statics, in place of "mechanics," which, though commonly used in this sense, is more properly the theory of machines and mechanical constructions than that of the abstract principles of motion and equilibrium.

The word "force," unqualified, but understood to be limited to the meaning and descriptive measure of "accelerative force," or in a strictly-defined and technical meaning, is still commonly employed in treatises on dynamics. Otherwise it is always qualified, as in the "force of *inertia*." All its uses in mathematical language, or the equivalent terms, acceleration, mass, momentum, and energy, refer to precise, unambiguous definitions in the measures of the phenomena of motion, and do not refer to any other substantive or noumenal existence than the universal inductive fact that the phenomena of all actual movements in nature can be clearly and definitely or intelligently analyzed into phenomena and conditions of phenomena of which these terms denote the measures. In modern dynamics, the mathematical measures of actual phenomena are their real essences, as scientific facts. Even the much-derided Aristotelian doctrine in explanation of the various phenomena of suction—namely, "nature's abhorrence of a vacuum"—might pass muster in science (though not now as an ultimate principle) if a determination of *how much* nature's abhorrence amounts to under defined circumstances were attached to it. The real fault of the principle and its pretended explanations would be paralleled if we should seek to explain the movements of the planets and of falling bodies by "nature's abhorrence of divorce between bodies"—which is about what the word "attraction" meant to the lively imaginations of Newton's contemporaries, as with Huygens—without estimating, as the Newtonian law of gravity does, *how much* this abhorrence amounts to under given external relations. The fact that nature has an abhorrence of a vacuum *mathematically dependent on the weight of the liquid forced into it* is not impugned by the fact, subsequently discovered, that this weight is balanced by the weight and consequent pressure of the atmosphere, any more than Kepler's three descriptive and quantitative laws were invalidated by the subsequent deduction of them from the laws of motion and of gravity. Kepler's laws served, indeed, as the most effective inductive confirmations of these laws and their universality ; and Newton's law of gravity would still hold the honored place it has in science even if it should in future be shown to follow from independently-demonstrated and simpler, more ultimate conditions of changes in motion. Merely speculative explanations of it have no honor at all ; for its merits are in its being a precise quantitatively-descriptive law, and on this ground alone it holds its place in mathematical dynamics.

We have said that the word "force," when used without qualification, has come to mean unambiguously what, for the sake of avoiding ambiguity, Newton called *vis impressa;* so that in recent treatises the first law of motion is expressed in such terms as these : "A body under the action of no force, or of balanced forces, is either at rest or moves uniformly in a straight line." Newton's words were : "*Nisi quatenus a viribus impressis.*" Now, our author, apparently ignorant of the history of the science, and without any guidance from its mathematics, undertakes to criticise such a statement (Section VI.), simply on the ground that he has chosen, without giving any reasons for it, to give the unqualified word "force" a different meaning in what he is pleased to call an axiom (Axiom VIII., p. 12). He means by it the cause which keeps a body agoing when it moves. Of this cause modern dynamical science knows nothing, except the negative fact stated in the first law of motion, which may be given with even greater clearness without using the word "force" at all—namely, that, independently of properties through which a body is related to other bodies, or independently of such relations, its state of rest or of uniform motion in a fixed direction is unchanged. Behind this fact, except so far as it serves to define the word "force," or *vis impressa*, dynamic science does not go ; but it goes forward with this and other facts to most fruitful results in mathematical deductions, with which our author does not appear to be at all acquainted. Another fact, the second law of motion, which again may be fully expressed without the use of "force," is that the change in the component of a velocity in any direction may be measured in terms of a fixed property, namely, mass, and special outward relations, which in general are dependent simply on distances and directions.

Mathematical dynamics knows of no bodies at rest in any absolute sense. All the motions known or considered are relative motions—namely, continuous changes of distances between bodies, or between these and positions defined by other bodies. It is not known that even the centre or average position of all the masses of the universe is at rest in any absolute sense ; so that the absolute motion of no body is known, and the "force" of our author is without any definite measure or utility in mathematical dynamics. The principle of relative motion leaves all measures of motion considered as absolute quite out of the problems of this science, as indeed they are quite beyond our possible knowledge.

One of the principles of mathematical dynamics which staggers the unmathematical sciolist more than any other, and was at first one of the greatest difficulties, even with mathematicians, in the Newtonian theory of gravity—a difficulty repeatedly urged, and brought out from apparently independent meditations by anti-Newtonian heretics—is the doctrine of "action at a distance." This action, the metaphysicians say, is impossible, and they devote themselves to the invention of *media* through which force and motion may be communicated, or from which it may be collected (Axiom VII., p. 11), thinking that thereby they are helping out the mathematical genius of Newton by a profounder effort of thought than he was capable of. But with metaphysical action dynamical science has nothing to do. The action at a distance, considered in this science, is simply a change in motion measurably or mathematically dependent on (or a function of) distances from bodies, distances of which nothing is asserted but that they extend indefinitely beyond the masses or the visible and tangible limits of bodies. "A body cannot act where it is not"—"With all my heart," says Carlyle, "only where is it ?" If attractive force is an attribute of bodies (as it is whether or not this force depends on an intangible and invisible medium), then the presence of bodies at a distance from their visible limits must be assumed, so far at least as this attribute is concerned. The color of a body is familiarly known to be distinct from its solid extent, volume, or mass, and is not in the same place ; nevertheless, as superficial, is still contiguous with its other sensible qualities. The metaphysical difficulty of believing that the attribute of attraction may be still more displaced or removed than color, is a difficulty which disappears with its cause, namely, unfamiliarity with the conception. Patient study of mathematical and experimental science has resolved many such difficulties, which are not really logical ones ; for whether gravity will ever come in science to be a legitimately-derived attribute or property of bodies acting through a medium, or will for ever remain, as now, an ultimate phenomenal fact, there is nothing of contradiction or essential opposition to experience in its asserted action at a distance—at a distance, that is, not of course from where it acts, but from the places where other attributes of body are manifested ; that is, beyond its visible and tangible limits. Most theories of a gravitative medium have been in fact atomic, and, by the interposition of voids between atoms which is thus made, have really introduced the very action at a distance which the theories were devised to do away with. Indeed, the essential principle of action at a distance is a necessary consequence of the metaphysical axiom (which we are not, however, obliged by positive evidence to accept), that pure continuous matter is incompressible, as in the supposed atoms ; and though this action be only on a molecular scale, it is no more possible on this scale than on that larger one of gravitative action which mathematical dynamics is supposed to assume. But, as we have said, no such metaphysical assumption is made in this science.

No student of mathematics, competent to pass an examination in Newton's 'Principia,' not only on its definitions, axioms, and philosophical scholiums, but on its mathematical theorems and problems, could read with any profit, or even with any patience, Mr. Fendler's speculations. Those parts of the 'Principia,' or of more modern treatises, which such thinkers as our author appear to have studied, present themselves to the student who has clearly seen their embodiment in the mathematical deductions and experimental verifications of dynamical science in a wholly different light from that in which such speculative thinkers take them up. The laws or axioms and the definitions of this science are apparently considered by these thinkers as constituting in themselves a complete body of doctrine, capable of being studied and criticised quite independently of any other mathematics than what they directly involve, whereas they are really integrant parts or elements of a systematic deductive science ; and whether or not they are evident at a glance through familiar inductions, or by "intuitions *a priori*" (as some thinkers will have it), they have their truest proof in the broadest possible tests of experience, through the experimental and observational verifications of their mathematical consequences. Of the nature and force of this kind of proof none but students of mathematical dynamics and experimental physics can be supposed to have any adequate conception. To attempt to criticise the elementary conceptions and first principles of the science in any other way, and especially *a priori*, or with a simple reference to *Vernunft*, is really a display of the critic's incompetency, which is not remedied by a reference of his convictions to ancestral experience, or any other modification of the *a priori* doctrine, or any treatment of mathematical axioms as philosophical truths. Several modern writers, more distinguished than our author, and especially of late Mr. G. H. Lewes and Mr. H. Spencer, have thus illustrated how *a priori* too often means no more than *ab ignorantia et indolentia*. Such writers appear to think that the mathematical deductions of the science are of secondary importance from a philosophical point of view, or are merely illustrative applications of philosophical principles to the processes of nature. But instead of the

mathematical body of the science being an appendage to these principles as to an independent body of doctrines, these are themselves chosen and framed, so to speak, or determined in their forms and meanings with reference to the mathematics of a systematic deductive science.

---

*Miss Rovel.* Par Victor Cherbuliez. (New York: F. W. Christern; Boston: Estes & Lauriat [Translation.])—M. Victor Cherbuliez is probably unknown to that large number of readers to whom the mystic words "a French novel" suggest a production of the school of Emile Gaboriau or Ponson du Terrail; but if reputation is measured by quality rather than extent, few writers of the day stand so high. It is Shelley, we believe, who has been called the poet of poets; and in a similar fashion M. Cherbuliez may be called the novelist of literary people. He is prized by those readers who, while they have a due esteem for a telling intrigue, are inclined to assign a primary place to consummate literary art—to art which, if need be, is even a trifle obtrusive and self-conscious. For those readers the author of 'Miss Rovel' has been for the last fifteen years a very important personage, and the appearance of each of his half-dozen novels a literary event. The charm of his tales has been that they seemed written by a scholar who knew the world. The usual clever novel of commerce bears few traces of an intellect generally brilliant—an intellect which, in other fields than the flowery meads of fiction, has any rights that a critic is bound to respect. But M. Cherbuliez has always beaten the regular romancer on his own ground and has given us, into the bargain, a style which it was a pure intellectual luxury to encounter. He has exhibited an acuteness and finish of mind which made us feel that if he were not good-naturedly devoting himself to story-telling he might do great things in history and philosophy. M. Cherbuliez began, in fact, as we believe, with very solid studies, and laid the foundations of a thoroughly superior culture. His circumstances, too, were such as to give him a ballast of due weight; he was a Genevese, born and brought up among academic and literary traditions, and his first venture was a most ingenious essay on Greek æsthetics. If to these advantages he added the novelist's faculty—observation raised to the degree of a passion—and if imagination too was not wanting, a critic with half an eye might feel that here would be a prince of story-tellers. And, indeed, very much one of these charming potentates M. Cherbuliez has actually been. His dominion has been small and his reign has been brief; but Athens, under Pericles, was neither vast nor long-lived. It is a sad fact that the reign of M. Cherbuliez has come to an end by his own unwisdom; the united voice of his once loyal subjects pronounces his *déchéance*. We might make a long story, if we had space, of the history of our author's talent as revealed in his successive novels—of its transformations, its moods, its inflections, its lights and shades. It would be a story of varying hopes and fears on the part of those who watched him closely and judged him sympathetically. This might be represented, quite dramatically, as a visible contest between a good and evil principle, with victory tossing like a shuttlecock from one side to the other.

The evil principle with M. Cherbuliez has been simply—paradoxical as it sounds—that he was dangerously clever. The germ of decay in his talent might have been found in a little black spot which casually looked harmless enough, or rather seemed positively to set off the expression of his literary physiognomy, like the patches worn by ladies in the last century. We allude to an exaggerated relish for epigram. This had given us some alarm in the author's earlier novels, but we never expected to see it acquire such prodigious proportions as in this unfortunate 'Miss Rovel.' Of course it is not every one who can make epigrams by the hundred; one needs to be clever, and we have said that M. Cherbuliez is inordinately so. But one day he had a great misfortune: he went to Paris—whether in person or not hardly matters, but at any rate intellectually. He went there—judging on the apparent evidence—for the particular purpose of proving that a Genevese is not a provincial, and that if he gives his mind to it he may be as good a Parisian as the best. In this undertaking M. Cherbuliez has expended an incalculable number of epigrams, and, like all converts and late-comers to a faith, he has been fanatically, indefatigably devout. He has proved his point a hundred times over; if being Parisian means having a certain tone which one must be a Parisian to describe, though one may perhaps recognize and appreciate it on easier terms, M. Cherbuliez is superabundantly, overwhelmingly Parisian. We wish now he would unstring his bow a little, rest upon his laurels, send his imagination to pasture among the flower-strewn Alpine meadows whose influences are his birthright, and tell us another story with the easy, natural grace of his masterpiece, the 'Comte Kostia.' We call this work his masterpiece because it stands at the opposite end of the scale from 'Miss Rovel.' The latter is not a felicitous performance, and if we were not afraid of seeming to take the rubs of life unmanfully hard, we would say that we had passed some very dark hours in reading it. It offers, to speak frankly, the most striking example of the eclipse of a great talent that we have ever encountered, and we doubt whether, while still in the mid-season of life, a clever man has often fallen so far below himself. The author's cleverness is there; the story is smart, alert, effective at any cost; but it bears the same relation to the best of his former works as (to risk a trivial comparison) the intolerable stuff called bottled lemonade does to the agreeable compound it emulates. Miss Rovel, the author informs us, is a young English girl of eccentric antecedents, who, through a series of amazing escapades, ensnares the affections of a cynical but attractive French *savant*, by whom she is ultimately led to the altar. M. Cherbuliez assures us, we say, that his heroine is English; but in spite of his representations we insist on it that the language of Shakspere was unknown to her, and that she was born in the Paris boulevard, where she sprang up from some noxious literary seed dropped into a crack of the asphalt. But her nationality is of little consequence, for we venture to pronounce her a totally impossible young lady, and, what is worse, a very detestable one. We can forgive a fantastic heroine when she is pleasing, but we resent being launched in a balloon in the company of a damsel we dislike. Why cannot a French novelist draw, with any approach to verisimilitude, a young girl brought up in the Anglo-Saxon fashion? This question in itself would form the text of a disquisition, and we have only space to add that, as we should have said beforehand that M. Cherbuliez was the one writer of his craft in France capable of achieving the difficult feat we have mentioned, his signal failure is extremely disappointing. He has cruelly sacrificed his hero; for Miss Rovel was, in plain English, a very low-minded young woman.

---

*Prussia's Representative Man.* By Francis Lloyd (of the Universities of Halle and Athens) and William Newton, F.R.G.S. (London: Trübner. 1875.)—Not Bismarck, as the title of the book would naturally suggest, but Prussia's literary representative, Henrich von Kleist, the poet, is the subject of the volume in hand. It embraces a brief life of Kleist, an extended essay on the several schools in modern German literature, and translations of two of Kleist's works, 'Michael Kohlhaas: a Story,' and 'Prince Frederick of Homburg: a Drama.' The life is one of painful interest, a harrowing mingling of madness and genius. Heinrich von Kleist was born Oct. 10, 1776, in Frankfort. At an early age he entered the army, but was soon driven out of it by inward unrest and desire for study. The self-education he began was desultory, frantically vehement, indeed, in character, but without other result than to throw him into general ferment. The morbid element in his nature was too deep-seated to admit of his attaining self-mastery, and he wandered in increasing misery from land to land. Only late in life did it become clear to him that his true vocation was poetry. That there were great ideas seething in his mind all acknowledged who came in contact with him, yet he could for years work nothing into satisfactory shape. "Hell gave me my half-talent, Heaven dowers a man with a whole or none," was the self-confession wrung out of him by his despairing struggles. Still, even in those days, a man of the mark of Wieland could record after hearing him recite passages from a drama he was composing: "I do not think I am saying too much when I assure you that if the shades of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Shakspere were to combine to write a tragedy, the result would not surpass Kleist's 'Death of Guiskard the Norman'—that is, if the whole were equal to the part I heard." In a fit of despair he destroyed these fragments, while still possessed with the conviction that he would yet tear the wreath from Goethe's brow.

Kleist was a Brandenburger to the core. He hated the universalism that was leading Schiller and Goethe to be for ever looking to Greek, Italian, and English models, and trying to live themselves into bygone ages, from which nothing but bloodless shades could be brought back. In fact, the life of the present took too overmastering hold of him, racking his diseased sensitiveness to pieces and leaving him little or no calm for artistic creation. While Goethe sought to escape the distraction of thinking about his country's humiliation by burying himself in Oriental studies, Kleist raved himself out, at times like a madman, in poems full of the deification of hate and glorifying tyrannicide. So he continued, haunted and harried to the end, till falling in with a gifted woman, as life-weary as himself, and accepting her challenge that they should quit this miserable world and explore in company whether a better one could not be found elsewhere, he shot her through the heart and himself through the head.

Nevertheless, in his lucid periods, this man produced works that are landmarks in the history of German literature. He may fairly be called Prus-

sia's representative man. None other as he seized and gave expression to the essential spirit that has distinguished Prussia from other sections of Germany. In all the workings of his imagination, he was a soldier to the centre, blunt and often half-brutal in his speech, hating foreign ways in action and literature, and believing a Brandenburg oak to be worthier of a great singer than all the laurels of Parnassus. To him the rest of Germany was mongrel, half Teutonic, half French, or Italian in spirit, slavish, imitative, imbecile through irreconcilable ideas in policy, literature, religion. In a high sense he was a prophet of what recent history has made plain, that in the leadership of Prussia's Spartan discipline and iron will lay the sole salvation of the land. The same idea possessed him in respect of literature. All his life he was struggling to utter something in story, play, poem that would have the same kind of ring in it and unite spirit and form in the like style of a word and a blow. At times he succeeded in doing it.

The story of Michael Kohlhaas can hardly fail to strike by its terse straightforwardness. Though suffering in the translation for the rugged picturesqueness of Kleist's own words, still as the portrayal of a massive character, "at once the most right-feeling and the most ferocious man of his time," whose obstinate passion for justice made him a robber and a murderer, it will give the reader a terribly real character to think about. Kohlhaas is a plain horse-dealer, whose career dramatizes powerfully the wrongs and the savagery at the bottom of the peasant uprisings in the days of Martin Luther. 'The Prince of Homburg' is, however, the work in which Kleist's genius most triumphantly asserted itself. "It is the most ideal glorification of German military life the national literature possesses," yet in no general and declamatory way, but through the career of the hero of the piece. On the German stage it occupies a like position with Shakspere's Henry the Fourth on the English. From a reckless roysterer Prince Hal becomes a thoughtful man and the nation's idol. The Prince of Homburg is a hero from the start ; but he is the slave of his own unmastered imagination. His visions of love and glory enwrap him in a sublime selfishness. He has not yet grasped the tremendous import of subordination and obedience. At the council of war he fails, in his dreamy absorption, to note down his orders for the conduct of the approaching battle. In his impetuosity he sounds a general charge that brings about indeed, a decisive victory, in which the Prince covers himself with glory, but which defeats the Elector's plans for the annihilation of the Swedes. As a consequence, in the full flush of triumph the young hero finds himself arrested for military disobedience, is tried, and sentenced to death. Weakness overcomes him, and in his first misery he sues for life ; but when graver thoughts break in of the full bearing of his crime, he bows to the sentence and acknowledges its justice. Then first he is reprieved, as now first fit to live. From beginning to end, the play is alive with action, and we see a man fashioned to some purpose by real and impressive events.

The long introductory essay with which these pieces are prefaced will not interest the general reader. It contains good thoughts, but presented in a style wearisomely abstract and obscure.

---

*Antiquities of Long Island.* By Gabriel Furman. To which is added a Bibliography by Henry Onderdonk, jr. Edited by Frank Moore. (New York : J. W. Bouton. 1875.)—The contrast between the condition of New York and that of its suburbs must be, to a stranger at least, at once striking and perplexing. Abuse the government of the city as we very rightly always may, there is no denying that the expenditure of money both in private and public works has been such as to produce very imposing, if not beautiful, results. There are fine streets, there are enormous hotels, there are parks, there are boulevards, there are private houses, on which fabulous amounts of money have been spent. More than this, the tide shows no sign of turning. Notwithstanding the plunder—we may almost say sack—of the city by a horde of thieves, the public improvements are still going on, and the scale of private expenditure (expenditure, too, of a substantial kind) constantly increasing. But leave the island on which the city proper stands, and cross over to the New Jersey shore on one side, to Staten Island on the other, or to Long Island, and what sort of a process do we see going on there ? From the wealth of New York a stranger would naturally expect to find in the environs a long line of fine country-seats surrounding the city, in which the people whose "residential mansions" have been pointed out to him on Fifth Avenue have their suburban homes. He finds nothing of the sort. He finds, on the contrary, in the immediate neighborhood of the city, the ruins of a former generation of country-seats, surrounded and almost swallowed up by a swarm of shanties, lager-beer shops, bar-rooms, low hotels, and rows of untenanted houses put up in advance of population, which announce the proximity and the approach of the "metropolis" as distinctly as the sudden occupation of a quiet place by a number of citizens of the Hans Breitmann type would announce the approach of an invading army. If you enquire the history of the places against whose barriers this unpleasant new population is surging, you will probably learn that in the pre-railroad period some early owner of a familiar name had bought the property without an idea that in any calculable period of time the city would encroach upon the limits of his homestead, but supposed that the old place would descend in his family from father to son to the end of time—little suspecting that in fifty years the place would be worth as many millions as it then was thousands, that the river or the sea-beach at the foot of it would be river and sea-beach no longer, but would have become changed to "water-front," that the pleasant undulations of the ground would have become gravel-pits, or that to the latest descendants of the family in the year of grace 1875 what was to have been their home had become Real Estate. As the present generation simply intend to cut up their property and sell it in lots, they have, as sane men, no object in keeping it up, in fencing or making lawns or planting trees, and they therefore let it go out of repair ; upon which the sentimental stranger sighs, shakes his head, and turns his steps in some other direction, finding however, if he keeps within the immediate environs of the city, nothing but a repetition of the same thing—the same squalid shops and shanties, the same old, ill-kept places, the same general unkempt, out-at-elbows look, which is an equally good proof of the instability of human affairs and the "extraordinary progress of our city." Other places one also finds which were not originally homesteads but were bought not many years ago by some modern investor or speculator, who purchased a large piece of ground merely for the purpose of cutting it up into smaller pieces and selling at an advance, who has no interest in wasting money in making an impermanent country-seat out of "lots," and who is well satisfied with the condition of the property if assessments are not too heavy, if streets are laid out with regularity and at right angles, and the owners of any squalid hovels who may establish themselves on the premises can be made to pay a rent.

There is no part of the country in which this sort of progress, with its attendant decay, can be seen to better advantage than the western end of the island whose antiquities are so well preserved in the volume before us ; and we must say that our sympathy is profound for the industry of Mr. Furman, as well as his editor, Mr. Moore, who discovered the fragmentary manuscript in the shop of "a quaint and popular dealer in old books, pictures, and bric-à-brac on University Place." Long Island is almost the last place in the world where we should expect antiquarian studies to be flourishing, not for positive lack of material (if we do not insist on our antiquities being very old), but because the western end of the island is inseparably associated in our mind with that peculiar kind of social progress which we have just endeavored to describe, and which consists chiefly in a complete obliteration of everything which is old for the sake of what is new. An antiquarian on Long Island, if he is to survive in the struggle for existence with his hereditary foes, the speculator and the auctioneer, must be of very tough fibre.

If the reader, however, will lay aside all prepossessions and approach the subject in the true spirit, which, we take it, is that of mingled patriotism and microscopic curiosity, he will find that this part of Long Island is not destitute of interest. Without going back to the mythological period, there is some evidence to begin with of prehistoric remains (p. 94), while, according to Mr. Furman, as late as 1831 there was still a curious relic of the Indian occupation in the manufacture of wampum for the Indians of the West. Coming down to historical times, the island is one of the oldest settlements of the country, and at this day the different types of settlers—the Dutch at one end, and the New English Puritan at the other—may faintly suggest their primitive state. Even should the Dutch lose Holland, buildings of Dutch architecture will still be found standing on Long Island, to bear witness to the former extent of their power ; and the peculiar Dutch qualities of slowness, dogged obstinacy, and thrift will be preserved for a long while yet on farms of the island, where the Knickerbocker, in his undeveloped state of purveyor of early vegetables to the neighboring market, unspoiled as yet by visions of a "rise in real estate" or the necessity of founding a family, toils with his hired men among his potatoes and strawberries, wholly undisturbed by the movements of the world outside, reading little, but thinking profoundly, generally with the aid of tobacco, and speaking not oftener than is necessary. Some of the Dutch customs we have ourselves adopted—as in the case of the celebration of New Year's day and the institution of New Year's cake, which, unless we are mistaken, used to be given to the poor on New Year's day by way of charity, not fifty years ago, in Dutch towns by the "great people." Others, not peculiar to the Dutch, have passed

into disuse, as that mentioned by Mr. Furman (p. 161) of having a feast with plenty of cold meats, liquors, and tobacco on the occasion of a funeral, with the not uncommon accompaniment of a friendly chat and much consumption of liquor and tobacco under the trees among the farmers for two or three hours before the funeral began to move, and a great deal of noise "very inappropriate to the purpose for which they had assembled." These examples taken at random from the volume before us are hardly fair specimens of its contents. The curious in such matters will find in its pages a good many bits of local information of one kind and another, which are worth preserving as part of our somewhat meagre thread of history and tradition.

*Essays—Æsthetical.* By George H. Calvert. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1875.)—Mr. Calvert occasionally puts forth a modest volume of prose or verse which attracts no general attention, but which, we imagine, finds adequate appreciation among scattered readers. We prefer his prose to his verse, and we can frankly recommend this little collection of essays on subjects connected with art and letters. The author's fault, as a general thing, is in his vagueness, and in a tendency to judgments a trifle too ethereal and to a style considerably too florid. We prefer him, therefore, when he is treating of concrete rather than abstract matters, and we have found more edification in the volume before us in the papers on the translators of Dante, on Sainte-Beuve, and on Carlyle, than in the accompanying disquisitions on the Beautiful, on the Nature of Poetry, and on Style. To offer us off-hand, at the present hour, an article on the Beautiful, implies an almost heroic indifference to the tyranny of fashion. Mr. Calvert cares for letters for their own sake, he is a disinterested scholar, and his writing has the aroma of genuine culture. Even the occasional awkwardness and amateurishness of his manner are an indication of that union, so rare in this country, of taste and leisure which allows culture an opportunity to accumulate. The best thing in the volume is the article on Sainte-Beuve, in which the author shows that he had studied the great critic to very good purpose. It is very intelligent and, much of it, very felicitous, and it is filled, moreover, with excellent brief citations. But the best thing in it is the charming note from Sainte-Beuve which the author gives in an *addendum*, and of which we transcribe the greater part. Mr. Calvert had sent Sainte-Beuve the copy of the magazine in which the article originally appeared, but this miscarried, and the author sent a second copy. Whereupon Sainte-Beuve, writing December 6, 1868, six months before his death:

"Cher Monsieur:—Oh! cette fois je reçois bien décidément le très-aimable et très-étudié portrait du *critique*. Comment exprimer comme je le sens ma gratitude pour tant de soin, d'attention pénétrante, de désir d'être agréable tout en restant juste? Il y avait certes moyen d'insister bien plus sur les variations, les disparates et les défaillances momentanées de la pensée et du jugement à travers cette suite de volumes. C'est toujours un sujet d'étonnement pour moi, et cette fois autant que jamais, de voir comment un lecteur ami et un juge de goût parvient à tirer une figure une et consistante de ce qui ne me paraît à moi-même dans mon souvenir que le cours d'un long fleuve qui va s'épandant un peu au hasard des pentes et désertant continuellement ses rives. De tels portraits comme celui que vous voulez bien m'offrir me rendent un point d'appui et me feraient véritablement croire à moi-même. Et quand je songe à l'immense quantité d'esprits auxquels vous me présentez sous un aspect si favorable et si magistral dans ce nouveau monde si plein de jeunesse et d'avenir, je me prends d'une sorte de fierté et de courageuse confiance, comme en présence déjà de la postérité."

The reader will see that the art of saying things well did not desert the great critic, even in his moments of extreme relaxation. Every epistolary scrap from his hand that has come before us has quickened the impatience with which we await the promised publication of his correspondence. The perusal of the latter, if we are not mistaken, will be an extreme intellectual luxury. Mr. Calvert's volume further contains a reprinted paper, entitled "Errata"—an attempt to enumerate some of the common grammatical errors and literary vulgarisms of the day. The attempt is commendable, and the attack in some cases well-directed, but there is more than one expression that Mr. Calvert seems to us to condemn too trenchantly. "By no manner of means" is pronounced a "vulgar pleonasm." "By reason of" is called an "ugly, ill-assorted phrase." "I am free to confess" is declared "an irredeemable vulgarism," and "subject-matter" a "tautological humpback." We share Mr. Calvert's extreme enmity with regard to none of these phrases. Each of them, to our sense, will bear cross-examining. Of another—"to *ventilate*, applied to a subject or a person"—he affirms that "the scholar who uses this vilest of vulgarisms deserves to have his right thumb taken off." Here, surely, the author is quite wrong. A word is a vulgarism only when it is used without logical aptness. "To a person" we have never heard the word in question applied; but when applied to an idea, it has just that felicity, that harmonious analogy, which legitimates a figurative form of speech. In certain cases no other word would do so well. "Ventilate," also, if we are not mistaken, has respectable tradition in its favor, and can be found in sound English writers of the last century.


*Henry Holt & Co.'s*

EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS.

*THE BOCHER-OTTO FRENCH* Course. (New edition of the Grammar, with full Vocabularies in preparation.)

*THE JOYNES-OTTO GERMAN* Course. (Recently adopted in Baltimore and Philadelphia, and already in use in numerous other cities.) To this course an Introductory German Reader has just been added.

*WHITNEY'S GERMAN COURSE.* The Text-Book of Yale and Harvard, and recommended by both to students preparing for college.

*FREEMAN'S HISTORICAL* Course. A Series of Historical Works for Schools on an entirely new plan.

*PYLODET'S FRENCH COURSE.* A Series of elementary and advanced works for the study of French. The elementary books are used in the California and Louisiana Public Schools; the higher works are text-books at Yale, Harvard, etc.

*TAINE'S ENGLISH LITERATURE.* The text-book of the best teachers.

*THE ORDO CLASSICS.* Introducing a new method of classical study.

*SIGLAR'S ENGLISH EXERCISES.* English Grammar taught by the use of Symbols.

*BAIN'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.* A brief English Grammar on a logical plan.

Teachers who are thinking of changing text-books, are requested to send for a catalogue giving full description of these books.

HENRY HOLT & CO.

25 Bond Street, New York.

*Starr & Marcus,*

*Jewellers and Silversmiths.*

DIAMONDS AND GEMS.

*Works of Art in Stone Cameos.*

BRONZES, CLOCKS, AND ORNAMENTS.

22 *John Street, New York.*

*THE BALTIMORE BULLETIN.* An Independent Journal of Literature and Art. Published at Baltimore, Md. Two Dollars per annum.

*THE SCHOOL BULLETIN AND* *New York State Educational Journal* for June will contain five hundred examination questions, a full report of the Social Science Association, and the *London Quarterly* article upon "Education in America." The *Bulletin* is now the largest educational journal published. Subscription, $1. Specimen copies, 10 cents. Address *School Bulletin*, Albany, N. Y.

*"THE READER" analyzes on page v a late publication of Macmillan's, being the last Letters of that best of missionaries and raciest of narrators in the East, Lady Duff Gordon.*

*Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

*BUCKINGHAM HOTEL,*
FIFTH AVENUE, COR. FIFTIETH STREET,
(OPPOSITE THE CATHEDRAL.)

Will be completed by September next, and will be conducted on the European Plan, with special regard to the comfort of families.

New Improved Edition of

*Cassell's Family Magazine.*

It is a brilliant, interesting, and useful magazine, and contains only such matter as the wise parent may safely place in the hands of his family. Entertaining serial tales and short stories are interspersed with household information and useful receipts, the whole being elaborately and elegantly illustrated.

Subscription price, $3 50 per annum. Specimen numbers post free for 30 cents.

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN, 596 Broadway, N. Y.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO.,
CINCINNATI,
HAVE JUST PUBLISHED:

## Skinner's Source of Measures.

Being a Key to the Hebrew Egyptian Mystery in the Source of Measures originating the British Inch and the Ancient Cubit, by which was built the Great Pyramid of Egypt and the Temple of Solomon; and through the possession and use of which, man, assuming to realize the creative law of the Deity, set it forth in a mystery, among the Hebrews called "Kabbala." By J. Ralston Skinner. 8vo, pp. xvi.-324, cloth, price $5.
Sent by mail, prepaid, on receipt of price.

Will be ready 15th June.

## Ten Brook's American State Universities.

Their Origin and Progress; a History of Congressional University Land Grants; a particular account of the Rise and Development of the University of Michigan, and Hints toward the Future of the American University System. By Andrew Ten Brook, Librarian of the University of Michigan. 8vo, pp. viii.-408, cloth, $3 50.

Just Published.

## Ohio State Reports.

Vol. XXIV. Price $2 50.

The Ohio and Ohio State Reports are now all in print, and can be furnished—44 vols., law binding—at the extremely low price of $110.

THE CHEAPEST COMPLETE SET OF STATE REPORTS PUBLISHED.

"One peculiar feature of these Reports is that the syllabus or head-notes of each case is prepared by the judge assigned to deliver the opinion of the Court, and is submitted to the judges concurring therein for revisal before publication. . . . The result of all this is, that the head-notes present precisely the points decided by the Court, which they do not always do when prepared by the reporter. The Ohio State Reports have and deserve a high rank among the reports of the country. The Supreme Court is an able one, and the judges examine and discuss cases with great care and learning."—*Albany Law Journal.*

ROBERT CLARKE & CO.,
Publishers, Cincinnati, Ohio.

# Boston Books.

*MESSRS. ROBERTS BROTHERS*
HAVE JUST PUBLISHED:

## Freedom and Fellowship in Religion.

A collection of Essays and Addresses. Edited by a Committee of the Free Religious Association.

It contains an Introduction on "The Religious Outlook," by Rev. O. B. Frothingham, with articles by D. A. Wasson, Samuel Longfellow, Samuel Johnson, John Weiss, W. J. Potter, F. E. Abbott, O. B. Frothingham, John W. Chadwick, T. W. Higginson, and E. D. Cheney. The book is an answer to the not infrequent question, What is the Free Religious Association? 16mo, price $2.

## Through the Year.

Thoughts relating to the Seasons of Nature and the Church. By Rev. Horatio N. Powers, D.D., Rector of St. John's Church, Chicago. 16mo, price $1 50.

Dr. Powers dedicates his book "to all who believe in an invisible kingdom and aspire after the better life," and he discourses about "A Joyous Religion," "Love in Death," "Loneliness," "The Time of the Singing of Birds," "Wings," "Words," "The Miracle of Dreams," "An Autumn Walk," etc.—altogether a most thoughtful and charming volume.

## The Good Time Coming;

Or, Our New Crusade. By Edward E. Hale. A New Edition. Paper covers. Price 75 cents.

Sold by all booksellers. Mailed, post-paid, by the Publishers,
ROBERTS BROTHERS, Boston.

## Latin and Greek Classics,

Adapted to the requirements for admission to HARVARD:
GOODWIN'S GREEK COURSE.
ALLEN & GREENOUGH'S LATIN COURSE. viz., Grammar Method of Lessons, Cæsar, Sallust, Virgil, Cicero Composition, Ovid, and De Senectute.

Several of the above are combined in a single volume, viz.:

1. COURSE No. I. Full Preparatory Course of Latin Prose (without Vocabulary), containing four books of Cæsar's Gallic War, Sallust's Catiline, eight Orations of Cicero, and the *Cato Major.*
2. COURSE No. II. Second Preparatory Course of Latin Prose (with Vocabulary), containing four books of Cæsar's Gallic War and eight Orations of Cicero.

N. B.—Course No. I. is identical with the First Course prescribed for admission to Harvard College. Course No. II. contains the usual amount required at other colleges.

To be published in August.
Miscellaneous Publications.
Searle's Outlines of Astronomy.
Hudson's Shakespeares.
Our World Series of Geographies.
Mason's Music Readers and Charts.
Peirce's Logarithms.
Carpenter's English of the XIVth Century.
Harvard Examination.
White's Latin, and Liddell and Scott's Greek Lexicons.
Stewart's Physics, with Hill's Questions.

GINN BROTHERS, Boston.

*Any person engaged in teaching or preparing to teach history may obtain a copy of GILMAN'S FIRST STEPS IN GENERAL HISTORY by forwarding $1 to the Publishers, Hurd & Houghton, New York; The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass.*

## A FREE LANCE IN THE FIELD

of Life and Letters. By Prof. W. C. Wilkinson, 1 vol. 12mo, $1 50.

"It is not a frequent pleasure to meet with English essay-writing so fresh, forceful, and terse as Mr. Wilkinson's; and especially rare is it to receive from the other side of the Atlantic writing so good, evolution of English authors so sympathetic and appreciative, as George Eliot finds in this volume."—*Westminster Review.*

## HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS OF

Louisiana and Florida. By B. F. French. 1 vol. 8vo, $4.

"The archives of France and Spain have furnished the author with manuscripts of priceless value, and he has used his materials to the best possible advantage."—*Brooklyn Eagle.*

ALBERT MASON, Publisher,
13 Astor Place, New York.

## F. W. CHRISTERN,

Foreign Bookseller and Importer,
77 UNIVERSITY PLACE, NEW YORK.

Large assortments of the publications of Charpentier, Didier, Didot, Hachette, Lévy Frères, etc., on hand; also complete lists of Tauchnitz's Collection of British Authors, and Teuner's Greek and Roman Classics. All European periodicals received weekly in parcels.

## University Publishing Co.,

155 AND 157 CROSBY STREET,
New York,

Publish Maury's Geographies, Holmes's Readers and Grammars, Venable's Arithmetics, Gildersleeve's Latin, De Vere's French, and other Text-Books. Orders and Correspondence solicited.

Complete in Five Parts.

## Smith's Historical Atlas.

An Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical. Compiled under the superintendence of Dr. William Smith and Mr. George Grove.

This magnificent and valuable work is now completed in Five Parts. It contains forty-two large and beautiful Maps and complete Indexes.

"The whole work is a splendid specimen of what can be achieved by learned labor and technical skill."—*London Athenæum.*

Price $7 per Part.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., Publishers,
BOSTON.

SEND FOR THE CATALOGUES OF

## Schoenhof & Moeller,

IMPORTERS OF BOOKS
AND
*PERIODICALS*
in all Languages and on all the various Subjects,
40 WINTER STREET, BOSTON.

☞ Large stock of School and Miscellaneous Books in the Foreign Languages.

## Selected Poems Now Ready:

ILLUSTRATED.
Printed on Heavy Toned Paper.
*TEN CENTS PER NUMBER.*

No. 1. Locksley Hall (A. Tennyson).
No. 2. The Prisoner of Chillon (Byron), Latest Verses (Byron).
No. 3. The High-Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire (Jean Ingelow), Bernardo del Carpio (Mrs. Hemans).
No. 4. The Bridge of Sighs (T. Hood), Lines to my Mother's Picture (W. Cowper), The Three Fishers (C. Kingsley).
No. 5. Tam O'Shanter (R. Burns), To the Unco Guid (R. Burns).
No. 6. Death of Arthur (A. Tennyson).
No. 7. The Raven (E. A. Poe), Lucy Gray (W. Wordsworth).
No. 8. The Yarn of the Nancy Bell (W. S. Gilbert), The Lost Heir (T. Hood), John Anderson my Jo (R. Burns), Faithless Sally Brown (T. Hood).
No. 9. Make Way for Liberty (J. Montgomery), The Charge of the Light Brigade (A. Tennyson), On the Loss of the Royal George (W. Cowper), The American Flag (Joseph Rodman Drake).
No. 10. Songs of Seven (Jean Ingelow).
No. 11. The Brook (A. Tennyson), Our Dead (Miss A. A. Procter).
No. 12. Mother and Poet (Mrs. E. Browning), The Horn of Egremont Castle (W. Wordsworth), Mary Morrison (R. Burns).
No. 13. The Diver (Schiller), "Break, Break, Break" (A. Tennyson), Illusion (Miss Procter), Death's Final Conquest (J. Shirley).
No. 14. To the Skylark (P. B. Shelley), The Cloud (P. B. Shelley), Ode on a Grecian Urn (John Keats).
No. 15. The Death of the Old Year (A. Tennyson), The Old Year (Francis Turner Palgrave), Dirge for the Year (P. B. Shelley), New Year's Eve (A. Tennyson), Sonnet from the Portuguese (Mrs. Browning), Midnight Mass for the Dying Year (H. W Longfellow), Song of the Silent Land (H. W. Longfellow).
No. 16. The Power of Poetry (Matthew Arnold), The Cotter's Saturday Night (R. Burns), The Banks o' Doon (R. Burns), Bonnie Lesley (R. Burns).
No. 17. Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard (T. Gray), Hallowed Ground (T. Campbell), Is there, for Honest Poverty (R. Burns).
No. 18. The Red Fisherman (W. M. Praed), Ode on a Favorite Cat Drowned in a Tub of Gold Fishes (T. Gray).
No. 19. The Miller's Daughter (A. Tennyson), To Blossoms (Robert Herrick).
No. 20. Hart-leap Well (William Wordsworth), How they Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix (Robert Browning), A Canadian Boat-Song (Thomas Moore).
No. 21. A Legend of Bregenz (Adelaide Procter), The King of Denmark's Ride (Caroline Norton), Gentle River, Gentle River (Thomas Percy).
No. 22. The May Queen (Alfred Tennyson).
No. 23. Dora (A. Tennyson), Alexander's Feast (John Dryden.)
No. 24. Look at the Clock (Thomas Ingoldsby), The Friar of Orders Gray (Thomas Percy), A Charade—"Campbell" (W. M. Praed).

To each purchaser of a complete set of above is given a copy of 'EDWARD OSBORNE.'

## EDWARD OSBORNE.

By the author of 'Mary Powell.' A short story of the Stuart and Elizabethan Times.
*TWENTY-FIVE CENTS.*

## RAB AND HIS FRIENDS.

With two fine Illustrations.
*TEN CENTS.*

KILBOURNE TOMPKINS,
16 Cedar Street, New York.
☞ Will be sent, post-paid, on receipt of price.

*GILMAN'S FIRST STEPS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE is an invaluable aid to persons pursuing a course of reading. It will be sent to any address on receipt of $1 by the publishers. Teachers applying will be allowed a single copy of the book for examination on forwarding 75 cents to Hurd & Houghton, 13 Astor Place, New York; The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass.*

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 10, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE wages of the laborers in the employment of this city were cut down last week from 25 cents an hour to 20 cents, or from $2 for a day of eight hours to $1 60; whereat the laborers were justly indignant, struck work, marched to the City Hall, and expressed their disappointment to General Porter and other officials, who made the excuse that the Board of Apportionment having reduced the appropriations, there was nothing for it but to discharge some of the men now at work, or reduce the rate of wages, so as to employ more. It will thus be seen that the theory of the relation of the taxpayers to the laborers they employ is not one of business, nor yet of charity, but something in the nature of a right to maintenance on the side of the laborers or a duty to maintain on the side of the taxpayers. This is acknowledged just as fully by giving more than the market rate of wages as by employing more men than are needed, and its full recognition has now come to be, as we have often pointed out, a prominent article in the creed of any party which tries to rule in this city. In fact, the municipal works are to all intents and purposes a reproduction of the French Ateliers Nationaux of 1848; and if they are not carried on as yet on so great a scale, it is because more avenues are as yet open to the energetic and enterprising in this country, or because the habit of dependence on the state has not yet got so fully hold of the working-classes here as in France. But the mere existence of such a system here of course operates, year after year, as a strong inducement to the shiftless, lazy, improvident, and incompetent in all parts of the country to come to New York, and they *are* coming steadily and increasingly. Once they get here, they become voters, and decide how much the bankers, and brokers, and shopkeepers, and mechanics ought to spend on drains, pavements, bridges, and other public works, or how many men they ought to employ, what should be the length of the working-day, and how hard a man should work for a given sum. The reason they are allowed to do this is that the nature of a municipal government requires it; and the answer to all objection to it is, "Let the substantial classes attend to their political duties, reason with the lazy and shiftless, and show them by the force of logic that they ought to do more work for less money." Governor Tilden's recognition in his late message of our suggestion that the taxpayers should be allowed to do a good deal of their own work under State superintendence, we take to be a sign that sensible men are beginning to open their eyes to the danger and folly of the present state of things.

---

The revelations made last week by Ingersoll, the Ring chairmaker, who was pardoned by Mr. Tilden for the sake of getting his evidence in the Ring suits, have furnished the officers of the State with the precise links in the chain of proof that were wanting, and have given the newspapers opportunity for a good deal of moralizing. The *Tribune*, for instance, says of James M. Sweeny, the brother and tool of Peter B. Sweeny, who has just died in Paris, that it is not at all improbable that the suits against the Ring were the cause of his death, and closes its reflections with this terrible picture of his latter end: "Banished from the only city of the world where he was likely to find congenial company, and sent by an ironical fate to the most refined and elegant capital of Europe, where no occupations would naturally present themselves to his uneducated mind except worrying and getting tipsy, it would be strange if he had long survived the wreck of his riotous confederacy, or could have faced with any sort of composure the impending loss of his ill-gotten money." The *World* puts the same thing in a more practical way by observing that what really stares these thieves in the face is beggary; they have no property, in all probability, except what they stole from the city, and with the attachment of that their means of support are taken away from them. It will not do, to be sure, to press this too far, for we understand that Peter B. Sweeny is still enjoying himself in Paris, while Connolly spends his winters on the Nile. Still, the machinery now possessed by the State for the prosecution of these claims is very complete, and enables suits to be maintained in foreign courts as well as in those of this country. The fate of Tweed and his gang, some of them in prison, others fugitives from justice, and some of them now threatened with starvation, is certainly an impressive subject for thought, and we trust that no thoughtful criminal in any branch of the public service, State or National, will overlook it.

---

Mr. W. M. Grosvenor, who is probably more conversant with the details of Missouri politics and the lives of Missouri politicians than almost any one in the State, has written a letter to the *Tribune* giving an account of the present condition of politics there. This letter shows plainly enough how necessary it will be for those who are desirous of a general political regeneration in 1876 to keep their skirts clear of entangling alliances with either party meanwhile. The independent voters in Missouri are beginning to think that they have tried the Democratic party as a Reform party sufficiently far, and their one desire in life is to get it out of power again. Mr. Grosvenor gives several reasons for this, among others the election of Cockrell, the inflationist Confederate general, to succeed Schurz in the Senate; but the upshot of them all is that, since the war, the management of both parties has been so rotten that the people who wish good government in the State have turned hopelessly to whichever of them was out of power for relief, only to find that on placing it within reach of temptation it became as bad as its rival. There seems to be little doubt that in Missouri and other Western States the idea of the Democrats as reformers, or of their leaders making demonstrations such as Tilden has made in this State, or Chamberlain in South Carolina, is utterly out of the question, and this also shows how much more evenly balanced the parties are throughout the country at large than most people suppose, and how much will depend in the next Presidential campaign on the character of the nominations on both sides.

---

In Ohio, where the Republicans have also reason to hope for a victory in consequence of Democratic mismanagement and corruption, the Republican platform adopted last Wednesday declares the unity of the nation and the equality of citizens before the laws; urges a non-committal policy of resumption, which will "ultimately equalize" the purchasing capacity of coin and paper; insists on a revenue tariff with incidental protection; declares against any division of the school-fund, and opposes all legislation in the interest of any particular sect; demands "such a revision of the Patent laws as will relieve industry from the oppression of monopolies"; promises gratitude as well as "liberality and generosity" to the soldiers and sailors; insists on the reservation of the public domain for actual settlers; applauds the determination of the Government to collect the revenue and punish frauds; demands a reduction of expenses, as well as of the power of municipal corporations to contract debts; insists on the observance of "Washington's example" as to a third term as part of the "unwritten law" of the Republic; and expresses gratitude to General Grant for the "distinguished success" of his Administration. There is no mistaking the meaning of the third-term resolution, which makes it evident that General Grant's letter came none too soon, nor of the local resolutions. What is said about the currency is unsatisfactory, and the tariff resolution means anything

you please. The policy of interference with the Southern States seems to have been forgotten, and the same thing may be said of the temperance question. The nomination of General Hayes for Governor is regarded as a strong one.

Mr. Charles Nordhoff's letters in the *Herald* throw some very valuable light on the condition of the Southern States. His account of Mississippi in particular is very interesting in more ways than one, inasmuch as in that State there is a colored majority combined with unmitigated rascality on both sides. The mass of the whites, he says, desire peace and quiet; but there is what the Congressional Committee called a wicked element, composed of the old bowie-knife and pistol men, whose bad language about "niggers" exerts, in Mr. Nordhoff's opinion, a most injurious influence on politics, in keeping the negroes massed together and making them afraid of the Democratic party. The Republican party contains a small faction, headed by Senator Ames, Butler's son-in-law, but it is as feeble in numbers as in character, though it has hitherto had the Administration at its back, and the Republicans of the best class have nothing to do with it. The "Ames Republicans," Mr. Nordhoff says, "have unscrupulously used the ignorance and greed of the negroes to help them in their political schemes." They put into such offices as county supervisor and treasurer, as well as into the legislature, negroes who were often "not only unable to read or write, but who were corrupt and corrupting demagogues," and he furnishes some shocking illustrations of negro incapacity and dishonesty. These things are worth notice in illustration of the fact, to which we have so often called attention, that good government at the South did not depend on Republicans being in a majority; that the white discontents were not by any means always the result of simple "cussedness" or "caste hatred."

The railroad war has forced itself on public attention during the week, and the utterances of Mr. Scott and Mr. Garrett, the original and main parties to the contest, have been read with the greatest interest by the holders of all kinds of railroad securities. Personal feeling is shown in the struggle between these rival chiefs in a way which proves that corporate interests are held in smaller account than they should be. In what Mr. Scott has had to say he has disguised this feeling better than has Mr. Garrett. The latter gentleman, if he has been correctly reported, indulges, when alluding to the personal bearings of the subject, in figures of speech; and, when speaking of the effect of the war on his company, shows refreshing assurance. He points to larger receipts than last year, but makes no mention of the increased mileage caused by the new road to Chicago. The inference would be that the lower the rates, the larger the receipts. He asserts that the trade of Baltimore has increased because of this war, whereas the statistics of the port show that it has fallen off; that his company offers no paper in New York, when the fact is that there is hardly a prominent bank here which has not been offered the paper by brokers, and when bankers in a position to know estimate that there are now nearly four millions held here. The actual cost of transporting a ton of freight one mile is about eight mills; it is known that the trunk-lines are taking through freight from competing points at less than that, it being asserted and uncontradicted that contracts have been made at a price less than three mills per mile. If this be so, it is easy to see what will be the result, provided the contest is long continued. Roads which have way-traffic enough to pay the losses on through business and their dividends and interest obligations, if there are any such roads, will survive, and the others will break down. For local business the New York Central stands first, the Pennsylvania and Erie come next, and the Baltimore and Ohio last. Strange as it may sound to those who have listened to the half-political balderdash about the Baltimore and Ohio solving the "problem of cheap transportation," this company charges higher local rates than any other of the trunk-lines. For transporting coal from Western Maryland, its rates at some points are so high as to be prohibitory, leaving the owners of the mines the option of selling their product to the Baltimore and Ohio at one dollar per ton or closing their mines. There is this, however, to be said in favor of the Baltimore and Ohio in this contest. It is free from watered stock, and its bonded debt, although largely increased within three years, is still smaller than the other lines. It has what is called a surplus of over $30,000,000; that is, this amount of surplus earnings has been withheld from the stockholders and invested in the stocks and bonds of connecting roads and in various kinds of railroad property. With railroads in a flourishing condition, part of this surplus would be equivalent to cash; with railroad property depressed, it would be wholly unavailable.

At the Stock Exchange the railroad war has overshadowed all other influences, and prices have advanced or declined as the advices have indicated its termination or continuance. Gold has advanced to 117¼, the specie shipments having amounted to $4,418,000, bringing the total export since January up to nearly $36,000,000, and carrying it above the total of any year since 1868. The shipments are to pay for 5-20 bonds coming here from Europe for redemption under the call of the Treasury. The trade demand for exchange on London is small, and the supply of exchange is also small; early in the week, a large amount of grain was bought for export, but grain makes little exchange, and the export movement had not fairly begun before speculators started prices up, so that even this small source for bills was dried up. The foreign-trade figures show dulness, the total exports, excepting specie, having been $4,268,000, or about $1,000,000 below last year, and the imports $6,004,607, or more than $2,000,000 less than last year. Domestic trade also continues dull; the spring business has closed with but one satisfactory feature, and that is the general prudence exhibited in granting credits. What the autumn trade will be depends very much on the growing crops. At present the indications are favorable both for cotton and grain. Even with the low price of cotton during the past year, the manufacturers of cotton goods have been "doing poorly." The Atlantic Mills, of Lawrence, Mass., which employ 1,250 operatives and turn out 450,000 yards per week, have closed until September. With the general dulness, it is not strange that money is abundant. Legal-tender notes continue to pile up in the New York banks, which hold now nearly $65,000,000, or more than has been held since last September, about $3,500,000 more than last year, and $20,000,000 more than in 1873, before the panic.

The Indian chiefs have left Washington, and will soon return to the Black Hills and report to their people the result of their interview with the Great Father and his two great chiefs, as he calls them, Smith and Delano. Politically and economically, their visit to Washington may come to something, but morally it cannot be said to have been a success. The Indians on the whole must have been impressed chiefly with the desire of the two great chiefs and their Great Father to get hold of their land, and their suspicions of foul dealing were probably not allayed by the fact that about the time of their arrival in Washington there was an "exposure" of one of the great chiefs, and it was generally announced by the newspapers that he was to retire from office on account of corrupt practices. Then the interpreters seem to have modified everything they interpreted, so that each interview was generally half occupied with corrections of the misstatements or lies contained in the official record of the one just preceding it. The Indians, however, are apparently shrewd at a bargain, and showed that they had caught the spirit of the place, one of the chiefs hinting to Delano that he could easily understand from his own experience with his people at home how the white chief felt about the newspapers; and Red Cloud, on the Administration's suggesting that it desired his photograph, declining to let it be taken unless the Government should "put up" twenty-five dollars. They were assured on all sides that the Great Father wished to do everything that was just and kind, but they have evidently heard this before. The trouble with them

is that they do not understand the value of the great discovery of modern politics, viz., that you must infer the probable acts of a person from his own description to you of his motives. If you infer his motives from his acts, you spoil the whole game.

The Baltimore *Katholische Volks-Zeitung*, a German newspaper published under the sanction of the Archbishop and other ecclesiastical authorities, recently, by way of showing up the iniquity of the Falk Laws, gave its readers a glimpse of court-life in Berlin for which we trust the editor is doing heavy penance. He says that "unbelievers" in all states are the most immoral, dishonorable, shameless, filthy, and depraved persons, and declares that "the most terrible immorality and frightfully vicious life have assumed shocking dimensions among non-Catholic people." Of this the pious rascal gives the following horrid examples: In Berlin there are 150,000 depraved women, many of whom assail passers-by in broad daylight in a state of nature, and, if a policeman interfered, he would be murdered. The Crown Princess, Queen Victoria's daughter, has no more faith than a horse, was an intimate friend of the infidel Strauss, and gave a masked ball not long ago at which drunken military officers appeared as monks and nuns, and "indulged in offensive, immoral gestures and movements." The Princess's character is notoriously bad, and she has many illegitimate children, while her husband has at least thirty; in fact, all the officers of the guard are illegitimate sons of high personages, and there is a special department in the Cabinet whose duty it is to provide names and coats-of-arms for this class of the population. The morals of the local bodies are no better, and, in fact, the rest of the exposures of these German Protestants are so grossly indecent that they will not bear reproduction in any form. Now, we should greatly like to know what Archbishop Bayley and Bishop Wood, who allow themselves to be advertised as patrons of this journal, think of the foregoing account of Prussian manners, and what they think of a religious paper which feeds the faithful in this manner. Their fellow-citizens have a right to know whether it really goes into Catholic families with the stamp of their approval.

It is so short a time since the Russian Government began to let the world know anything about its finances that the study of them has still the charm of novelty, and the steady rise in its credit is among the remarkable financial phenomena of the day. The last loan for railroad purposes—that is, the last issue of railroad bonds with a Government guarantee at 4½ per cent. interest—brought 92 on the London markets. The previous issue now sells at 102 to 105. But the history of Russian revenue and expenditure since 1852, when the publication of the budget began, is curious and significant. The naval and military expenditure has just doubled in that period, while the sum devoted to education has only increased one-third. The public debt is just three times what it was in 1852, and the public revenue and expenditure are not double what they were. The exports of all kinds—though they consist almost entirely of raw products—have quadrupled. Russia's principal trade is with Germany, which now has become a steady customer for her grain, and, on the other hand, sends her now fully one-half her imports. It may interest the Western Granger to know that England is about the furthest market eastward that he can hereafter hope to reach with his cereals on his trans-continental double-track, steel railroad, because although Russia has only about a quarter of a mile of railroad, to the geographical square mile, to the three miles of the United States, her production of corn is increasing so rapidly that she has already secured the German market for her cereals, and will probably not be dislodged from it except by the opening of the valley of the Danube by additional railroads; and will probably stand ready to supply any other country of the European continent which, like Germany, ceases to produce food enough for its wants, at rates which no robbery of bondholders will enable the Western farmer to compete with. Nearly half of her exports last year was in grain, one-eighth was in flax, one-eighteenth in hemp, and about as much in lumber.

The latest French financial statement from M. Léon Say is, however, a far more remarkable tale than any other nation has to tell. The war has added in round numbers $155,000,000 to the annual charges of the Government, and in this we make no allowance for the increase of burden caused by the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. Nevertheless, if we leave out of account the annual repayments of $40,000,000 to the Bank of France, the Government has had a surplus every year since 1871, and $130,000,000 of new taxes have been laid on. The indirect taxes alone yielded in 1874 over $370,000,000, or more than the whole annual revenue of Great Britain, equal to that of the United States; and this was an increase of about $10,000,000 over 1873. M. Léon Say estimates his surplus next year at $30,000,000, which the London *Economist* does not think by any means over-sanguine, and he therefore proposes to impose no new additional burdens on the country, and even sees a not very remote prospect of beginning to reduce the debt or the taxes, or both. But he announces his intention of postponing the resumption of specie payments until January 1, 1878, on the ground that the plan of taking time to prepare is a good one, as is shown by the example of England in 1819 and of the United States to-day. But then he must not suppose that the delay here was resolved on by Congress as part of a carefully weighed financial scheme. Congress fixed on 1879 as the year for our resumption simply because the period is far enough off to give nobody any concern, and therefore to take the financial question out of the political arena; and then we have a discount on paper to be got rid of, as the English had in 1819, while the French issues are at par. His other reason is, that if he resumed specie payments the Bank of France would have to withdraw the convertible notes which it was allowed to issue during the war as part of the consideration of the loan it made to the Government at the low rate of one per cent., and therefore the Government ought, in common fairness, to repay the loan in full, which it is not now able to do, before ordering resumption in coin.

We are far from defending, or even apologizing, for the view said to be taken by the military party in Germany as to the course which it would be advisable for the Empire to adopt toward France; but, in judging of the morality of it, it is well to remember that it does not originate with the Germans. The French did precisely this accursed thing in 1870—that is, attacked Germany in order to crush her, not because she had inflicted any injury on France, but because she appeared to be growing stronger than Frenchmen liked; and the fact that Louis Napoleon did not do this at an earlier period was treated by the Opposition as the cardinal error of his career. Moreover, M. Thiers preached again and again in the Assembly the duty of discouraging and, where practicable, preventing the formation of strong states around France. So that if the Junker party were to attack France to-day, in order to overwhelm her before she had completed her military organization, they would be only following French precedents. This would not excuse or palliate the offence; but it does make some of the French horror over the ferocity of the German *hobereaux* somewhat unbecoming.

The Prussian bishops have published a reply to the rescript of the Government of the 9th of April, in which they maintain that the Falk Laws contain a whole series of provisions which conflict with the existence and constitution of the church; deny that obedience to such laws is rendered by the Catholic clergy in any country; but affirm that, touching many of these provisions, an amicable understanding with the Government might be reached; declare that, as regards the submission of the bishops to the Vatican Decrees, they had no alternative—to ask to disobey them is to ask them to abandon the Catholic faith—and that the Decrees have furnished no adequate excuse for the Government legislation. They try to prove this by citing the example of other Catholic countries in which, except the Grand-Duchy of Baden and some cantons of Switzerland, no trouble has occurred in consequence of them. The only thing noteworthy in the reply is the evidence it contains, however slight it may be, that the bishops would be glad to compromise.

## LOUISIANA AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.

WE publish on another page a letter from a New Hampshire correspondent who invites us to consider the striking similarity between the present election case in New Hampshire and the Louisiana case of last winter, and who says that he has been looking from week to week to see us "deal with Governor Weston and his Council in the same unsparing manner" in which we have dealt with lawless officials in the Southern States. We should have no hesitation in "dealing with" him, and his Council too, did the case warrant such severe measures; but the muddle into which the politicians have got themselves in New Hampshire has all along seemed to us at once too technical and too much like other election cases which arise from time to time in the Northern States, and too likely also to come up for judicial decision in the courts, to make it worth while for us to "deal with" anybody about it, except with some of the more partisan newspapers, which were making a tremendous clamor over a case which they certainly did not understand any too thoroughly. In speaking of the case last week, we expressly declined to give any opinion on the merits, and merely said that if the Secretary of State's view of the law was correct, there would seem to be nothing to say in reply to his letter; and this we say again. It seems, however, that the Republican rejoinder to this defence is that the Secretary is not correct in his view of the law; that the Governor and Council, though they may "examine" the votes, are not a judicial body; that the moderators of the towns are the officials who have, short of the legislature, all the authority over elections; and that after the moderator has made his decision, and the town-clerk has recorded his "declaration," nobody can take external evidence to determine who was really elected but the two houses of the legislature, each of which is, as everybody admits, the final judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members.

The undisputed facts in the New Hampshire case are these: At the last election there was no choice for Governor, and the election was in this way thrown into the hands of the legislature. That body is, however, closely divided, and the change of a very small number of seats would give one party or the other the coveted power of electing the Governor. The Governor and Council are, in the case of the Senate, the returning board, who receive from the town-clerks the result of the voting, "examine" this result, and send the names of those who appear to be elected to the clerk of the Senate, and the list thus made out furnishes the roll of the Senate as it first stands. There are two disputed cases, but that of "Natt" Head is the more important one. The law undoubtedly required the moderators to throw out all the votes cast for "Natt" Head, because his full name was Nathaniel. In that case the election would have been carried by Priest, and to Priest the Governor and Council have given it. Of course, if they had no right to go into the question at all, they have done wrong, and deserve to be blamed for it. If they had any judicial authority, then the limits of that authority should be determined by the courts in a peaceful and orderly manner, and that is exactly what, as we write, is now being done.

It will be seen that there are, as our correspondent points out, certain resemblances between the New Hampshire and the Louisiana cases. In both there have been elections of the State legislature, and in both the result has placed each party so nearly even with the other that the change of a few votes would give the practical control of the State to either of them. In each case the election returns were sent by the local election officers to the central returning board, and by them "examined."

Here, however, the resemblance completely ends, while the differences which the subsequent proceedings reveal are so glaring that, far from seeing in the present condition of New Hampshire politics a repetition of the Louisiana case, we should select it as a very good illustration of the normal working of republican institutions. But in order that there may be no doubt about the matter, we will state the various proceedings which the New Hampshire politicians should have taken to make the cases parallel, and promise that if any such a series of events takes place there, or in any other State, we will denounce the people who are responsible for it unsparingly. In the first place, the Democratic Governor and Council of New Hampshire, if they had meant to follow the Louisiana precedent, would not have wasted their time and labor in correcting the mistakes made at the polls in such trifling matters as the counting of votes which were legally blanks, and after all have left it an open question whether the Democrats or the Republicans had carried the day; they would have got quietly together in a room, where they would have gone over the returns until they had found out exactly how many seats in the Senate were needed by their party, after which they would have taken up the returns on which Democrats were declared elected, and passed them, reserving the Republican cases till the end; then, taking the Republicans whom they found declared elected, but whom it was necessary to unseat, they would have proceeded to examine into the circumstances of their election, and to certify thereupon that owing to conclusive evidence of "fraud" or "corruption" at the polls, these seats were vacant. They or their political friends would at the same time have applied to Washington for troops on the ground of expectation of bloodshed and domestic violence, which the President would, of course, have been obliged to grant. They would then have proceeded to organize the legislature, and on an attempt being made by that body to organize itself, the troops would have come in and organized it for them, by driving out a number of them at the point of the bayonet. The general in command would have issued his proclamation denouncing the chief Republicans of the State as banditti, and telegraphed to Washington for permission to court-martial and execute them. The "Natt" Head question would then have been referred to the President, to whom the general in command would probably have telegraphed that, if "Natt's" votes were not counted, violence and anarchy would rule the State; the President would have referred the "Natt" Head question to Congress; Congress would have had an investigating committee about it; this committee would have divided into two parts, and one would have taken one side of the question, one another, and the "Natt" Head case would have become a great national question, which could only have been settled by a sort of international treaty drawn up as between sovereign powers, and signed by people who had no more authority in the premises under the Constitution and the laws than the Khedive or the Guikwar of Baroda.

We do not say that all this will not happen in New Hampshire, but we do not believe that it will, for the simple reason that it is an American State, governed by American customs and laws, and in the habit of settling its political questions in the American manner, by legal means, and not by external force. The indignation of some of the Republican papers over the New Hampshire affair furnishes very good reading for the moralist who has managed to keep himself in happy ignorance of recent political history. But those who are familiar with the events of the last twenty years, and have any habits of reflection, can hardly help wondering, not that such things should be, but that they have not happened oftener. This particular kind of unscrupulousness or illegality with which the New Hampshire Democrats are charged, is emphatically one which can only be extirpated by the resolute determination of one political party, at least, to refrain from and discountenance it. It may be said to have been begun by the Democrats in the latter days of the anti-slavery conflict, and it is a sort of device which the peculiar composition of that party makes very attractive. In other words, the moral tone of a large body of the members is not very high, while their interest in politics is very keen. The discouragement and reprobation of such practices ought, therefore, to have been a leading feature in Republican policy, and this discouragement and reprobation ought to have been displayed in practice, as well as on the stump and in editorial articles. To resort to it either in retaliation or for the promotion of high aims was a tolerably sure way to give it a permanent lodgment in American political practice; and this the Republicans, as soon as they came out of the war, unhappily did

not hesitate to do at the South. The Force Bills, to say nothing of the electioneering carried on under the superintendence of the Attorney-General, were simply Republican declarations that wherever they had the game in their own hands they meant to play it in their own way. We are, therefore, very glad for our part that the New Hampshire incident has occurred soon enough after the Louisiana affair to bring home to the minds of Republican statesmen the fact that the little arts they have been practising at the South are capable of being closely imitated by their Democratic fellow-citizens, and that there is no way under heaven of giving the good and pure a monopoly of fraud and violence.

## STRIKES AND SPECULATION.

THE failure of the Aberdare Iron Company in England, which is acknowledged to have been hastened or precipitated by strikes, is worth attention as an illustration of the way in which the condition of the labor market, not in England only, but in other commercial countries, contributes to the growth of the spirit of speculation, over which there is just now so much lamentation. The Stock Exchange in this country has long been a favorite object of denunciation to indignant moralists; and there are a good many pious people in various parts of the country who fancy that its abolition by law should form the first step in any attempt to purify the national morals. The London Exchange for a good while preserved a better character, but of late it, too, has fallen into disgrace. The history of some of the recent operations on it is anything but edifying reading. In fact, some of its members have felt obliged to write letters to the papers justifying its existence, in consequence of the recent disclosures as to the mode in which foreign government loans are put on the London market. But no exposures or denunciations lessen the importance of the Stock Exchange, or retard the steady growth of the dealings in stocks of one sort or another, or tend to make them less attractive to the general public, or to diminish the amount of capital which is used in holding them for a rise or fall. It must be observed, too, that the spirit of speculation is not confined to stocks; it extends to all commodities—cotton, grain, tea, coffee, sugar, and in fact to everything which is largely dealt in, and the supply of which is affected by contingencies of one sort or another. The pulpit, the newspapers, and all the better sort of popular writers, are unwearied in their praises of slow gains, the gradual accumulation of wealth by fidelity and assiduity, and of the dangers of over-eagerness to be rich; but steady industry, nevertheless, does not grow in popular estimation as much as one could wish. The credit of the slow-going, faithful man does not grow in proportion to that of the skilful operator. The boys do not like to serve long apprenticeships; the young men do not like to work their way up in obscure or out-of-the-way places, where fortune has no surprises in store. Everybody wants to get to the large cities, where there is a chance of a "quick turn" and of getting a fortune before one grows old. People like to have their diamonds and champagne while they are young, and find they can have a great deal of enjoyment without "the respect of all who know them."

Now, whatever increases the uncertainties of regular business enterprises, and whatever makes the results of ordinary industry seem doubtful, unquestionably fosters the speculative fever. The ease with which small men can now borrow money, and thus increase competition, has greatly reduced already the number of great mercantile houses, and will probably prevent the founding of any more like those in whose hands the banking and foreign trade of England and this country lay at the beginning of the present century. Nobody can go to India or China in our day and be sure of a fortune by mere steadiness. No merchant can despatch well-assorted cargoes to various parts of the world, and then wait patiently until the ships come back, with the certainty of making money, if they escape shipwreck and pirates. The despatch of goods to a foreign port is but the beginning of anxiety, because their value changes every hour until their arrival. The submarine cables, too, have ruined the brokers who had made a reputation for sagacity and foresight, by enabling every small speculator to flash his offers of commodities at any distance direct to the buyer, without the intervention of the broker, and to "cut under" the broker.

The discontent of the laboring class is having a similar effect on those branches of industry which require large investments of capital and make slow returns, such as iron-making, spinning, and mining. They make it a little more difficult to estimate cost, and a little more doubtful what the result will be of any undertaking requiring a long period for its execution. For instance, the immense ship-building establishments which a few years ago flourished on the Thames have been driven away to the Clyde, owing to the impossibility of making estimates of work to be done by London workmen. A strike means a change of greater or less amount in the cost of production then pending. In the case of contracts adjusted as nicely as contracts have to be in the present state of competition, even a slight change may sometimes work ruin. The anxiety of a contest with workmen under such circumstances, especially on a falling market, can hardly be imagined by an outsider. It would not be easy to overestimate the amount of it which must have preceded a catastrophe so great as the failure of the Aberdare Company; and this anxiety produces its effect on the bystanders, especially on the young men. When they see the ruin of their seniors wrought, not by extravagance or unskilfulness or want of judgment, but by what they consider the crankiness or folly of laborers, they either turn their faces away from fields in which toil does not bring its due reward and which do not yield the excitement of gambling, or they determine to do business in some quicker and slighter way, which, by bringing in returns more rapidly, will lighten risks. This is the secret of much of the imperfect work of our day. It is imperfect because, to make sure of the profits, it has to be done quickly.

The extent to which public and private morals rest on certainty as to the future exceeds all ordinary conception. Neither civilization nor character can be said to begin to grow until people can look forward for a few years, and conclude with confidence that if they do a certain thing for a certain length of time, assured results will follow. Uncertainty is always barbarizing, and indeed may be said to constitute the essence of barbarism. The most striking feature in savage life is the general distrust about the next day, or even the next hour; the most striking feature in civilized life is the general confidence that things will happen in a certain prearranged sequence. All legislation, or social disorders, whether strikes, riots, or wars, which diminish this confidence, sap the foundations of morality in a greater or less degree—it may be only slightly, but still surely. It is in this way that cheating by governments, like the Potter Law in Wisconsin, helps to foster the gambling tendency in human nature and make steady devotion to laborious callings distasteful; and it is on this tendency that the enormous system of modern "stock operations" rests. A like effect is produced by lawlessness such as that which prevails in the Pennsylvania coal regions, in many parts of the South, and in the South American states. This accounts, too, for the success of many despotisms; if they do nothing else, they preserve order, which means, on the moral side, confidence in the future; and when you give a man this, you enable him, if not to make the most of himself, to make a great deal.

## THE BOOK-KEEPING OF RELIGIOUS PUBLICATION SOCIETIES.

IN theory a religious publication society is the organized production and distribution, by sale or gift, of books, periodicals, and tracts inculcating such forms of belief as are held by the persons constituting and maintaining the organization. Most commonly it is directly connected with some particular religious body, but in some cases represents a union of various bodies having a common interest in the conduct of the society. When fully equipped, it procures MSS., manufactures them in appropriate forms, sells them through the book-trade or over its own counter or by special agents, and also makes gifts of them where it finds a sale inexpedient or impossible. For carrying on this enterprise it relies on the sales of its publications and on contributions in money, solicited through paid agents

or associate organizations ; it establishes a printing-office and bindery, an engraver's shop, a book-store with branch offices ; it employs secretaries, editors, and other salaried officers, and has its newspaper organ in which to call attention to its work and its publications. Sermons are preached in its interest, public meetings held, and a considerable amount of machinery set in motion to keep it in active operation. Those who contribute to its funds do so on the ground that thereby religious truth, of a more or less special character, is disseminated. The appeal to them is made on this ground ; this is the sole object in their mind ; and they regard the society as a delegated agent to do in an organized way what as individuals they themselves cannot do. Moreover, by their relation to the society, they are predisposed to buy their religious literature mainly, if not exclusively, of them.

This, we say, is the theory of a religious publication society. Practically, it is a publishing concern, differing from other publishing houses not only in having a large body of interested patrons, but in being substantially removed from the ordinary perils of business. It is able in an exigency to rely upon reserve funds, which are not lent but given outright for the support of the concern, and the possibility of failure is almost entirely left out of account, not because the business is impregnably established upon sound business principles, but because it is insured against loss by daily deposits which are never called for by the depositors. Or, to put the case in a still clearer light, the society as a publishing house may at any time avail itself of the trust funds which it holds as a trustee of charitable money, and in doing this have all the appearance of transacting a legitimate business, and of using the trust funds exactly as the donors intended. If, as is customary, the books of the charitable department and the books of the publishing department are kept separate, it is perfectly easy, so long as public confidence in the society continues, to make each set of books show a balance on the right side.

Let us illustrate this point by one or two examples. A manuscript is offered for publication and accepted by the committee. The author is paid a certain sum in full for all claims, the manuscript is stereotyped, the book printed and bound, and offered for sale. But, as may happen even to an irreligious book, it fails to find buyers enough to take more than half the edition. The society finds itself with the remaining half on its hands as dead stock. An ordinary publisher, after trying all ordinary means of disposal, can only send the books to the mill to be ground, the stereotype plates to the foundry to be melted, credit his venture with a good deal less than the cost of the paper he bought to print the books on, and so many pounds of type-metal at a few cents a pound, where he has paid perhaps a dollar a pound for stereotyping, and charge the net result to profit and loss. But the society need never come to such a pass. As a business house, it can sell the unsalable books to itself as a charitable association, at any price from retail to wholesale that it judges expedient, credit the business with the sale, give away the books through its agents, and charge the charitable department with the cost of the books and the cost of distribution. In this case the business balance-sheet shows a profit, and the charitable sheet is properly charged with a legitimate grant of religious reading.

Another example will illustrate the same point. The society issues a paper at a subscription price which cannot cover the cost of production unless a very large edition is circulated. As one means of increasing the circulation, it adopts a plan much in vogue amongst newspaper publishers, and issues a large extra edition of a single number, sending the sheets to a multitude of addresses, and urging the persons receiving this specimen number to examine it and be induced to subscribe for the year. It is to be expected that a certain percentage of the people receiving these specimens will subscribe ; they have been advertised of the paper by this means. Now, the society need not charge the expense of this extra edition to the publication of the paper. It discovers that it sent the specimens out for the purpose of distributing religious literature freely, and so it charges the cost of the paper and the cost of distribution, including postage, to the charitable department. Upon the business-books the transaction appears as the sale of a large edition of the paper, passed to its credit ; upon the charitable books, as the grant of religious papers, including expense of distribution—a very proper and legitimate charge upon the society in this function. We add one further illustration drawn from the management of periodicals. The strong competition which exists among the several societies in the publication of papers requires that the price laid upon them should be in some cases less than cost ; to repair this damage, it is only necessary to charge the charitable department, which is a large purchaser, at a higher rate than the subscribers are charged. In brief, when the business part of the concern fails to make a good investment, it can dispose of its unsalable goods to a customer, the charitable department, which stands ready to take them at any time at something above the highest market rate ; when the business wishes to secure extensive advertising, to increase the volume of its sales, it can by a simple device get its advertising done for nothing, and make a handsome sale to the advertiser at the same time ; when the business finds itself hard pressed in competition, it finds a generous backer in the charitable department, which has the satisfaction of doing good to the world at large and its own brother in particular by a single stroke.

The competition with kindred societies suggests the relation which any one of these societies holds toward the book-trade in general. A correspondent of the *Publishers' Weekly* some time since entered a complaint against the religious publication societies that they were in the habit of making special discounts to Sunday-schools, thereby preventing the retail dealer from keeping the only customers whom he could expect for the class of books in question. To this the editor replied : "The chief difficulty in this matter comes of the complication of the religious publishing societies with the general trade. These publication houses, so far as they are charitable and missionary in organization, do not come within trade lines, and cannot be expected to look at matters of price from the trade point of view." We should suspect the editor of irony if we did not know that this double character of the houses in question had confused the heads even of those who managed them. The relation which the societies hold to the general book-trade is a part of our subject which calls for separate and special treatment ; we content ourselves here with pointing out a single instance in which regular laws are interfered with by the action of the religious publication society. It issues a great many books for young people, with special reference to the Sunday-school libraries. There are other publishers engaged in the enterprise of publishing the same class of books, and building up their business indeed upon this foundation. These books must be cheap ; but in order that any single copy of a book may be cheap, it is necessary that a large edition of the book should be issued and sold. Here comes in the superior advantage of the religious publication society. It may double or treble the size of the edition which an ordinary publisher would think it prudent to issue of the same book, and thus reduce the divided cost, and consequently the retail price of each copy. It can, therefore, submit its books to schools or single buyers at a uniformly lower rate than individual publishers can afford, compelling the latter to cheapen the books they offer in order to compete with their more favorably placed rivals.

It is thus seen that such a society has an immense advantage by the side of an ordinary publishing house. It can publish freely, pay salaries, issue neat annual reports overflowing with testimony to the value of the publications, but somewhat reserved in the statement of accounts, hold public meetings, and go on its way rejoicing, while an ordinary publishing house with the same list of publications would very probably be enjoying a day of judgment long before its day of jubilee came. It may be said that the very object of these societies and the condition under which they work give them a natural advantage ; that they are not business houses constituted for earning money, but associations for disbursing money in the form of books or other publications, and that the criticism which we have offered at the most only affects their mode of adjusting accounts ; that it is for the interest of the public which they represent to maintain the societies, even at a loss, for the express purpose of keeping in circulation the literature which they produce and distribute. We are not inveighing against the organized production and distribution of religious literature, we are considering only the method of the organization ; and it is just because of the nature of its work that we regard criticism of its methods imperative.

Every religious publication society is a trustee. It holds funds committed to it for a single purpose. No one consciously contributes money for the purpose of keeping a complicated machinery of publication in operation ; the funds are given to supply people with a special class of literature ; and it is assumed that the trustees, or the society, understands how to use this money prudently, so that as little as possible shall be expended upon the agency. How do the trustees invest these funds ? Originally they put them into a business—the business of publishing and selling books—which is notoriously uncertain, requiring the closest possible attention, the most scrupulous economy in management ; a business quick to feel any general depression in the country, and open to the sharpest competition. No publishing house in the country could maintain itself that was conducted, as to its selection of books, by an irresponsible committee, and as to the manufacture and sale of them, by salaried officers who had nothing at stake beyond a position not likely to be taken from them unless they were grossly inefficient. It must be remembered that a religious publishing society, when fully equipped, is not a mere bookselling house, but it is a manufacturing house as well, and undertakes to carry on the complicated business of printing and binding, in fair weather and foul, with all the risks that attend this kin of manufacturing. No printing office, it is safe to say, could be

profitably carried on long without the stimulus which personal interest on the part of its proprietor supplied. The profit of the business is in its saving, and he saves whose living depends on his saving. Originally, we said, the trustees put the trust money into this business; when fully under way, the donations which come in and the legacies left to the society are ostensibly devoted to the distribution of the literature furnished by the society, and great pains is taken to assert this fact, but we have shown above by how simple a process the charitable receipts are made to cover a deficiency in the business receipts, while they figure upon the books as exclusively used for the purpose intended by the donors. We have analyzed the reports of several of these societies, and the same conclusion is reached in all. It is unfortunate, however, for a clear understanding that the published exhibits are very brief as a rule, and the whole system of book-keeping employed so complex that only an expert could be expected to discover wherein a society had failed in the faithful execution of the trust.

We are not writing in any spirit of enmity toward the societies; we simply criticise the methods employed, and we offer what seems to us a simple and intelligible solution of the problem involved in the management of a religious publication society. That people will desire to make use of agencies for propagating the belief they hold we grant, and we also contend that they have a right to demand the utmost possible simplicity and directness, the least possible opportunity for mismanagement, and the most open exhibit of accounts. The first and final step to be taken is for the society to dissolve completely the partnership between charity and trade. It was not instituted to make and sell books which people are eager to buy, but to provide books which it regards as so good for people that they must be persuaded to take them as a gift in most cases. It is absolutely impossible in the nature of things for such a society to be self-supporting as a business house, and it has no moral right to put forward such a pretension, when it knows that collapse would follow a general withdrawal of funds entrusted to it.

Now, supposing the society to have a suitable manuscript in hand, it may judiciously determine that it is expedient to have it stereotyped, but there is no necessity for setting up a composing-room and stereotype foundry for this purpose; there are enough such offices eager for the work, and stereotype plates may be made at the lowest market rates. Thus far the society takes upon itself no extraordinary risks, and is about its legitimate business. If the book has elements of popularity, a publisher can easily be found who will take on himself the risk of paper, printing, binding, and selling, paying a royalty to the society for the use of the plates, and thus the society will get back something on its investment, while it shares the interest of the publisher in securing a general sale of the book. Moreover, it can buy as many copies as it sees fit, at cost, for free distribution. Again, supposing the society desirous of distributing books and tracts which nobody will buy at any price, still its most economical method is not to engage in the risky business of manufacturing, but to order its goods made by manufacturers constantly engaged in such work; by so doing, it does not lock up its capital in presses and type, which it must keep constantly busy or suffer loss. By this simple process the society rids itself of the risks and cumbrous machinery of publication; it reduces current expenses by having no bookstore nor a large body of clerks; free from the embarrassments of business, it is enabled to use the money entrusted to it for the legitimate purpose designed. It can move slowly or quickly in the matter of publishing, according as the funds come in for the purpose. It is not obliged, as other publishing houses are, to keep publishing whether times are dull or not. It can make a full and perfectly intelligible exhibit of its finances; and, above all, the whole proceeding will be upon a ground of honesty and not subject to the severe strains which we have pointed out above. We are not proposing an untried scheme. Historical publication societies at home and abroad have adopted the plan, and at least one English and two American religious publishing societies are to-day organized upon this general basis. We are convinced that sooner or later every religious publication society in the country must pass through the ordeal of an investigation of its affairs, to determine whether or not its entire method is false and misleading.

## ENGLAND.—MR. GRANT DUFF'S POLITICAL SURVEY.

LONDON, May 22, 1875.

THE town of Elgin, in the northeast of Scotland, is the very last place in the United Kingdom in which you would expect to find a political reservoir filled to the brim with liberal wisdom, and overflowing into the streets and byways of less favored cities from its superabundance of interesting, uncommon, and instructive information. Elgin is an unobtrusive little town, surrounded by corn-fields telling from the heaviness of their crops of patient husbandry and superior farming. It is separated from the Northern Ocean by three or four miles of bleak arable land and benty sand-hills peopled with rabbits. It is inhabited by a gentle but unprogressive population, one-half old maids, the other half pensioned officials and retired shopkeepers. There are no manufactories and no trade to speak of. It is not a garrison town. There are no educational institutions of any note, there is no professional life—not even a hydropathic establishment or anything of the kind—to give a zest to existence or a stimulus to intellectual or material development. There is no reason why Elgin should have any place in the universe except one—and that is, that, conjointly with three or four other towns worse than itself, it returns Mr. Grant Duff to Parliament as its representative.

Mr. Grant Duff is comparatively a young man. He was born, as it appears from Dod's 'Parliamentary Companion,' in 1829, in the North of Scotland. He was educated at Edinburgh and at Balliol College, Oxford—the educational dry nurse of all distinguished Scotchmen and not a few distinguished Englishmen. He entered Parliament, as representative for the Elgin district of burghs, in 1857, and was Under-Secretary of State for India during the late Gladstone Administration. He was also Lord Rector of Aberdeen University from 1866 to 1872. Such is the dry record of his life, accurate enough, because Dod is always accurate, but, to those who have watched his Parliamentary career more closely than Dod, supremely inadequate. It is not too much to say that the member for the Elgin burghs has, during the eighteen years of his Parliamentary life, proved himself, perhaps without exception, the most assiduous statesman in the House of Commons. I use the word "statesman" advisedly. There are many more assiduous politicians, bustling about the lobbies of the House and the reception-rooms of the leaders of their party, moving heaven and earth to win an election here or catch a vote there, or hamper a political opponent for the good not of the commonwealth but of their own particular faction in it. Mr. Grant Duff has eschewed any claims to statesmanship which may be gained by such means as these. He has rested his title to political influence on the hard work of political study, pursued not in England only, but over the whole range of political life. He never rests. In season and out of season, he is always working, flying about from one source of political instruction to another, and laying up stores of wisdom and information, and anecdote to help the wisdom and information down; and all his rich hive of political honey which he has thus diligently piled up, he lavishes once a year upon his Elgin constituents. So that out of this unlikely locality there comes an extra Parliamentary address every year which finds its way into prominent places in leading newspapers both at home and abroad, and is more canvassed and criticised and discussed in society and by the press than nine-tenths of the leading speeches which are delivered within the walls of the two Houses of Parliament.

There is something curious in the manner of this annual manifesto. A very old story is extant of a Presbyterian divine, the incumbent of two barren rocks in the Frith of Clyde, with a scanty population of some hundred souls, who, in offering up a prayer for the prosperity of the rocks in question, was wont to beseech the Almighty at the same time and in his great mercy not to overlook the adjacent islands of Great Britain and Ireland. So it is with Mr. Grant Duff. He preaches nominally to the town of Elgin, but in reality his words are addressed not to it, nor even to the adjacent islands of Great Britain and Ireland, but to the whole Eastern hemisphere. Nor does he stay his course even there. At times, indeed, he seems almost to annihilate space. His eye glances across the sea, and in its survey takes in the more prominent institutions and the newest combinations in your country and in Southern America. And all these institutions and combinations, both of the Old World and of the New, he passes in review before his bewildered constituents in Elgin for their political amelioration.

And even stronger heads than those of his northern electors might feel dizzy at the contemplation of the mass of men and things which Mr. Grant Duff brings before them. He takes his constituents, as a London daily newspaper profanely but appositely puts it, up an exceeding high mountain apart, and shows them all the kingdoms of the earth in a moment of time. I have a collection of his addresses before me which was published in 1868, and is called a "Political Survey." It is dedicated to his constituents, and given to them in the form of a book and not on the platform, as he had intended. "These addresses were begun," he says, "with a view to their being delivered to audiences in the Elgin district of burghs. The necessity, however, of making a large number of speeches on our internal politics during the month preceding the recent election, and other circumstances, having prevented my actually delivering them, I now offer them to you through the press." The brain whirls and the sight grows dim as you

read the contents of this book. It commences with Europe, and surveys the internal politics of France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Germany, Austria, Russia, and all the minor states. Part II. treats with equal minuteness of Asiatic Turkey, Persia, Central Asia, China, and two or three less familiar states, and then takes up another continent, and lays bare before the eyes of Elgin the true condition of the West Coast of Africa, of Madagascar, of Abyssinia and Zanzibar, and two or three more African empires. Parts III. and IV. are devoted to the Western Hemisphere and the United States ; Mexico, Central America, and Hayti being dealt with in Part III., and Columbia, Venezuela, Brazil, and a host more of the states of South America, in Part IV. All this, including a Review and Conclusion, is compressed into some 240 moderately-sized pages of largish print. And the information given is not such as a man picks up out of encyclopædias, or abbreviated histories, or the tales of special correspondents to the daily papers. It is mostly new, and relating to events which have just happened, or are likely to happen, in the respective countries. The view, no doubt, of the political situations is such as a man would see of the material situations from a balloon floating gently over the universe. But the events forming the subjects of this bird's-eye view are grouped together with intelligence and skill, and, though the summary is bewildering, it is always original and interesting. Some people like being bewildered by an original and interesting man, and it is only reasonable to suppose that this is the case with the electors of Elgin, otherwise they would not have stood by their present member for eighteen years.

The address which he delivered the day before yesterday was less bewildering and not less interesting than usual. He has visited, as he explained to his audience, every country in Europe except Portugal, and studied all their institutions—his system being not to take anything at second-hand, but to visit a country first and read about it afterwards. On the present occasion he had reversed the process. He had studied India as an intelligent politician through the dark glass of official life, when he was Under-Secretary for India in the Gladstone Administration. But now that the Gladstone Administration had come to an end and his official services were no longer wanted, he took advantage of the opportunity to acquaint himself with the true character of the great empire he had been governing at home. He went out to India last November, and spent some months in the country, seeing with his own eyes what he had only read in despatches, and mastering with his great ability and assiduity the details of the government of the empire. He has just returned to England, taking Italy, France, and Germany on his way, and he has paid his constituents the high compliment of an early visit. His personal doings when in India are being recorded from month to month in the *Contemporary Review*, and most interesting and suggestive records they are, and well worthy of perusal. The opinions which he formed on this his pilgrimage, or at least the most important of them, both with regard to India and to the present state of Europe, he has just given us in this address to the burghers of Elgin in the first instance, and to the world in the second.

I do not mean to give you even a summary of these opinions, as doubtless you will have them in full before this reaches you. They are all colored with the optimist views of the universe which Mr. Grant Duff, in contradistinction to Mr. Rathbone Greg, will always take of contemporary affairs. Mr. Greg, in his Cassandra vein, sees nothing but tribulation coming upon the earth. Mr. Grant Duff, on the other hand, sees good in everything—even in household suffrage. There is no Conservative reaction at home, he says, only the exhaustion and dulness incident to the great labors of the Administration of which he was a distinguished member. The front Opposition bench is the "least factious of Oppositions," just as it was "the most laborious of governments." The British army is, thanks to Lord Cardwell's reform, as good and large as it ever was in time of peace ; the British navy, thanks to Mr. Childers, is even finer. The Indian Empire is a grander possession than he had imagined before he saw it, and our hold over it is firmer. The native army is efficient. The Indian civilians under the competitive system are as healthy and gentlemanly, and more intelligent than they were under the nominative system. France is recovering her strength, and her people their spirits. Everything looks bright on the horizon. There may be a little speck in one corner produced by the military spirit in Germany, but that will probably pass away. And if the usual bad luck attends the financial policy of the Tory Government at home, it will only have the effect of bringing back the Liberals to power sooner than might have been anticipated. Whatever opinion any one may form of the truth of Mr. Grant Duff's political speculations, no one can call him a croaker or deny him the credit of laborious and enlightened toil and intelligent criticism. He stands by himself in the House of Commons and in this country. It has been said of him that omniscience is his forte and omnipresence is his foible, and it is on these two rocks that he may shipwreck his Parliamentary career. I cannot believe it will be so ; he has too much good sense and too good judgment to run such a risk. I have ever read with the greatest possible interest all that he has said or written, and I confidently expect to see him, before many years are over, one of the leading politicians in the country. In the meantime, why should he be cavilled at for using the agency of the Elgin burghs for the promulgation of his opinions ? It would be hard indeed if the world were to be prevented from reaping the benefit from his labors and experience—if he were to give up to Elgin what was obviously meant for mankind.

## THE FRENCH VIEW OF THE LATE WAR-CLOUD.

PARIS, May 21, 1875.

DURING a storm at night a flash of lightning suddenly illuminates the whole landscape, and for a moment everything becomes visible. Panics have a little the same effect in politics : they give us a sudden vision of things, and when they are ended everything lapses again into the dark. We have had during the last month a war panic. Nobody thought or dreamt of war, when suddenly everybody began to talk of it. How did this happen ? To say that it all arose from some newspaper articles in Germany, in France, and in England would perhaps exaggerate the importance of this fourth power in the state—the press. The articles in the *Post* (I mean the German *Post*) or the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* are formidable because we see in them, or think that we see in them, the thoughts of the German Chancellor ; the letters of "our own correspondent" or "our French correspondent" in the *Times* agitate the Exchange because they are sometimes attributed to the Duke Decazes, sometimes to Count Beust, sometimes to the English Government.

The situation which was revealed to the general public in Europe by the press was well known to those who keep their eyes open on the state of the world. I am a constant reader of the German newspapers, and I have long known that since the peace of Frankfort was signed there has been a double current of thought in Germany. The military party was not completely satisfied with this peace ; but its voice was stifled at first in the satisfaction of the German people. By degrees, it became apparent that the resources of France were far larger than had been imagined ; our prosperity, after so many misfortunes, has become a commonplace subject of conversation. People do not reflect that we have *not* paid our ransom in reality ; we have given five milliards to the Germans, but we have borrowed them in order to liberate our territory, and we are paying yearly the interest on this enormous sum in the form of increased taxes. It is true that the French people are wonderfully industrious and economical ; we are increasing our capital every year ; the ancient habits of the people have accumulated capital to such an extent that we have been able practically to resume specie payment. Our legislation is such that our speculators have not been allowed to plunge headlong into the system of indiscriminate railway-building. Our six great companies of railway lines are prosperous; our peasants have invested all their savings in the French rentes, and have brought them up above par, four years after the war. In an economical point of view, the situation of France is therefore better than that of any country in Europe, especially if you reflect that our Government has made no perpetual concession of the railroads, and that, sooner or later, the ten milliards now invested in the railways will return to the state, and thus diminish our debt by half, without the necessity of a sinking fund. This situation has excited the jealousy of Germany ; the five milliards which we paid to them excited an unnatural development of enterprise, and much money has been hopelessly lost in Germany since the war. It seemed to many observers that the conquerors had lost by their victory and the vanquished gained by their defeat. This, of course, is a superficial view of things, as the German state has become much richer by paying a large part of its debt, while many individuals may have suffered by bad speculations. The wealth of the state and the wealth of individuals are two things somewhat independent, if not sometimes contrary to each other.

In a military point of view, the advantage was altogether on the German side. It is one of the characteristics of the military leaders of Germany to consider war as a great experiment ; they seem to think of nothing but finding defects in their own army. After Sadowa, the German Emperor spoke of nothing but the faults which had been found with his artillery. So it was after the campaign in France : the artillery had to be changed, the Chassepot must find a better match in the *Mauser*, the mobilization must be made even quicker than it had been before Woerth and Forbach, the forts round Strasbourg must be constructed according to new and improved principles. In France, it is very different. The siege proved

that the existing forts of Paris are completely insufficient, and cannot preserve the finest city in the world from a bombardment; but the new forts are only planned; one or two only are begun. Our army was in utter disorganization: a small nucleus was reorganized during the Commune, and since that time great efforts have been made. But we have had no great Minister of War; you hear nothing but complaints if you talk to military men. We had no longer any artillery: owing to the energy of a young colonel, we are now provided with a provisional artillery, but it is merely provisional, and the field-gun of the future is not even begun. Among our commanders of *corps d'armée*, a few have placed their corps in a very good state of training. The majority are old and discouraged, and have no initiative. There is a continual struggle between the *bureaux*, the officers of the War Department, and the generals in command. Our cavalry has very few horses; we have no horses for our artillery and our transports. Our commissariat has not yet been fully reorganized. Our territorial army, the equivalent of the Landwehr, exists only on paper; it has not yet received even a beginning of organization.

It is idle to talk, in view of such facts, of the active preparations of France. The German press makes much noise over our new law of *cadres;* but what are *cadres* without men? and the number of men we can dispose of has not been altered. The military preparations of France have been so slow, so imperfect, as to have been the object of constant criticism in all military circles. But what shall we say of the German preparation? Who can deny that Alsace is full of troops; that all the men of the reserve have been called out, under pretence of trying the new *Mauser* gun; that supplementary rations a short time ago were given to all the horses, to put them in training; that specific instructions were given to all the majors in the Alsatian villages to inform them of their duties in time of war? The officers, *horresco referens*, were already allowed to let their beards grow. Who can deny that on the other side of the Empire great preparations have been long making in the Duchy of Posen, that much railway material has been accumulated on the frontier of Russia?—Germany's force must be felt on all sides.

There is no indiscretion now in saying that to very good and well-informed judges war appeared imminent a little while ago. But these same judges always knew that Germany would not go to war without the consent of Russia and an arrangement with Austria. The new alliance of the three emperors must be preserved. But was there no way to obtain from them a permission in blank? Two arguments could be used with the Russian Emperor—what I may call the argument of humanity, and the argument of a republic. You could say to a humanitarian sovereign: The French are bent on having their revenge; if we wait long, the war will be very sanguinary, it will cover Europe with ruins and victims; let us finish this business while the task is easy, and secure a long peace by a short and almost pacific campaign. You could say to him also: The Republic is not what people thought; France does not tear herself with her own hands; the Republic is becoming respectable, and has a chance of establishing itself in the centre of Europe. Does this suit you? Will you have a Republic of millionaires and noblemen, a decent Republic, become a focus of liberty and equality through all Europe?

The arguments with the Austrian Emperor were different. He had been forced out of the German Confederation; but now that Prussia had accomplished her task, she could not but remember that there were large German communities in Germany. Could not the Emperor of Austria come back and take his place in the great German unity—not, of course, as the representative of this unity, but as a brother of the German Emperor, as a friend, like the King of Bavaria or the King of Saxony? The first place, of course, would be given to him after the Hohenzollern; Austria would derive great advantage from the unification of the laws, of the military armaments, of the tariffs. She would bring with her, as vassals of Germany, all the Slavonic population of the Danube. These offers have not been made so brutally; but the Emperor of Austria knows well that the attraction of great Germany is imperilling his own tenure of power; half his empire has, so to speak, ceased to belong to him, or has at any rate a divided allegiance. He has always been unfortunate, he often fears that he may be ultimately driven from Vienna to Pesth. He is not in a position to refuse much to his powerful neighbors; he remembers Villafranca and Sadowa.

The alliance of the three Emperors, which took place in 1872, is the great feature of the political condition of Europe. Nobody knows exactly what its terms were, and perhaps many things were left in the dark. But the alliance specified that the great questions which might arise in Europe should be examined together, and, if possible, solved together. This was already tieing Austria, to a certain extent, to the policy of Germany, as the relations of Russia and Prussia were then and are still of the most cordial character. In point of fact, the moral right of *veto* belongs to the Emperor Alexander more than to the Emperor Francis Joseph, because Alexander feels himself the master of an empire which Prussia cannot devour, which can suffer great military defeats and still exist, while Austria may lose its own separate existence in new complications, return to the atomic state, and become the prey of Germany and of Russia. So long as this situation lasts, and we do not see how it may be altered, the peace of the world will depend upon the good-will of two or three men, who keep their own counsel, who have nothing to fear from parliamentary government or public opinion. We used to speak in the times of Napoleon III. of the "solitary will" of the Tuileries which ruled the world. The solitary will is no longer in the Tuileries; but, in all our pride of civilization and progress, we cannot deny the fact that the uncontrolled will of a few "solitary wills" can precipitate nations against each other at any moment.

For the present the fear of war seems to have been useless. We are all quiet again, the clouds have gone, the tempest did not begin. But is there no cause of uneasiness in the mere fact that the attention of all the world was centred for a day on the meeting at Berlin? The oracles have said "peace," but the oracles might have said war. The two Emperors as usual dressed in many uniforms and drank each other's health, but they also drank the health of their respective armies. A new meeting will soon take place of the three allied Emperors. The general impression is that no complications are to be feared this season, and we are beginning to consider a deferred danger as a gain. The question of disarmament may be discussed between the three Emperors, but this question resembles that of capital punishment. "Messieurs les assassins, commencez les premiers," said Alphonse Karr when he discussed the abolition of the death penalty. Who will disarm first? Then comes the religious question, which is likely to continue to agitate the whole of Europe. Great researches on the Conclaves are made in the archives of all countries. The King of Italy has tried to find if any of the states of which he may consider himself as the heir had any particular privilege in the Conclave. The Emperor of Austria has a right of veto; and who knows if the German Emperor will not try to use it through Austria? France has her archives full of documents on this interesting question; but she is not in a position which allows her to take the lead in any great movement. We must remain quiet, look on, remember, and learn. It was said of the old *émigrés*, "Ils n'ont rien appris ni rien oublié." There are things which we cannot forget, but there are many which we have to learn.

# Correspondence.

## THE NEW HAMPSHIRE DISPUTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with interest and hearty assent much that has appeared in your columns denunciatory of the lawlessness of officials in the Southern States, and, supposing that the principles suited to the latitude of New Orleans were applicable also in New Hampshire, I have looked from week to week to see you deal with Gov. Weston and his Council in the same unsparing manner.

As I glanced hastily through "The Week" in your issue of May 27, I thought that my waiting was at last rewarded. What was my surprise when I found that you had reached the conclusion that "no desperate injustice had been done," and this upon the strength of statements made by our Democratic Secretary of State. Turning to Mr. Butterfield's communication, I find it good in many respects as far as it goes, but shortcoming is its great defect.

No exception is taken to the statement of the returns. But the citations in support of the Executive action are faulty in this, that they have no bearing upon the question at issue. Take that one relating to preparation of the ballot: "The full Christian and sirname of every person voted for, with the initial letter, etc., etc., shall be written or printed upon every ballot, and every ballot not thus prepared shall be regarded as a blank, and shall not be counted." The history of the law—the important element in determining its interpretation, you will admit—shows that the law was intended to describe the duties of the moderator of the town-meeting. The town-clerk records his declaration of the result of the voting, and sends a copy to the Secretary of State. He in turn lays these returns before the Governor and Council, who are to "examine the returned copies of such records and issue summons to such as appear to be chosen." What is meant by "examine"? Not, as Mr. Butterfield claims, the investigation that the Senate might properly institute as to "the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members," but simply a footing up of the

votes with a view to summon members elect to their duties. The invariable usage of the Executive for eighty years shows this. An illustration in point is the case of E. D. Sanborn of Dartmouth College. It was discovered after his election that he was ineligible, like Mr. Deering in the Fourth District. But though he was a Democrat, a Republican Governor and Council issued a summons to him, rightly deciding that they could not go back of the returns before them. And it is remarkable that our present State authorities think that this does well enough in some cases, for they have issued a certificate of election to Congress to Frank (formerly Franklin) Jones, though denying the right of Natt (formerly Nathaniel) Head to be voted for at all.

The courts too, when appealed to, have always sustained the view that there was no going back of the returns except by the legislative body having cognizance of them, as may be seen in the case of Bell *vs.* Pike, contestants for a certificate of election to Congress in 1873. Here it should be said that the Republicans only asked that the cases under consideration be referred to the court reconstituted by the Democrats last year, which reference was steadily resisted by their opponents and by a paltry trick avoided.

The "uproar" then, as you are pleased to term it, is raised because Gov. Weston and his associates, exceeding their own functions, have arrogated to themselves the duties of the moderators of the town-meetings, and have also set up to be "judges of elections, returns, and qualifications of members of the Senate"—a dangerous departure from the letter and spirit of our laws.

Your Concord correspondent, after all his labored argumentation, seems to be conscious that his party associates have made a rather novel application of the provisions cited, for he says, in a paragraph near the close of his letter, "The men now declared elected were the choice of the people of the districts, but were placed in a minority at the polls through frauds, and they saw no other way of securing their rights except through a resort to this method." Is there not in these words an admission that the *method* is unprecedented?

The fact is that Gov. Weston has apparently been forced, by the most unscrupulous of Bourbon leaders to be found in any State in the Union, to resort to one of those "tricks of interpretation" which you have of late so justly condemned. To ward off, if possible, defeat and exposure, which they have richly merited, they have attempted to arouse "the sleeping giant of our Constitution." Unless signs deceive, they have awakened a feeling of indignation and contempt they had not counted on.

I am, yours respectfully,

C. L. Hubbard.

Reed's Ferry, N. H., June 1, 1875.

## PROFESSOR ADAMS'S ORIGINALITY ASSAILED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to call your attention to certain coincidences in Professor C. K. Adams's work on 'Democracy and Monarchy in France' which seem to me to need explanation. On page 41, *sqq.*, Mr. Adams remarks:

"The work ['De l'Esprit' of Helvetius] sustains the same relations to ethics that atheism does to the Christian religion. The author sets out with the declaration that the difference between man and other animals is simply the difference in their external form; that if Nature, instead of giving us hands and flexible joints, had terminated our limbs with hoofs like those of a horse, we should have remained wanderers on the earth, chiefly anxious to find our needful supply of food and to protect ourselves against the attacks of wild beasts [here the original passage is quoted in a foot-note]. That the structure of our bodies is thus the sole cause of our superiority over the beasts, he argues from the fundamental doctrine that our thoughts are simply the product of two faculties which we have in common with the beasts, namely, the faculty of receiving impressions from external objects, and the faculty of remembering those impressions. . . . To take any other view is to allow ourselves to be deceived by conventional expressions and by the prejudices of ignorant men . . . our notions of virtue and duty must be tested by reference to our senses; in other words, by the gross amount of physical enjoyment which they afford. . . . Cousin has well expressed the fact in saying, 'Le siècle de Louis XV. se reconnut dans l'ouvrage d'Helvétius' ('Hist. de la Philos.,' I. Série, vol. iii. p. 201) [foot-note]. . . . Surin, though a zealous opponent of Helvetius, declares that 'strangers the most eminent for their dignity and their culture desire to be introduced to a philosopher whose name is spoken in all parts of Europe.' Brissot, who wrote twenty years and more after the publication of 'De l'Esprit,' says that the system of Helvetius was in the greatest vogue ('Mémoires,' vol. i. p. 339). Turgot refers to it as a system that was praised 'with a kind of fury' ('Œuvres,' vol. ix. p. 297); and Georgel declares that the book was to be found on every table ('ce livre se trouvait sur toutes les tables') ('Mémoires,' vol. ii. p. 256). . . . Madame Dudeffant, a person who represented the intelligence of her epoch, could say with truth, 'The success of the book of Helvetius is not surprising: he is the man who has told the secret of everybody.'"

Buckle says (vol. i. p. 789, *sqq.*, ed. 1857, London):

"In this work ['De l'Esprit' of Helvetius] principles are laid down which bear exactly the same relation to ethics that atheism bears to theology. Helvétius, at the beginning of his enquiry, assumes that the difference between man and other animals is the result of a difference in their external form; and that if, for example, our wrists, instead of ending with hands and flexible fingers, had merely ended like a horse's foot, we should always have remained wanderers on the face of the earth . . . having no other concern but to avoid the attacks of wild beasts and find the needful supply of our daily food [here the original passage is quoted in a foot-note]. That the structure of our bodies is the sole cause of our boasted superiority becomes evident when we consider that our thoughts are simply the product of two faculties which we have in common with all other animals, the faculty of receiving impressions from external objects, and the faculty of remembering these impressions when received. . . . To take any other view is to allow ourselves to be deceived by conventional expressions which have no foundation except in the prejudices of ignorant men. . . . all notions of duty and of virtue must be tested by their relations to the senses: in other words, by the gross amount of physical enjoyment to which they give rise. . . . le siècle de Louis XV. se reconnut dans l'ouvrage d'Helvétius (Cousin, 'Hist. de la Philos.,' I. Série, vol. iii. p. 201). . . . Madame Dudeffant, who passed her long life in the midst of French society, and was one of the keenest observers of her time, has expressed this with great happiness. The work of Helvétius, she says, is popular, since he is the man who has told everybody their own secret. . . . Saint Surin, a zealous opponent of Helvétius, admits that 'les étrangers les plus éminents par leurs dignités ou par leurs lumières désiraient d'être introduits chez un philosophe dont le nom retentissait dans toute l'Europe.' . . . Brissot ('Mémoires,' vol. i. p. 339) says that in 1775 'le système d'Helvétius avait alors la plus grand vogue.' Turgot, who wrote against it, complains that it was praised 'avec une sorte de fureur' ('Œuvres de Turgot,' vol. ix. p. 297); and Georgel ('Mémoires,' vol. ii. p. 256) says: 'Ce livre, écrit avec un style plein de chaleur et d'images, se trouvait sur toutes les toilettes.'"

Mr. Adams concludes his sketch of Helvetius by saying that "these references might be reinforced by others drawn from the various branches of French literature, but it is unnecessary." Buckle gives one or two others. After disposing of Helvetius Mr. Adams makes up his notice of Condorcet in precisely the same manner. From his examination of philosophical theories, Buckle proceeds to consider the influence these exercised on the spread of physical science. Mr. Adams does the same, but he mentions not a name nor a fact that is not contained in Buckle. Every one of his anecdotes (such as Hume's remark about atheists at the table of Baron d'Holbach), all the authorities cited (such as Voltaire and the Archbishop of Toulouse), are to be found in Buckle. All this without a hint that Mr. Adams was aware of Buckle's existence! After twenty or more nearly clear pages Mr. Adams's foot-notes again appear (p. 76), the subject being Rousseau. Remarks about him by Bonaparte, Hume, Lord Holland, Pathay, etc., are quoted. They all are given in Buckle, p. 767.

But Buckle is not the only author Mr. Adams has read with profit. He often quotes Tocqueville, but sometimes forgets his quotation-marks—thus:

ADAMS, p. 124.

The Republic, before which all Europe trembled, had to be organized in a positive and permanent form; and the form determined upon was the Directory. But no sooner were the Directors in power, than the evil influence of those revolutionary ideas of which I have spoken began painfully to show their influence. The Government had at its disposal a formidable army, and perhaps the greatest generals that had appeared in the world since the downfall of Rome, and yet it began to totter the very instant it arose. In its infancy, it was devoured by innumerable diseases; during the whole of its short life, it steadied itself with difficulty, and seemed on the point of falling under the weight of its follies and vices.

TOCQUEVILLE (MEMOIR AND REMAINS) i. 263.

One of the most extraordinary subjects of contemplation among the shifting scenes of human life, is the interior of the Republic before which all Europe trembled. The Government, which had at its disposal the most formidable army and perhaps the greatest generals that had appeared in the world since the downfall of Rome, tottered at every instant, steadying itself with difficulty, always on the point of falling under the weight of its vices and its follies.

Chapter IV. of Mr. Adams's book is called "The Rise of Napoleonism," and was first printed as a review of Lanfrey and other works in the *North American Review*. Now, there are various kinds of reviews, all equally legitimate, provided only that in writing one kind the reviewer does not pretend to give another. A review which simply sums up and condenses an extensive work may be very useful, though this variety is more frequently found in the *Literary World* than in the *North American*. Reviewers are sometimes exceptionally proficient in the department of study to which the work under discussion belongs, and are able to draw upon facts or opinions which have escaped the notice of the author. With this premise, let us look at Mr. Adams's work. There is not a fact mentioned which is not con-

tained in Lanfrey, yet he so manipulates the facts as sometimes to induce the impression that he is adding to and supplementing the facts. Thus, on page 150, he adds in a foot-note : "These are severe words, but here are two facts upon which they are founded," and gives the letter to the Archduke Carl, and the story of Napoleon's skirmish to amuse his mistress, crediting the latter to Las Casas. This credit of course is given with the text in Lanfrey, p. 178 (Eng. trans.) It should also be said that whole pages of his article are but free translations from his author.

Not even Mr. Adams's title is original, for about three years ago Mr. H. Reeve published 'Royal and Republican France,' a work of precisely the same character.—Your obedient servant, M. G.

## LIFE-INSURANCE COMMISSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir: Permit me to correct one or two of the erroneous statements of your correspondent under the above caption on page 375 of the last number of your paper.

So far from the commissions of the company named by him being only two per cent. upon the premium receipts, I venture to say they are fully five times that ratio. The exact items cannot be ascertained from the reports of that company, but the ratio of expenses of management (including commissions to agents, which are fully one-half) was 20.16 per cent. in 1873 (see Report Insurance Commissioner of Massachusetts, 1874, page xxxv.)

But it is not my purpose to speak of individual companies. The average ratio of expenses to total income (including interest upon investments) among all the life-insurance companies doing business in Massachusetts during the eight years 1866–73 was 16.60 per cent. (Official Report Ins. Com., 1874, pages cii.–cv.) This was equivalent to an average annual expense of about six and one-half per cent. of the entire accumulated assets of these companies, while the savings-banks of that State were managed during that time at an average annual expense of less than three-tenths of one per cent. Now, six and one-half per cent. is about as much as can be realized as interest on investments by a well-managed savings-bank. Hence it will be seen that a sum equal to the interest earnings upon the entire assets or accumulated deposits of policy-holders of all the life-insurance companies was annually consumed by them in expenses of management! And yet your correspondent, an editor and ex-agent, claims that no similar business in this country is managed at so small an expense! Comment is unnecessary.

Not only are the expenses of our companies enormous and beyond all reason, but the terms upon which policy-holders can terminate their insurances and withdraw their deposits—their own money, paid in advance for insurances or endowments in the future—are unjust and unequal. This tax is seldom less than fifty per cent. of the deposits, while in many cases it amounts to a confiscation of the entire amount.

What is needed in life insurance is a reform in the contract itself; greater economy and accountability of management; and a covenant to return the full *equity* of a policy-holder in the assets in cash should he from choice or necessity terminate his insurance. Life insurance as hitherto administered is on the wane. There is less in force to-day than there was two years ago, and it is steadily diminishing. The best among the companies find it difficult to hold their own.

If we would have life insurance occupy the position it ought to attain, the companies must conduct the business upon the consolidated principles of security, economy, equity, and accountability.

Sheppard Homans.

Western Union Building, June 4, 1875.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Your correspondent, Prof. Newcomb, in urging the abolition of the agency system by life-assurance companies, fails to use what may well be deemed one of the strongest arguments against it. Were the honest statements of a large number of successful life-agents to be procured on the subject, it would doubtless be found that the most potential argument habitually used in the procurement of applications, even among the best of them, is a *bonus* allowed to the applicant out of the agent's first year's commission, amounting in some instances to the entire commission. The agent who will give up to the applicant the largest portion of his own earnings from the proposed transaction is the one most likely to succeed in securing the application, with little or no regard to the comparative excellence of the companies represented. This is an evil which of course has resulted from the fierce competition between the companies for business. Some agents do not follow this practice, but almost all deprecate it, and, when complained of, plead self-defence—that others do it, and they must do it or lose business which they might otherwise secure. The assumed necessity of doing business on the "high-pressure plan," as a means of actual safety to the companies, is the real secret of their fierce and degrading rivalry, and, while some of its results, in the way of immense volumes of "new business" transacted in a given time, are astonishing, other results, among them the enormous and disgraceful increase of the "expense ratios," are, to the policy-holder (when he understands them), quite disheartening.

Truly, it will be the millennium of life assurance when the companies can secure enough business to keep them from insolvency without the use of agents, but it would seem that the time has hardly yet come for dispensing with their services. People *will not go* to the life offices and take out policies without solicitation, and no one can solicit unless he is fully and intelligently prepared, by proper study of the subject, for such duty. Your correspondent certainly realizes the evil, only it is worse than he supposes, for instead of ten per cent. of the premiums being devoted to the payment of agents, there are few companies whose commissions do not equal, and many exceed, *twenty-five* per cent. But there must be a very great change in the uninsured, so that they will voluntarily seek insurance, before we shall have done with that much-maligned and long-suffering public benefactor, the life-insurance agent.—Very truly yours, An Old Agent.

## A YALE Ph.D.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The account which you recently published of the taking of the doctor's degree at a German university only deepens the impression made upon me by a similar story in Hart's 'German Universities.' The German thoroughness confronts us as something almost unattainable; but I believe we have at Yale and Harvard courses of graduate study which demand very exact work of a man, and which terminate with no laughing matter of an examination. Not by way of complacent comparison with the far superior German system of education, nor at all by way of boasting, I venture to send you a very brief account of my examination for the degree of Ph.D. at New Haven two years ago. There was no "swallow-tail" nor white kids about it; in fact, it was decidedly a "short-hair" performance; but I felt, when I was through the ordeal, as though the faculty must know microscopically what I had been doing for the two years previous.

I had devoted myself principally to Sanskrit, Indo-European comparative philology, and Greek dramatic literature. About three months before the close of the second academic year, I sent in to the special faculty of the Graduate Course a scheme of the work which I had done (partly in private and partly under direct instruction from them), offering nearly all of it for examination, and stating the subject on which I proposed to write a thesis for their inspection if allowed to be examined. My proposals were accepted, and the time set for my examinations. I spent the intervening time in preparing my thesis, for which I had simply taken a few notes, in collecting and copying my lecture notes, and in reviewing and comparing the texts which I had read. My first examination was in the general principles of linguistic science, including, besides Prof. Whitney's book on the subject, about a half-year's lectures and discussions from him. The examination was entirely in writing. I was handed a list of eight leading topics, on six of which I was expected to write a short but comprehensive paper. I wrote three hours steadily, and finished somewhat hurriedly five out of the eight topics. My next examination came two days after in Sanskrit. I had mastered the grammar after a fashion, and read five or six books of the Nala, two of the Hitopadesa, and a little more than half of the Bhagavad-Gita. The examination was oral, and when I say that Prof. Whitney conducted it I need not add that it was searching.

A day or two after I met the same professor again, and was requested to write what I had to say upon six topics in comparative grammar (Ind. Eur.) The outlines of this subject had been given us in lectures, and we had done more or less reading in connection with them. If I remember rightly, I showed much favoritism in treating the different topics.

Lastly came my Greek. I had offered for examination four plays of Æschylus, including the Orestean trilogy, two of Sophocles, two of Euripides, and three comedies of Aristophanes, no plays read in the academic course being counted. To accompany the study of the choral passages I had read all of Theokritos, but did not review this for examination. My examination in this department was oral and written, lasting four hours, and covering every conceivable topic of any importance, as it seemed to me. This over, I presented my thesis to Prof. Packard, its subject falling within his department, and went off for a vacation. I was not told whether I passed "summa cum laude" or not, probably to spare my feelings, though

I believe no distinct grades are recognized in the degrees. It might have a good effect to introduce them.

It is still my *summum bonum* to study in Germany, but I really believe that we have a *bonum* here in America.

Very respectfully yours, PH.D. (New Haven).

HARTFORD, May 30, 1875.

# Notes.

THE 'American Newspaper Directory' for 1875 of George P. Rowell & Co. is slightly bulkier than that of last year, and shows no falling off in the care with which it is edited. The newspaper business, according to the summary in the preface, was not prosperous in 1874. There was, to be sure, an unprecedentedly large number of new journals started, at the rate of almost six for each working day, but the net increase was less than a third of this number, and more papers than usual changed hands, were reduced in size, or were suspended altogether; and generally there was a material decrease in circulation. Indiana was most prolific in fresh ventures (84), the nearest approach being Iowa with 55, Illinois with 54, and Missouri with 49; among Eastern States, Pennsylvania took the lead with 38.——G. P. Putman's Sons' 'Best Reading' appears in a revised edition, with a supplement, and with a select classified list of English and American publications in 1872–73. A similar hand-book is 'What and How to Read,' by G. A. F. Van Rhyn (D. Appleton & Co.), but it is hardly so well classified or so discriminating as the foregoing. The defects of both may be seen under *Darwinism* in the former, and under *Evolution* in the latter.——Hurd & Houghton's handy 'Satchel Guide to Europe' appears in its fourth annual edition, with revisions to a late date. Is it not, however, an error on p. xiv. to say that our "Government tax of five dollars [on passports] is abolished"?——'The French at Home,' by Albert Rhodes, with numerous illustrations, and a new story by "Edward Garrett," are among the summer announcements of Dodd & Mead.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press: 'The Undivine Comedy, and other Poems,' by Count Sigismund Krasinski; 'The Mystery; or, Platonic Love,' by Geo. S. Crosby; and 'Principia; or, Basis of Social Science,' by R. J. Wright.

—"A letter just received from the writer of the account of the examination for a degree at Heidelberg," writes a relative of his, "which was published in the number of the *Nation* for May 20, says he was mistaken in the statement that he was the first American to receive the degree of Ph.D. *summa cum laude*. It had been conferred before, but it seems not to have been known to any of the American students at the university, nor to any of his German friends there. I may add that the young doctor left town immediately after receiving his degree to pass the vacation at Paris, and that this correction was made in the first letter written after his return, on learning of his unintentional mistake."

—The next Revolutionary event concerning which we must all post ourselves in order to celebrate its hundredth anniversary intelligently, is of course the battle of Bunker Hill. Three years ago a summary account of this engagement was compiled by Mr. David Pulsifer, and published in handy form by A. Williams & Co., Boston, and, with the correction of a few typographical errors, it is still to be recommended as a vade-mecum for those who mean to attend the celebration next week. The contemporary map of Boston and Charlestown which it gives is alone worth the price of this little work, and is in fact complementary to one just issued in connection with Mr. Richard Frothingham's history of the battle (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) This is in every respect a fuller work than Mr. Pulsifer's, and treats with all the minuteness possible at this day the disposition and action of regiments and individuals on the American side. Mr. Frothingham reproduces the spirit of the times without importing into it any of his own feelings, and the British tourist can safely pocket his faithful and unbiassed narrative and read it at the very foot of the Monument without a blush. It will not only keep him from the common error of his countrymen in America who shudderingly glance up the lofty shaft when pointed out the spot where Warren "fell," but will also introduce him to several other heroes who, partly because they survived the battle and partly for social reasons, have not acquired the same renown as the Boston physician. While nothing can ever detract from the bravery of Gen. Putnam, it is apparent that he has had rather more than his share of the credit of Bunker Hill. The brunt of it was borne by Col. Wm. Prescott, of Pepperell, who, like so many other officers and men, had smelt gunpowder before in the French wars. He walked the parapet of the redoubt under the British cannonade, and at the close of the fight was the last to leave the place, warding off with his sword the bayonets aimed at him on all sides. "He did not run, but stepped long, with his sword up." He was the grandfather of the historian Wm. H. Prescott, who married a grand-daughter of Capt. Linzee, commanding the British sloop-of-war, the *Falcon*, a participant in the cannonade which Prescott braved so coolly. The crossed swords of these two grandfathers may now be seen by the curious in the rooms of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The rail-fence breastworks of Bunker Hill would doubtless have attracted more attention at the time, and perhaps have played an important part in the subsequent warfare, had they given the Americans victory instead of helping to make defeat glorious. The same humble bulwarks turned the scale at Gettysburg against the attacking army. Their earlier and their later use seems to confirm Putnam's homely dictum, quoted by Mr. Frothingham, that "the Americans are not afraid of their heads, though very much afraid of their shins: if you cover these, they will fight for ever."

—The *Tribune* proposes, in the interest of native literature, that every book received under the copyright law at the Library of Congress (which perhaps we may in time come to designate as the National Library) shall be at once entered in the card catalogue, by having "the title and all necessary information" put in type, with the needful cross-references. Of the card or cards thus prepared as many impressions shall be made as the librarian "has libraries on his list of correspondence," these libraries paying for the privilege "a very slight annual subscription fee." The *Tribune* thinks "it is plain that a very minute system of indexing would thus be stimulated" (it certainly would in the National Library), and that the corresponding libraries would receive notice of every publication issued in the country. "They may only buy a tithe, but as fast as they buy a book they would have its title-card all ready, only waiting for shelf and alcove number." This conclusion of a grand scheme reminds one forcibly of the Toodles principle in buying door-plates. The fact is that the catalogue proposed would furnish very little if any aid to the minor libraries in making their purchases, above what they can get readily and gratuitously from the various publishers' circulars and the trade-organ; and on every account we do not see why it should be restricted to our meagre even if respectable native literature—and not extended to every kind by which the National Library is enriched. There is no need, of course, to discuss the advantage for the smaller libraries of owning the catalogues of the larger, and the more the better; but when these take the shape of cards, the cost of providing room for such an index to universal literature (for that is what it amounts to) may easily exceed the whole purchasing income of a weak institution. This part of the cost has not received the *Tribune's* consideration, and we suspect that Mr. Spofford would say that the other part, namely, that of printing and distributing the cards, has been much underestimated. The prevailing practice is to write cards, instead of printing them, and even that has been found tolerably expensive; but it is vastly more expeditious than printing, and an invention like the papyrograph would seem to furnish the requisite facilities for producing duplicates. As for the "saving of a vast amount of clerical labor" by the *Tribune's* method, it may be questioned whether this is any proper concern of the Government, and whether the result would be to foster intelligent cataloguing or the reverse.

—Most people who have heard of the Yosemite Valley have also heard of Mr. J. M. Hutchings, whose house of entertainment has so long been one of the "institutions" of the place. He has been recently ejected from the Valley by order of court, and so great were the rejoicings over this event that guns were fired by some of the citizens of California, and other demonstrations made, which, coming to the ears of Mr. Hutchings, caused him and his friends so much pain that a counter-demonstration of Yosemite tourists was determined upon; and a meeting was held on the 19th of last month, the presiding officer being General Garfield of Ohio, at which a resolution of sympathy and indignation was unanimously adopted. This resolution, the construction and grammar of which are somewhat peculiar, declares that, "Whereas, The name of J. M. Hutchings is intimately connected with Yosemite Valley and its history, and who, by his pen, his lectures, and his enterprise, has unfolded the grandeur, the sublimity, as well as the beauty of this charming Valley, so that it has now more than a national reputation, to which the tourists of the world turn with delight; and whereas, on his ejection from his hotel and his home, which he has so honored and made pleasant to thousands during the past twenty years, certain men, from envy or malice, have, by the firing of guns or other powder preparations, outraged, in their mad triumph, every sense of propriety"; therefore, those present "hereby condemn this outrage here perpetrated," "extend to Mr. Hutchings" their "cordial sympathy and good-

will," express the hope that "malice and ill-will may not always prevail amidst this scene of beauty and grandeur," and also that the "old pioneer" may always "find a home to welcome his friends." The casual reader might infer from this that the "old pioneer" had been the victim of ruthless tyranny; and in order to correct this impression the Yosemite Commissioners have, through their secretary, Mr. William Ashburner, published their side of the story, which differs in some particulars from that of Mr. Hutchings.

—The Commissioners say that, in the first place, before May, 1874, the only actual settler in the Valley was a man named Lamon, so that Mr. Hutchings cannot possibly have "honored and made pleasant" his hotel and home to thousands "during the past twenty years," and that, as a matter of fact, Mr. Hutchings moved into the Valley and laid claim to 160 acres of land as a pre-emptor about six weeks before the passage of the Act of Congress of 1864, granting the Valley to the State of California inalienably "for all time." This move might, of course, be regarded by hostile critics as that of one desirous of "squatting" on other people's property, inasmuch as the Yosemite had never been surveyed by the Government, and it is impossible to gain any rights as a *bonâ-fide* pre-emptor without a survey. But however that may be, the Commissioners, not wishing to give Mr. Hutchings any trouble, providing he would recognize their superior title, offered him a ten-years' lease at a nominal rent. This he declined, preferring to stand his chances at law. An ejectment suit was begun and carried up to the Supreme Court of the United States, which decided that Mr. Hutchings had no valid claim whatever. The Commissioners, however, evidently finding Mr. Hutchings rather a difficult person to deal with, and probably being mortally afraid of what their State Legislature and Congress might do, instead of ejecting him on the spot, allowed him to remain in possession, and on their recommendation a special commission was appointed, and $60,000 appropriated by the State to indemnify all Yosemite claimants. This, of course, was not done by the Legislature unsolicited, for the old pioneer had by this time become quite a public character, a lecturer, author, and accomplished lobbyist, as may be seen from the further fact that he now got the Legislature of California to pass an act awarding to him and Lamon one hundred and sixty acres of land apiece. This act was illegal, as the land was inalienable, but of the $60,000 he got $24,000 for his "claim," which, as we say, the Supreme Court decided to be good for nothing. In November, 1874, he accepted this sum, and immediately made application for a lease, declining, however, to offer any definite amount of rent. The Commissioners proceeded to advertise the premises, whereupon Mr. Hutchings entered an appearance, and informed Mr. Raymond, one of the Commissioners, that it was fortunate he had got his $24,000, as otherwise he (Hutchings) "should certainly have assassinated him" (Raymond), adding that "he had had a gun loaded for that purpose for a long time." The place was, however, let, against the protest of Hutchings, who published a notice that he should contest any disposition of the property by the "so-called Commissioners," and that he should apply to the next Legislature for the privilege of leasing it himself. The Commissioners have, however, ruthlessly turned him out, and the poor man is now wandering about, a homeless outcast, with a fortune of $24,000 given him for a property to which he had no title, and a claim against the State for the injustice done in giving him the money. Considering the relations of the United States to the Valley, it would be interesting to know what the grounds of sympathy for the old pioneer on the part of Mr. Garfield are, and how he can explain his behavior in presiding at this ridiculous meeting.

—We learn from the prospectus of Sainte-Pelaye's 'Dictionnaire Historique,' just received from F. W. Christern, that the completed work (see the *Nation*, No 513) will consist of ten volumes in 4to, of about 500 pages each, and will be issued in one hundred numbers. The subscription price will be three francs a number for copies on hand-made "papier des Vosges," and five francs for those on Holland paper, of which a small number only will be printed. The subscription list will be closed as soon as it contains five hundred names, and the price per number advanced to five and eight francs. The names of the subscribers will be published at the end of the last volume, and they will receive gratuitously a supplementary number containing the titles of the MSS. and editions from which the author has taken his citations. It is hoped that the work will be finished in two or three years. The prospectus further contains the 'Projet d'un Glossaire François,' published by Sainte-Pelaye in 1756: it is followed by some specimens of the proposed glossary. We may properly mention here that Auguste Brachet has lately prepared a French grammar for secondary instruction, which is designed to awaken in younger students an interest in the historical study of their language, and may be advantageously consulted by older scholars on this side of the Atlantic who seldom stray beyond the covers of Fasquelle. We observe also that Hachette announces as in press, by the same author, a continuation of the extracts from the older French writers, entitled 'Recueil de morceaux choisis des écrivains français du IXe siècle à la fin du XVe.'

—Guizot's library proved less rare and valuable than the public was led to expect from his long literary career, and the same thing is to be said of his collection of autographs, which was sold last month. The number of them was inconsiderable. A letter of Napoleon's (Oct. 11, 1791) to Pozzo di Borgo fetched 620 francs, and 1,000 were paid for letters from Cardinal Richelieu to the Duc de Luynes which were well worth the money. A doubtful joint letter of Marie-Antoinette and Louis XVI. to the Princesse de Lamballe found a purchaser at 450 francs. For some reason a letter of Madame Elizabeth's (the sister of Louis XVI.), though entered in the catalogue, No. 3,799, was not put up for sale. That it is a forged autograph is clearly proved in *Polybiblion* for May by M. de Beaucourt, who six years ago published an *Étude* on the letters of the lady in question, in which he enumerated sixteen instances of this kind of fraud which had been perpetrated upon her. They are all, including the seventeenth, which had deceived M. Guizot, and one in the British Museum, counterfeits of original letters addressed to the Marquise de Raigecourt, and which have never been out of the possession of the family of the recipient. Great liberties were taken by the falsifier, who omitted whole passages at pleasure, apparently to suit the size of his paper, and who also corrected freely the faulty grammar and orthography which characterize the genuine productions of Madame Elizabeth. The fourth volume of Guizot's 'History of France' for young people has appeared, and ends with the death of Louis XIV. From this period to 1789 the work will be taken up and completed by Mme. de Witt, in accordance with the plan, notes, and suggestions of her father, whom she had assisted on the volumes already published.

—English readers of Manzoni's incomparable romance, 'I Promessi Sposi,' have doubtless often felt the need of some commentary to explain its many historical allusions, and to throw some light on those two mysterious characters, *l'Innominato* and the nun of Monza. Such a comment was prepared as early as 1831 by the now famous Italian historian, Cesare Cantù, and has been frequently reprinted since then, both separately and together with the romance it explains. It has been for some time out of print, however, and we are glad to call our readers' attention to a new and cheap edition, 'Commento storico ai Promessi Sposi, o la Lombardia nel secolo XVII." (Milan, 1874, price two francs). It contains in an admirable form everything necessary for a full understanding of the 'Promessi Sposi.' Many of the illustrative documents are drawn from the various Italian archives, and are here published for the first time.

## GENERAL SHERMAN'S MEMOIRS.*

I.

IT is a pity that a book of this kind should be received with an outburst of partisan attack and partisan laudation, and yet, such is the public temper just now, that anything like a calm judgment seems next to impossible. The personal recollections of a great soldier ought not to excite political feeling, and, nevertheless, the criticisms on Sherman's 'Memoirs' are very generally colored by the politics of the writers of them. To us it seems that it would be difficult for an important public character to show that he had "turned his back on politics" by any better proof than the publication of such a book. If there is anywhere in it a purpose to court political favor, we are quite unequal to the subtlety required to discover it. To our way of thinking, the man would be crazy indeed who should expect it to help him into the Presidency; and no less a quarry is supposed to be worthy the aim of the writer. It looks to us like a more intelligible and explicit renunciation of worldly ambition than the President's late letter to the Pennsylvania Republicans; and we cannot, by any effort of the imagination, make a hope for a political nomination consist with the printing of so much matter that will touch powerful enemies on the raw.

The history of the book itself gives a better notion of the reasons for its existence, and in a way that is natural and simple enough. General Sherman had determined to do what all of us thought he ought to do. He wrote his recollections and impressions of the events of the late war, intending to leave them for publication after his death. No doubt he was urged in many ways not to defer so long the satisfaction of public curiosity, and to a man of his temperament there would be much force in a shrewdly put argument

* 'Memoirs of General William T. Sherman. By Himself.' Two vols 8vo New York: D. Appleton & Co.

that it would look timid, and as if he did not choose to face the storm of his own brewing, if he should postpone the printing till after his death. At any rate, by one argument or another, he was induced to change his mind and publish immediately, and if he enjoys a breeze he certainly has enough of it. A book written for posthumous publication must, from the very nature of the case, need rewriting before most people would think of giving it to the world whilst its sharp things could return to plague them. We tickle our ribs with the descriptions Greville gives of such scenes as that between William the Fourth and the Duchess of Kent at the King's own table; but fancy the courtly Clerk of the Privy Council publishing any such "truth of history" during his own lifetime! The very thought would have been apoplexy to him. But General Sherman is not a Clerk of the Privy Council, and though he would probably have suppressed some of the more piquant bits of gossip or of personal criticism if he had had a literary mentor at his elbow to hint at the conventional differences between posthumous memoirs and other history, we suspect that for lack of other fighting he more than half enjoys the rattling skirmish just now going on in his literary front.

Certainly the book is not dull. Josh Billings's hornet was scarcely less so. One is strongly impressed with the belief that the author has a naïve unconsciousness of saying anything stinging, even when describing his impressions of Frémont in California or McClernand's enthusiasm after the fight at Arkansas Post. The style is generally direct and clear, having the prime merit of telling plainly what the writer had seen and felt vividly, and consequently the sympathy of the reader goes strongly with him to the end. Military memoirs of the personal kind are among the most fascinating of books, and Fezensac's narration of his experience in the wars of the Emperor Napoleon is a late and admirable instance in proof of the fact that even the petty personal relations of the writer give life and oftentimes charming color to the scenes. To know what to tell and what to leave unsaid is a matter of literary instinct quite as much as of training, and we must not complain if all do not have the artistic sense in the same degree. An autobiography is necessarily and essentially egotistical, and this one is no more so than the average, whilst very few of those who have taken the world into their personal confidence have a better right to assume that the world will be pleased with the intimacy.

The narrative opens with the author's reporting for duty as a lieutenant of artillery at Fort Moultrie in the spring of 1846. There is something dramatic in the beginning of such a career at such a place, and Sherman's immediate associates were nearly all men destined to play an important part in the war of the Rebellion. There were Robert Anderson, Halleck, Thomas, Ord, Reynolds, and T. W. Sherman, who did good service in the Union armies afterward, and of those destined to bear arms for the Southern Confederacy there were Bragg, Ewell, and C. Q. Tompkins. It is only by learning how close and intimate the life of the old army officers made their association with each other, that we can understand how the Rebellion cut through their best friendships and rooted up the nearest relationships in life. A sense of this evidently prompted Gen. Sherman to enumerate the list of young soldiers who then began with him their military career.

The narrative of the occupation of California by the United States forces, the discovery of the gold mines, and its effect upon the social and political history of the country, the history of the Vigilance Committee of San Francisco, are all vividly given, and are an interesting and useful addition to the history of the Pacific coast.

Sherman's own career as a business man in civil life, from the period of his resignation from the army in 1853 till his appointment as Superintendent of the Louisiana Military School in 1859, is honorable to him, and seems fairly to show that he had the confidence of the experienced business men with whom he was connected, and that any lack of success in their enterprises was due to general causes and not to any incapacity or lack of industry or energy on his own part. So also, his conduct as managing and responsible head of the Louisiana Academy appears to have merited the approval of the State authorities, under whose control it was, and his prompt and peremptory withdrawal when a longer connection would have compromised his patriotism, was entirely in keeping with his character and his subsequent devotion to the cause of the country. The passing criticisms of the press, which seem to have made the General feel it necessary to give considerable space to these parts of his life, have been evidently better remembered by him than by the rest of us, and he could easily have afforded to let them pass without refutation. Yet the composition of any character is so much the effect of all the disciplinary processes through which it has gone, that we are perhaps more indebted to him for a clear knowledge of himself than he intended, and his self-vindication from anonymous and forgotten slanders will serve the better purpose of showing the progress of his own intellectual and moral growth.

The outbreak of the rebellion found Sherman quite ready to decide that he could not remain in a seceding State; but between the responsibility for the support of his family and the impulse to join the Union army at once, the decision as to the remainder of his duty was not so easy. He tells us enough to show two things: first, that for a time he was not disposed to take any active part in the contest, saying the politicians might get us out of the "fix" they had gotten us into; and, second, that until the call for three years' troops was issued he did not see enough in a military career to attract the ambition of a man who retained much of the feelings and modes of thought of the professional soldier. He would not go with the South, but he was only half inclined to take up arms for the North. Yet a man of military education and recognized energy, who was a brother of John Sherman and son-in-law of Thomas Ewing, could not lack invitations to return to the regular army, and, early in May, his name was sent to the Senate for confirmation as Colonel of the Thirteenth Regular Infantry, among the earliest of the appointments under the laws for the increase of the army under the organization for three years. Sherman thus found himself back in his old place in his profession, or rather in a higher place in it than he could have reached in the ordinary course of events had he never resigned. As his narrative pretty clearly indicates that he had regretted leaving the army, it is fair to assume that this mode of return to it was to him a fortunate turn in his career; and his prompt acceptance of it would be a matter of course unless his sentiments had been strongly opposed to the National Government, which they were not. His action at this juncture, therefore, may fairly be regarded as determined by professional considerations, and his zeal for the national cause, like that of many others of the regular army officers, grew during the contest itself, and in part at least by the natural influence of fighting for it. His patriotism was genuine, but he was not a Republican in politics, and was not one of those from whom came the spontaneous outburst of uncalculating self-devotion which swept through the loyal States when Sumter was fired upon.

Once in the army again, he applied himself to his work with the instincts of a true soldier and the grasp of a man of quick and clear intellect. The war gave him his opportunity, and his successes and fame were fairly the result of ability and good work. As a subordinate, he was free from intrigue and gave a loyal and earnest support to his commander. As a commander, he was ready to take the responsibility of his own acts, and usually just in awarding the due meed of praise or blame to his subordinates. It is only in the case of officers who might be regarded as rivals in his own rank that he falls into unnecessary acerbity of criticism or belittling and contemptuous comment on their actions.

In his account of the first battle of Bull Run, Sherman brings out clearly the fact that the opposing armies had neither of them acquired the coherence necessary to make it possible to handle them in the proper military sense of the term, or to prevent a check being quickly turned into a panic. His frank admission that the officers in command deserved little praise or blame for their respective parts in the action has the air of transparent truth, as does his amusing account of the receipt of the news of their promotion when Heintzelman was insisting that they were all to be cashiered instead. Equally sincere, no doubt, is his statement that when he was transferred to the West he desired that his command might be a subordinate one. His view of the difficulties of an independent command, including the dangers he had just seen raw troops create for commanders whose plans were well digested, the troublesome character of the semi-political duties of department commanders, the doubts as to his own ability to spring at once from the command of a handful of regulars to the manœuvring of real armies, all taught him to seek the safer and more modest career of a brigade or division commander whilst he should test his own powers and learn the rôle of a general. Such caution in a man of so impulsive a temperament shows a mingling of practical sense with his enterprise, and helps account for his final achievements.

His description of Shiloh, though evidently drawn from the standpoint of the Army of the Tennessee, is a pretty fair one, and does no real injustice to the Army of the Cumberland. He labors to prove that the hard defensive fight of Grant's army on the 6th of April was not a rout, nor even a surprise, but left that command in condition for a possible resumption of the offensive on the morning of the 7th; but he also very frankly admits that Buell's army made the victory certain, and praises in unstinted terms the fighting of his divisions, enumerating by name not only the division commanders, but specifying also the brigades and even regiments which attracted his attention by their gallant conduct. He says of Buell's whole command that their "soldierly movements at once gave confidence to our newer and less disciplined men," and "concedes that Gen. McCook's splendid division from Kentucky drove back the enemy along the Corinth road, which was the

great centre of this field of battle," etc. All this is in his official report, which is reproduced in full in the body of the memoirs, and reaffirmed. Certainly nothing more could be asked unless it be to admit that Grant's army did nothing on the 7th, and ought to have surrendered on the night of the 6th. The most jealous of Buell's old army officers would hardly ask that.

On another point of common criticism, however, it must be conceded that Sherman does not make an equally good defence : that is, the neglect to entrench or make any kind of cover on the front towards Corinth. The argument that such breastworks would have diminished the confidence of the troops seems wrong in theory, and wholly out of accord with all the later experience of the war. The truth probably is that the officers in command had not yet freed themselves from the traditions of European tactics, and had not learned—as this bit of experience tended strongly to teach them—the necessity of a constant use of axe and spade in a country of which almost every mile would be regarded by a European tactician as impracticable. The bitter controversy which has been had on the subject of this battle makes both Grant and Sherman chary of admitting any mistakes, but this admission they may safely make, and lose nothing but a little pride of opinion in regard to it.

In the following movement upon Corinth while Halleck was in immediate command, Sherman's relations to that officer were evidently pleasant, and a cordial and mutually appreciative correspondence seems to have continued between them down to the negotiations between Sherman and Johnston in 1865, to which we shall have occasion to advert again.

The subordinate movements of the following campaign prior to the siege of Vicksburg are well and clearly given in the narrative, and valuable light is thrown upon their relation to the general plan of campaign adopted by Grant, who was again in chief active command in the Mississippi Valley. The incident of the capture of Arkansas Post is given with spirit ; but in the treatment of General McClernand the author is fairly chargeable with saying either too much or too little. The animus is decidedly hostile, and yet the narrative does not give facts enough for the reader to feel that he has the means of judging clearly between the parties. Sherman's subsequent career lifted him too high as a military man to make it possible that the jealousy felt at the time could color his picture at this late day, yet it is quite plain that he cordially dislikes McClernand and tries to ridicule him.

The siege of Vicksburg itself is given with sufficient fulness to convey a distinct idea of the plan, and Grant is fully credited with the conception and determination of both the plan itself and the details of its execution. A letter written by Sherman during the progress of the operations shows that he would have moved to the rear of the city from the north, and he is still of the opinion that such a course would have shortened the siege materially. The letter, however, appears to have been written to call out the opinions of the other corps commanders, and instead of being intended as a criticism upon Grant's purposes, was meant to commit McClernand to some affirmative plan of campaign, and forestall any criticism after the event from that quarter. Grant, however, did not call for the opinions of the rest, nor did he modify his own. Success, as is usual, justified the course actually taken, and quickly lifted Grant to the command of all the armies of the nation.

Sherman's part in the victory at Mission Ridge is modestly given ; but his winter march to Knoxville to Burnside's relief seemed to him unnecessary, and he was evidently annoyed at finding that Burnside had comfortable headquarters within the town, and that the reports of starvation had been exaggerated. Sherman's own habit in the field was a model of simplicity and economy of transportation, carrying the reduction of headquarters baggage to the extreme limit, if indeed he did not sometimes go beyond it. As a natural result, he looked with displeasure upon every evidence that other commanders were giving some attention to their own comfort, overlooking sometimes the difference of situation between field-service and other phases of military life. Thus, he records the fact of Burnside occupying a fine house in Knoxville, subsequently does the same in the case of Banks at New Orleans, and even gives "Pap" Thomas a "little dig" in regard to the size of his field equipage. We suspect that those who served with "Uncle Billy" regarded that tent-fly of his as his pet weakness, and camp stories are even current that in hard weather his staff-officers were sometimes glad to take refuge in the more ample shelter of the headquarters of the Army of the Cumberland. If the officers of whom he records these criticisms had no severer charges laid at their doors, they would be fortunate men. Yet if Sherman erred, it was on the right side, and he is no doubt right in asserting that he was able to give his army greater mobility and impetus by setting the example of throwing away all *impedimenta*.

The first volume closes with the march to Meridian, which was a necessary means of rendering it possible to leave the Mississippi Valley in charge of only a small force when the concentration should be made at Chattanooga for a great campaign in Georgia. The Mississippi had now been opened ; the rebel force west of it hardly amounted to an army ; the destruction of railways took the States of Louisiana and Mississippi practically out of the field of grand operations ; everything north of the other Gulf States was safe ; and Sherman prepared for a formidable advance into the heart of what still remained the enemy's country, whilst Grant assumed command of the Army of the Potomac to begin the inexorable but terribly costly advance upon Richmond.

---

*A Group of Poets and their Haunts.* By James Albert Harrison. (New York : Hurd and Houghton. 1875.)—Mr. Harrison dates his preface from "Randolph-Macon College," Virginia, from which we infer that his volume has, intellectually, a Southern pedigree, as it were, and was originally addressed to Southern readers. Indeed, without this indication, we should have arrived at some such conclusion, for the author's style, on its face, reflects the fervors of a high temperature. It seems proper to give Mr. Harrison the benefit of his circumstances, and to observe that there are good reasons why he should write as he does ; but it is fair, on the other hand, to remember that Southern literature is not, by an absolutely invincible necessity, pitched in the uncomfortably high key of these essays. It is desirable, in other words, both that the Southern view of intellectual things should not seem to an author (especially if he is making his first experiments) the most felicitous and profitable one, and that the Southern mind should not accept such performances as those of Mr. Harrison for more than they are worth. Their value seems to us quite relative. Just what the Southern view of things consists of we should, ourselves, be at loss to explain : read Mr. Harrison, and you will get a notion. Roughly speaking, it consists very much more of words than ideas—of sound than of substance. Mr. Harrison handles words with a certain natural vocation for the task ; but he is a clever conjuror rather than a real magician. He does not always make the best use of his cleverness, either; he is liable to grievous slips and mishaps; the same thing, with more care, could be better done. We say with more care—with a better use of the same material ; for Mr. Harrison's book is good enough to make it a pity it is not much better. He has an excellent selection of subjects—subjects which are a proof of his having real literary and æsthetic predilections. He has apparently made a long stay in Europe, and spent his time there in a sufficiently scholarly manner. Heine, Byron (viewed in connection with his places of residence in Italy), Tasso, Boccaccio ; the picturesque aspects of Copenhagen ; Bellmann, the Swedish poet, Béranger, Chénier, Alfred de Musset—these are all remunerative themes, if one has the art to make them so. But it is hard to imagine a man taking more trouble to make less of them than Mr. Harrison has done. He is bitten with the mania of being picturesque at any cost, in season and out, and on this errand he indulges in the most fantastic escapades. His writing, half the time, reads like a repulsive rehash of the sort of literature to which Mr. G. A. Sala and Mr. Hepworth Dixon have accustomed us, and of which the London *Telegraph* is the classic exponent. We have but to open him at random for an illustration. "Venetian women are not pretty if one sees them squinting, arms a-kimbo, behind their booth-counters, inhaling the slops and slums of forty doges. They look like brunettes of Eblis. Their gibble-gabble is incessant. A little of the silent vaccine of Turkey might be introduced to advantage into the national carcass." What does Mr. Harrison mean, elsewhere, by "the rugged facts, the red-hot soberness, the telescopic vividness to which Hawthorne clings, as to the Pillars of Hercules"? What does he mean by calling Paul Veronese "that Taine of Italians"? What profit does he find in winding up an incoherent rhapsody about Hawthorne's Miriam, "whose character has the purple opaqueness of clouded amethyst," with the statement that in the contours of the Faun of Praxiteles "there is focalized the whole of an extinct civilization, there is unsphered from the mere pictorial symbol the glorious fearlessness and freedom and energy that triremed the whole Mediterranean and hamstrung the monarchy of Xerxes"? What is he thinking of when he calls Lord Byron "the stereopticon of British poets"? What does he mean, above all, by producing such an unsavory passage as that on page 38, relative to what he calls the "flowery vices" of Lady Byron? The taste of such stuff as this strikes us as simply depraved ; neither reason nor imagination has anything to do with it.

The whole article upon Byron is extremely bad; both the sentiment and the style are in the highest degree sophomorical. Mr. Harrison's judgments seem to us throughout of singularly little value, and his whole manner of criticism extremely flimsy and erratic. His characterizations have neither head nor tail, neither beginning nor end; he has an extraordinary faculty for turning his topics upside down and grasping them by the wrong handle. The reader fairly rubs his eyes when he stumbles upon such lines as these, touching Alfred de Musset: "His romance, 'Confessions of a Child of the Time,' is written with great and uncommon excellence. . . . The cheerful realism of the man has made him almost as great a favorite as Reuter with his countrymen beyond the Rhine. More than any French writer, he recalls Goethe, strangely enough; then a gleam of Rabelaisian fun reveals his intimacy with the French humorists of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries" De Musset's "cheerful realism" and his analogy with Reuter, Goethe, and Rabelais are points which we hardly expected to live to see expatiated upon. Mr. Harrison's fault is not simply that he is too fervid and florid and fanciful; but he is astride of the wrong horse altogether, his foundations are quite unsound. He gives us a long rhapsody on the Swedish poet Bellmann, whom we do not know, but whom he declares a most delightful genius. This is excellent; but it will hardly be believed that in support of his eulogy he does not offer a single specimen of his author, a scrap, a line of quotation. He talks to equally vain purpose of the Provençal poet Jasmin. A few grains of example substituted for his great redundancy of precept would in each case have been welcome. Mr. Harrison is too fond of his own rhetorical flourishes to sacrifice one of them to his subject, and his subjects therefore, *quâ* subjects, fare very badly. If we seem to be taking his indiscretions unduly hard, it is that he seems to us really to have a literary gift which ought to be turned to better account.

---

*Home Sketches in France*, and Other Papers. By the late Mrs. Henry M. Field. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1875.)—This little work will have a value to many persons as a memento of a woman of much social eminence—a woman who introduced into quarters where they would otherwise (and regrettably) have been little known, those gifts and graces which we are taught to attribute to the social and conversational play of the French mind. This will be its chief value, for the papers of which it is composed are of a slight and unpretending sort. They are agreeable, however, and indicate the multiplicity of the author's interests. Some of them, at least—the private letters from Europe—were originally written in French, and we are sorry that the editor should have thought it necessary to translate them. Easily, apparently, as Mrs. Field handled English, it is probable that in her own tongue her style had a stronger savor—a savor of which her many friends would have relished a literary memorial. If the letters contributed directly to the press were written by Mrs. Field in the excellent English in which they now appear, this seems to us a remarkable literary feat. But even if they suffered certain corrections, it is perhaps not fanciful to see in them, slight and amateurish as they confess themselves to be, a trace of that natural neatness of style, that instinctive sense of shapeliness, which is perhaps the most characteristic sign of the charming race to which Mrs. Field belonged, and so many of whose virtues (even the incongruous ones) she apparently contrived to reconcile with so many of ours.

---

*Text-Book of Botany, Morphological and Physiological.* By Julius Sachs, Professor of Botany in the University of Würzburg Translated and annotated by Alfred W. Bennett, M.A, etc., assisted by W. T. Thisleton Dyer, M.A, etc. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875. pp. 858, 8vo.)—*Traité de Botanique conformé a l'état présent de la Science.* Par J. Sachs, etc. Traduit de l'Allemand sur la 3e édition et annoté par Ph. Van Tieghem. (Paris: Savy. 1874. pp. 1,120, 8vo.)—Sachs's 'Lehrbuch,' the renowned German text-book for structural and physiological botany, is now accessible in French and English—the translation made by Van Tieghem and issued last year being followed by the rather better one by two young English botanists, which the Clarendon Press has now brought out in a style which leaves nothing to be desired. Both are from Sachs's third edition, but the English editors have been able to make some use of the fourth, which was concurrently passing through the press in Germany. The Würzburg Professor has been taking the lead in vegetable physiology, while maintaining a conspicuous although less unchallenged eminence in vegetable anatomy and morphology. In one or more of the three languages this text-book will be the *vade-mecum* of the advanced student. The woodcuts are equally well reproduced in the two translations; and the editorial notes are about equally numerous. Those of the English editor are mainly simple references to other sources of information, while those of the French editor are largely critical, Van Tieghem being himself a leading histological and morphological investigator, with pronounced views of his own, some of them peculiar. What we are entitled to expect from the English editor and his associate—both botanists of high promise—is a correct and clear translation of the German work (no small or easy matter), and this we here have. Indeed, the rendering seems to us to be particularly happy, and the whole appearance of the volume is most satisfactory.

Any special reference to the contents of the volume would lead us too far, especially if we attempted ever so concise an exposition of Sachs's strong points, which lie in the domain of molecular and somewhat mechanical physiology. It would be instructive and curious to contrast his way of regarding the movements and action of plants with Darwin's. It is worth remarking that Sachs adopts the theory of descent, and in a sensible and practical way, mainly because of the light it throws upon morphology and development.

---

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Abbott (J. S. C.), Adventures of Chevalier de la Salle | (Dodd & Mead) |
| Atwater (Rev. E. E.), Sacred Tabernacle of the Hebrews | (Dodd & Mead) |
| American Newspaper Directory | (Geo. P. Rowell & Co.) |
| Alexander (H. C.), Life of Joseph Addison Alexander, D.D., new ed | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) $2 50 |
| Burlingame (E. L.), Art-Life and Theories of Richard Wagner | (Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00 |
| Bussler (L.), Praktische Harmonielehre, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Coleman (W. M.), The Wandering Jew in America: a Tale, swd | (J. G. Hester) 0 50 |
| Curteis (A. M.), History of the Roman Empire | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Collins (W.), Alice Warlock: a Tale, swd | (W. F. Gill & Co.) 0 75 |
| Cherbuliez (V.), Miss Rovel, swd | (Estes & Lauriat) 0 50 |
| Curtis (G. T.), Nature of the American Union, swd | (E. P. Dutton & Co.) 0 50 |
| Dashiell (Rev. T. G.), A Pastor's Recollections | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Dannehl (Dr. G.), Ueber Niederdeutsche Sprache und Literatur | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Digby (K. E.), History of the Law of Real Property | (Macmillan & Co.) 3 00 |
| Eustis (Rev. W. T.), Service of Praise | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50 |
| Friswell (J. H.), The Better Self | (Porter & Coates) 2 00 |
| Forsyth (W.), History of Lawyers | (Estes & Lauriat) 3 50 |
| Goodell (A. C., jr.), Address on the Meeting of the Provincial Assembly, Oct 5, 1774 | (Salem) |
| Gordon (Lady D.), Last Letters from Egypt and the Cape | (Macmillan & Co.) 2 00 |
| Greene (W. B.), Socialistic, Communistic, Mutualistic, and Financial Fragments | (Lee & Shepard) 1 25 |
| Hall (Rev. J.) and Stuart (G. H.), The American Evangelists in Great Britain and Ireland | (Dodd & Mead) |
| Havard (H.), La Hollande Pittoresque, swd | (F. W. Christern) |
| Headley (J. T.), The Adirondack, new ed | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 00 |
| Hillebrand (Prof. K.), Wälsches und Deutsches, swd | (Robert Oppenheim) |
| History and Philosophy of Marriage | (Jas. Campbell) |
| Harland (Marion), Breakfast, Luncheon, and Tea | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 75 |
| History of the United States, Parts I.-IV., swd | (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 0 25 |
| Jacox (F.), Shakspeare Diversions | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 4 00 |
| Jeanrenaud (Prof. E.), Practical French | (Am. News Co.) |
| Kleinwächter (Dr. F.), Reform der Handwerks-Verfassung, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Keys to the Creeds | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25 |
| Lanfrey (P.), Histoire de Napoléon I., Vol. 5, swd | (F. W. Christern) |
| Lawson (Capt. J. A.), Wanderings in the Interior of New Guinea | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 3 00 |
| Lermontoff (M.), The Demon: a Poem | (Trübner & Co.) |
| Littré (E.), Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, 4 vols | (F. W. Christern) |
| Laspeyres (Dr. E.), Die Kathedersocialisten, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Macdonald (G.), A Double Story | (Dodd & Mead) |
| Minto (Countess), Life and Letters of First Earl of Minto, 3 vols | (Longmans, Green & Co.) |
| Muhlenberg (Rev. W. A.), Evangelical Catholic Papers | (T. Whittaker) 2 00 |
| Miller (J.), Metaphysics | (Dodd & Mead) |
| Moe (Adelaide T.), The Old Fountain Inn, and Other Poems | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Notes on Building Construction, Part I. | (Rivingtons) |
| Otto (Dr. E.), Introductory German Reader | (Henry Holt & Co.) 1 20 |
| Pease (Rev. A. G.), Philosophy of Trinitarian Doctrine | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50 |
| Pennell (R. F.), The Latin Subjunctive, swd | (John Allyn) |
| Phin (J.), Selection and Use of the Microscope | (Industrial Pub. Co.) 0 75 |
| Portfolio, No. 65, swd | (J. W. Bouton) 1 00 |
| Sachs (J.), Text Book of Botany | (Macmillan & Co.) 12 50 |
| Sherman (Gen. W. T.), Memoirs, 2 vols | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part 26: France, Great Britain, Africa, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| " Ergänzungsheft IV.: Australia, swd | " " |
| Shields (Prof. C. W.), Religion and Science | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) |
| Seelye (Rev. J. H.), Christian Missions | (Dodd & Mead) |
| The Workshop, No. 5, swd | (E. Steiger) 0 50 |
| Taylor (T.), The Eleusinian and Bacchic Mysteries | (J. W. Bouton) 3 00 |
| Taylor (B. F.), Pictures of Life in Camp and Field | (S. C. Griggs & Co.) |
| Tiffany (J. K.), Catalogue of Stamp Publications, swd | (Privately printed) |
| Van Rhyn (G. A. F.), What and How to Read, swd | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Virchow (Prof. R.), Die Heilkräfte des Organismus, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |
| Wieck (F.), Piano and Song | (Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) |
| Wynter (Dr. A.), Fruit between the Leaves | (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) |
| Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, Nos. 54, 55, swd | (L. W. Schmidt) |

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 17, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE New Hampshire dispute has ended without bloodshed, the judges having refused to consider the questions submitted to them. In this they were evidently right, and, indeed, it is difficult to see how they could ever have been expected to solve the question as it was put to them. When it was announced ten days ago that the matter had been referred to the courts, we supposed it was to be brought before them in the usual way as a matter of disputed right between two persons, or, under the New Hampshire constitution, in the form of a request for instructions coming from the Governor and Council. But, far from this, the politicians seem to have referred the whole affair to the judiciary for arbitration—a duty which they very properly declined to undertake. On the opinion of the court being announced, the House and Senate proceeded to the election of a Governor, which they accomplished without much difficulty, or any loss of life on either side, the Republicans carrying the day, notwithstanding the presence in the Senate of the two Democratic Senators who have given so much trouble.

The Court of Appeals has reversed the decision of the Court below in the Tweed *habeas corpus* case, and ordered his release. The Judges were unanimous—Judge Grover, though absent, concurring. Tweed was indicted for several offences in one indictment, and each offence was charged in a separate count, and for each count on which he was found guilty the Judge inflicted a separate penalty, amounting in the aggregate to twelve years' imprisonment. The Court holds that this was illegal, and that when the Judge had imposed the penalty of one year's imprisonment and $250 fine he had exhausted his powers. As Tweed will be immediately rearrested in several civil suits and under other indictments, the decision will be of little immediate service to him except in securing his removal to a more comfortable prison. It may save editors in other States some useless declamation to say that the judgment of the Court of Appeals commands the respect of everybody who knows anything about the matter in hand.

New evidence has during the past week made its appearance in the Beecher case in the shape of a "statement" by Carpenter, the artist, and the discovery by the *Herald* of the druggist who sold poison to Mr. Beecher, and two workmen who happened to be witnesses in Tilton's house to some improper familiarities between Mrs. Tilton and Mr. Beecher. Carpenter's statement does not throw much light on the case, though it brings out some curious scenes in the Tilton household, as, for instance, one in which there was a sort of consultation or discussion between Tilton and his wife, in the presence of and partly assisted by Carpenter, as to how she should make a statement of what her sin had been. The *Herald* story is more important. The Tilton press (it is really not unfair to say that many of the newspapers are as distinctly committed on the merits of the case as they are to one or other party in politics) receive it with great manifestations of approval, while the Beecher press maintains its utter improbability. In any other case, we should say that a story of a well-known clergyman, who desired to make away with himself, walking into a druggist's shop and, after first conversing pleasantly with the druggist for half an hour on the effects of different kinds of poison on the human system, calling for a bottle of prussic acid, and carrying it off, was in the highest degree unlikely to be true, as would also be a story of a well-known clergyman's committing gross acts of familiarity with a woman, almost in the presence of two workmen. But we must confess that reading the Beecher trial regularly has dulled our sense of the difference between what is probable and improbable, as well as between what is decent and indecent.

The Chicago *Tribune* publishes some interesting testimony taken by a Master in Chancery in a foreclosure suit brought by the Union Trust Company against the Rockford, Rock Island, and St. Louis Railroad. In 1868 this road placed on the market a loan of $5,000,000 through Mr. H. H. Boody, the principal financial agent of the Company; but it seems from his testimony that the proceeds were not all applied to the direct construction of the road, but that $120,000 were put into the hands of influential editors and publishers of newspapers, the best known of whom was Mr. Henry C. Bowen of the *Independent*. Mr. Bowen received $40,000 in bonds, and agreed, on his part, in consideration of this sum, to "thoroughly write up and endorse the enterprise," and also to publish "as editorial" anything that Mr. Boody should from time to time write on the subject, and Bowen was also to give "his personal influence in connection with his acquaintance among bankers and others." This contract, according to Mr. Boody's testimony, was faithfully carried out. He also testified that he did not make the proposition to Bowen, but that the latter applied to him, and on being asked to explain made this reply: "The writers of the financial articles of the New York papers have a way of very distinctly communicating their wishes to persons situated as I was without stating it in very broad terms. I knew very distinctly from what was said that the alternative was their opposition or support." Some time ago we called attention to a similar contract on the part of Mr. Bowen with the Northern Pacific Railroad. We again bring the matter to the notice of the theologians who write for his paper.

Wall-Street speculation has been in a state of feverish reaction. Whether this condition was a natural collapse following the excessive activity of late weeks and likely to continue through the "heated term," or is simply a halt pending the truce between the railroads, remains to be seen. Opinion inclines to the conclusion that, as great schemes of railroad reconstruction and consolidation are pending, the summer speculation is likely to be unusually active. Some surprise is felt that Mr. Garrett's defiant talk at Chicago should be so soon followed by negotiations for peace, and on terms which appear to give Mr. Scott an advantage. The fact of a basis of settlement between the competing roads having been reached has a reassuring effect among holders of railroad securities; nevertheless, the war has had the misfortune of leaving in the minds of investors a feeling that even the most solid of corporate investments may be imperilled by the recklessness of virtually omnipotent presidents. The foreign exchanges continue exceptionally firm, and gold, in sympathy with the scarcity of sterling bills, verges closely upon 117. The $20,000,000, more or less, of five-twenties to be returned from Europe, in response to the "call" on account of the Sinking Fund, are going rapidly into the Treasury for payment; and, as merely nominal amounts of other securities are sent abroad to replace them, it seems likely that our exports of gold may be augmented by nearly that amount. The exports of specie from this port last week amounted to $4,674,000. So far, the large contributions we are making to the bullion reserves of the Bank of England have had little effect on the London money market; although, from all precedent, it would seem they must soon quicken the demand there for American securities.

General trade still lacks symptoms of revival. Although stocks of merchandise are moderate, merchants show great anxiety to sell, and reductions in prices are made which must render the result of the season's trade unsatisfactory. Manufacturers show a disposition to diminish rather than augment their production in anticipation of the fall business; and the markets for raw materials generally are

consequently weak. Southern advices warrant the expectation of a large cotton crop, and also afford evidence that the cereal product of that section is likely to exceed all precedent, leaving a surplus for export. Setting off this gain against the deficiencies of some other sections, it seems probable we shall have about an average supply of breadstuffs from the approaching harvest. Washington reports indicate that, owing to the large payments on account of the Sinking Fund, the Federal expenditures of the fiscal year to end on the 30th inst. will exceed the income by fully $20,000,000. The cash resources of the Treasury are ample enough to make up this deficiency without the drain being seriously felt.

---

Judge Dillon, of the United States District Court in Iowa, recently rendered a decision, which we have already noticed (*Nation*, May 27), in which he declared railroads to be in their public character "improved highways, whose life is due to the exercise of the State right of eminent domain and taxation," and held that their public character was not divested by the fact that the ownership was private, and, therefore, that the Iowa Legislature might control the charges of the State railroads in its discretion. This is the kind of law the Grangers like. The Burlington (Iowa) *Hawkeye* has, however, now disinterred a decision of Judge Dillon's, made in 1869, when he was Chief-Justice of the State Supreme Court, in which he furnishes a totally different account of the law. In the latter he says railroad companies are "mere private corporations, voluntarily organized for pecuniary profits," whose ultimate business is "that of a mere common carrier." He added: "If the legislature could abolish railroad corporations, restrict their chartered powers, control their rights and property, the same as they can do with respect to municipal or civil corporations, there would be some ground for holding that they are not essentially private. . . . . That such corporations are private, and not public, is a principle of law so well settled that it has not even been questioned by counsel. No case can be found which denies it."

---

He went, however, even further than this, in the following remarkable passage: "It is to be remembered also that railway corporations are not organized for the purpose of developing the material prosperity of the State. This is a mere incident of the business they prosecute. But they are organized solely to make money for their stockholders. The Legislature has no more power over their property or rights than it has over the property or rights of natural persons or other private corporations organized under the same general law." The explanation the uncharitable foreign investor will be apt to put, we fear, on this extraordinary specimen of judicial wabbling within the short space of six years, is that in 1869 the Iowa farmers were engaged in a very discreditable attempt to repudiate the town and county bonds which had been issued in aid of railroad construction, and Chief-Justice Dillon was ready to help them, by laying down one theory of railroad property; that in 1875 they are engaged in another attempt, equally dishonest, to force the railroads to carry their produce at non-paying rates, and Judge Dillon is ready to help them by laying down another theory of railroad property directly opposed to the former one. We are glad to see the *Hawkeye* warning the people of Iowa of the effect of these performances on the development of the State. Judge Dillon may help them to cheat the present holders of railroad property, but he cannot help them to get more railroads built.

---

When Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co. were being pursued by the Custom-house informers under the most trying circumstances, Mr. H. B. Claflin had no hesitation in throwing the weight of his opinion against them, and giving the moiety-men a kind of certificate of character. He assured the Committee of Ways and Means that "honest men had nothing to fear" under the rule of Jayne, and that if his own books and papers were seized, he would "get out of trouble very quickly" if he showed that "all was honest and right." We must say that this appearance of his has considerably diminished the regret with which the public have heard of the recent indictment of his firm by the Grand Jury, on a charge of having knowingly bought smuggled silks. Now, an indictment by the Grand Jury is and ought to be, a far more serious thing than a seizure by Jayne, because the Grand Jury is a legal tribunal composed of respectable and disinterested men, who hear sworn evidence, and when they say, by finding an indictment, that there is good reason for further investigation, they justify the public to a certain extent in believing there is something wrong. Jayne, on the other hand, was an unprincipled adventurer, who collected information secretly from whatever source he could, and had a large pecuniary interest in accusing his victims, and began his proceedings by seizing the books of merchants and publishing them to the world as rogues on his own authority. The exposure of respectable men to this sort of attack was of course a most dangerous and discreditable state of things, which all merchants had the strongest interest in abolishing, and against which they owed each other support and assistance. It was not to Mr. Claflin's credit that he did not take this view of the matter, and that he should have lent the moiety system his countenance; but then, all this does not render it a whit more likely that his house has been concerned in smuggling silk, and ought not to prejudice him pending a full legal investigation. When any man has conducted a business like his on so great a scale without reproach for so many years, the presumptions of the public ought to run, and run strongly, in his favor. The firm has asked, in a published card, for "a suspension of judgment," and they ought undoubtedly to have it, and have it unreservedly.

---

There have been of late more investigations into the state of things in the New York Custom-house, with a view to greater honesty, which Mr. Bristow would doubtless like to have, although the institution is said to be considerably improved since the old Murphy days. It is "investigated" and overhauled about once in four years, and great efforts are said to be put forth to make it efficient, but somehow they don't succeed, owing, we are usually told, to the wickedness of importers. If all importers were pious, God-fearing men, with a fondness for paying duties, we should have "the best Custom-house on this planet," and the Government would get its full revenues; but the importers being what they are, there is somehow a great deal of fraud and evasion, and the Government loses heavily. It is reported from Washington that the greatest difficulty the Treasury has to deal with is the finding of competent appraisers at the rate of pay which the Government offers. Clerks and detectives it is comparatively easy to secure, because their kind of labor is abundant; but a man with the knowledge of goods and the integrity competent appraisers need to have, can naturally command three or four times as large a salary in any of the dry-goods houses as the Government is willing to pay him. Consequently, the Government has to content itself with inferior men in that very department of the Custom-house in which the most important part of the work of preventing fraud has to be done. Now, when a Government does not wish to pay its officers high salaries, there is one well-known and widely-practised mode of getting good officers at low salaries, and that is by giving them permanence and social consideration in lieu of money. This succeeds in various countries, and is based on human nature. As long as our Government refuses either to give good wages or security of tenure, it must expect to be poorly served, and it may "investigate" weekly and "decapitate" monthly without mending matters. At present it seems to be waiting for the growth of virtue among the importers and distillers in order to set the Civil Service on its legs, but we can assure Mr. Bristow that importers and distillers improve very slowly.

---

A gentleman waked up in his bedroom in Brooklyn the other night to find a burglar taking his watch; he grappled with him, and the burglar thereupon shot him, as it seemed, fatally. The affair, which perhaps bears a close resemblance to the Nathan murder, is exciting a great deal of sensation, and there has been a determined effort made to catch the murderer. There can, of course,

be no harm in catching him, but there are several reasons why he should not be punished capitally or otherwise, which we shall now furnish. They are not original with us, and most of our readers will know where we have found them. It will do no good to hang him; men have been hanged for murder for ages, and yet, as we see, murders are committed. By parity of reasoning, it will do no good to imprison him; men have been imprisoned a great deal for murder and robbery, and yet they continue, as we see, to murder and rob. Neither capital nor any other punishment had really any terrors for this man when he was committing his crime, as any one may satisfy himself by asking him when he is caught. He will tell you he was not thinking of punishment at all, showing the absurdity of the talk we hear about "the deterrent effect of the gallows." Besides this, to hang him would only brutalize the other burglars, by familiarizing them with violent death. They frequently joke and laugh in full view of the scaffold; they laugh and joke, too, when passing by the jail, and even in their cells inside, showing the futility of our whole penal system. Though last not least, society, rather than the criminal, is responsible for his acts. If he had been well brought up, and had received a college education, and had had a moderate income when he graduated, he probably would never have stolen a cent. The moral of the story is that when men see a burglar taking their watches in their bedrooms, they should lie still and let him run, and thus avoid these sanguinary encounters.

---

The author of 'Ginx's Baby,' Mr. Edward Jenkins, to whom we refer again, not because we owe him any grudge, but because he is a good illustration of the kind of stuff out of which Sentimentalists like to make "statesmen" in our day, has again been laying down the law in London, this time on war and peace. Why the writing of 'Ginx's Baby' should give a man a right to speak authoritatively on questions of Continental politics it would be hard to say, but Mr. Jenkins evidently thinks it does. In a recent address he explained what it was which recently prevented, to use his own language, "the catastrophe of another European war." Most people believe that it was prevented by a combination of circumstances of considerable weight, such as doubts about the feeling of the German people, and about the sentiment of England and Italy, and, above all, by the opposition of Russia and Austria, and this conclusion is abundantly justified by all that has since transpired about the affair. But Mr. Jenkins knows more about it than anybody, and what he says is, that war was prevented mainly by "a simple circular sent from London pleading in behalf of truth, justice, peace, and Christianity" —or, in other words, a tract issued by the Peace Society which was sent around to European courts. "This result," he says, "would not have followed in olden times," which is quite true; but unhappily we have only Mr. Jenkins's word for any such "result" having followed in our times. To attempt to refute him would be labor wasted.

---

The report of the progress of the Old Catholic movement made to the annual meeting recently held at Bonn is not very encouraging. There are supposed to be 150 Old Catholic congregations in Germany, but only 100 gave any account of themselves. These have nearly 48,000 members, young and old, and 54 priests, and less than one-half of these are to be found in Prussia; most of the remainder are to be found in Baden and Bavaria. The bill, which we believe has just passed, giving Old Catholic congregations a share of the church funds proportioned to their numbers, will, it is expected, increase their numbers, but at most the increase must be slight. The reason is, as everybody knows, that in Germany, as in all other places, Catholics who dislike or despise the Pope will not in our day take the trouble to secede or form separate denominations. There is not faith enough in the country to form a new church. Dissenters simply become rationalists, and, instead of hiring a new clergyman, pass their Sundays at the beer-garden, and listen to music instead of sound doctrine. It is this which makes the position of old theologians like Dr. Döllinger so melancholy. "The bark is still there, but the waters are gone."

The Emma Mine has been again before the English courts, this time on the rendering of a decision by Vice-Chancellor Malins, on the petition of Mr. Askew, a stockholder, to have the Company wound up. The Vice-Chancellor at the first hearing directed the submission of the question to a meeting of the stockholders, which was duly held, and the majority of votes against the winding-up was in the proportion of ten to one, and the petition was therefore dismissed without costs. The history of the enterprise was again rehearsed at this last hearing, and with the same comic effect, produced by the contrast between what Park & Co. promised and what actually happened. The announcement of the prospectus that the dividends would be kept down to eighteen per cent. per annum until a fund of $900,000 had been accumulated, after which the whole profits were to be let loose monthly on the stockholders, is now greatly enjoyed by Englishmen. As Park lent the money for the last two dividends, it is supposed by those who do not know the man's stern, austere nature that he enjoys it too. The majority desire to keep the Company on foot partly in order to follow him up.

---

There has been talk of a reconciliation between the Italian Government and the Pope, but it seems to have only slender if any foundation. The Pope does not wish to be reconciled to any of his enemies, and is just now seriously troubled about the doings of the Freemasons, of whom both he and the Church press seem to have very comical ideas, evidently considering the order the very fountain of the most prominent forms of modern wickedness. Most of the Catholic powers are said to be busily occupied with preparations for the conclave which is to elect the Pope's successor, either making themselves acquainted with their own powers and privileges, or trying to make out how the thing is likely to go; but Italian aims are said to be confined to getting an Italian elected—and that an Italian will be elected there seems to be little doubt—and the Government postpones the work of reconciliation until he appears. There is too little chance of accommodation with Pius IX. to make it worth while to torment him with proposals or negotiations. In the meantime, the policy of the Ministry towards the Church has been the subject of a brilliant debate in the Parliament, ending in the triumph of the Government by a majority of 70. The charge brought by the Opposition, led by Mancini, was that the Ministry had been guilty of illegal and impolitic concessions to the bishops and clergy, and he moved that the Ministry be requested to keep inviolate the national dignity and the laws already in force, and to guard the rights of the state and the prerogatives of the civil power as set forth in the law of the 13th May, 1871, and to propose without delay "the redistribution of ecclesiastical property, on the basis of the liberty of the inferior clergy and laity in matters ecclesiastical."

---

The bills presented to the French Assembly on "Public Powers" by the Ministry simply fill up some gaps in the working machinery of the new constitution. One gives the President the power of convening the Chambers in extraordinary session and of proroguing them, and he is bound to call for an extraordinary session if requested to do so by a majority of each Chamber. He is to have also a modified veto, which consists in the power of insisting on the reconsideration of a bill to which he objects. It may, however, be passed a second time by a simple majority. The impeaching powers of the legislature it is proposed to make the same as under the American Constitution, and both houses are to have the right of going into secret session. The other bill regulates the election of the Senate. It was the refusal of the Assembly to refer these bills to the Committee of Thirty which caused a majority of that body to resign, but this only made the Assembly laugh. The Committee was looked on as one of the weapons of the old "policy of combat," which is out of place now that conciliation is the order of the day. As reorganized, it is completely changed in its character, the Left being in a majority on it.

## BUNKER HILL.

THE way in which most good beyond the stimulation of mere emotion is to be got out of the contemplation of great historic events, is not so much by wondering over the consequences which have flowed from them, as by trying to put one's self in the place of the actors in them, and to see the world through their eyes. This is about the most useful exercise in which a student of history can engage, and on great anniversaries we are all students of history. What we are most apt to do, however, is to please ourselves with fancying that the men of other days saw the world as we see it, and were sustained in their trials by *our* hopes and aspirations, and that whatever we have accomplished since their time is a simple fulfilling of their ideal. One unfortunate result of this practice is, that those who indulge in it are apt to learn little or nothing from the lives of their forefathers, and, in fact, get into the way of looking at them with a certain patronizing pity, as one looks on one's own boyhood. Many a man is parading at Bunker Hill to-day with a sort of ill-disguised belief that it is a greater thing to be a voter or politician in the Republic which Bunker Hill helped to set up, than to have watched all night in the redoubt, and to have fought in it in the morning; and that what its defenders were trying to do in a blind way was what this generation has done.

But this does not do the men either of the Revolutionary or of the ante-Revolutionary days justice or anything like justice. There has been no pioneering in our day half so hard as their pioneering. No man who has pushed into the wilderness with the United States behind him, and all the hope and pride of its citizenship in his heart, has ever displayed anything like the fortitude of the men who settled the Connecticut Valley with nothing but a feeble colony at their back, and separated from all the great forces of historic civilization by what was to them a vast and impassable ocean, beyond which the elect struggled hopelessly against pope and king. There has been no fighting in our day which expressed a tithe of the courage expressed by the fighting of those volunteers who, without any recognized political organization to support them, without general, officers, or commissariat, and with the blackest uncertainty about the future, lined the intrenchment at Bunker's Hill a hundred years ago to-day. Our modern soldier, with his bounties and his pensions, his major-generals and his brigadiers, his military schools, his quartermasters, his arsenals, his sanitary-commissioners, his hospital nurses, his great government, his national flag, his flood of sympathy and of prayer borne in on him by steam and electricity at every hour of the day and night, and with the eyes of the world on him every time he loads his musket, has never had need of the store of austere faith and passionate valor which enabled the Puritan farmers to stand their ground as steadily as if they were commanded by Turenne, and Louvois was behind them with the resources of a great kingdom.

The secret of their confidence, and of their resulting success, was never so well worth studying as at the present moment, for it contains a political lesson of vast importance. What would come of their fighting the men who began the Revolution had no definite idea, and could have had none, any more than their great-grandfathers when they rose against Charles. It is very certain that they had no distinct political or social aim in their heads. They did not suppose for one moment that anything they could say or do would bring on the New Jerusalem one day sooner, or would hasten the reign of universal brotherhood or "free religion," or perform any process of final cleansing of the human heart. Any modern reformer who fancies himself their spiritual offspring might well take a lesson from them in modesty of outlook. And yet their strength lay in what Cromwell said, little over a century earlier, the strength of his Ironsides lay, in "knowing what they were fighting for, and loving what they knew." They neither dreamed dreams nor saw visions. They looked for no model state as the result of their sacrifices, but they felt, as their fathers felt, that they had in their keeping certain great political traditions of their race which their ancestors had transmitted to them, which they owed to their descendants, and which were well worth dying for, not as things which would end the reign of Satan, but which would make human struggles with the ills of a hard and trying life worthier of what they believed man's nature and destiny to be. They did not know what government, if any, would succeed the one they were resisting; but they knew that taxes ought to be voted by taxpayers, and that taxpayers ought to see to the spending of them; that justice should neither be sold, denied, nor delayed; and that any society in which they themselves lived ought to be ruled by law and not by men.

It was this perfect definiteness of perception as to what they were defending that enabled them to trouble themselves so little about the future. They had got, they knew, the foundations of Anglo-Saxon government behind their breastworks; how the legislature should be composed, or who should be governor, were, they felt, questions of detail. And these foundations were not newly-hatched theories evolved from the breasts of social or political philosophers, and amended from time to time in conventicles and essays; they were principles which ten generations had lived by and suffered for, and which had come over the sea with them. The misfortune of many of those who in our day are trying to carry out in civil life the doctrines for which they believed their fathers died on the field, is that, most of the time, they not only do not know what they are fighting for, but they glory in their ignorance. That the past has given them anything worth defending they think exceedingly doubtful, and they strenuously avoid forming any definite idea of what the future has in store. In most of their dreams it is a sort of fool's paradise, in which the difficulties by which, in our own day, human progress is beset will be got rid of by some occult force, of which "love" is the nearest description they give us; in which all the troublesome details of human activity will be settled by a general spirit of cheerfulness and forbearance, stimulated by occasional cheers and *feux de joie*. If society is really to be carried forward so as to keep alive the only fruitful activity—that which comes from rational hopefulness—reformers must clear their heads of cant, and find out exactly what they want before they shoulder their arms. The practice of enveloping all the problems of our time in a mist of vague declamatory aspiration, and of avoiding distinct definitions as signs of coldness or over-criticism, has in it the seeds of tremendous despair.

## THE REVIVAL IN ENGLAND.

THE large and increasing share of popular attention which religious questions have been attracting in England for the last ten years, has been the most striking phenomenon of English politics. We say of English politics, because religious questions are, in all countries in which there is an established church, political questions also, and among the most exciting of political questions, and the Established Church of England is perhaps the most famous and important institution of its kind the modern world has seen, because it is the only institution of its kind which can be called thoroughly national in its history and constitution. It has still a strong representation in the national legislature; it has until recently had complete possession of the leading universities; it has its ministers in every parish so lodged and endowed as to make them the most respected and picturesque and influential features in English country-life, and it has had, and still has, the undivided affection of the most cultivated and powerful classes of English society. Almost every man of note or consideration has been baptized or married in it, and is bound to it by the strongest ties of interest or affection, and the most splendid monuments of the national architecture are in its keeping. In fact, there never was a church whose foundations were laid so deep in the soil, or which was so buttressed both by tradition and custom. It is long since anything like a majority of the population worshipped within its walls, and yet it cannot be said that its connection with the state has thus far been seriously threatened by the numerical preponderance of Dissent. What threatens it, or has seemed to threaten it, is the growth of rationalistic opinions, and it is largely due to their bear-

ing on its fate that the theological debates attract so much more attention in England than anywhere else. It is only in England that the rationalists can be said to be at this moment at all fanatical or propagandist in their temper, or to feel the public proclamation of their infidelity to be a solemn duty. In every other modern country cultivated unbelievers are content to be let alone, and would smile at the notion that unbelief needed apostles or missionaries. The English Positivists have apparently satisfied themselves that silence is at least base, and that everybody who does not go to church is bound to let the world know why he stays at home, or incur the guilt of "compromise," which appears to be the Positivist name for sin. There can be little doubt that this falling-off is a result of the immense social influence of the Church Establishment, and that it is the worldly advantages of adhesion to it which has in England elevated negation into the rank of a new gospel. The imposing position of the Church, too, gives an air of keen political interest to many questions which in other countries would have little interest for anybody but Churchmen, and raises into importance things which in other countries would attract little attention from anybody at all. Whether a Wesleyan minister may lawfully put the word "Rev." before his own name on his daughter's tombstone is at this moment being solemnly argued by counsel before an English court, and it is not very long since English society was thrilled by hearing that Max Müller was going to deliver a lecture on missions in Westminster Abbey—the fact being that Westminster Abbey is a poor place to lecture in, and that Max Müller has nothing particular to say about missions; but then he is a kind of sceptic, and Westminster Abbey is a church.

The press—not the religious, but the daily and weekly political press—are now discussing, as an important social question, the condition of the art of preaching among the clergy of the Established Church, apropos of the assertion recently made that a large number of the younger ministers buy their sermons lithographed at a low rate from hacks in London, who, having once entangled them in their coils, levy blackmail on them by threats of exposure. This, combined with a letter of the Archbishop of Canterbury on the Moody and Sankey revivals, in which he concedes to these gentlemen great success in rousing sinners from their apathy, but claims for the regular clergy "the delicate and difficult task of ministering to anxious souls," has brought up the enquiry, which is destined before long to make its way to the front in all Protestant countries, whether the art of preaching is one that can be taught at all, or whether the attempt to teach it has not much to do with the declining power of the sermon, as compared to other moral and religious influences, for that it is relatively declining nobody denies.

Ministers are trained for the work in all countries on one of two theories: either that they are to be made, at ordination, the recipients of a certain mystic grace, which qualifies them exclusively for the administration of the sacraments, or that there exists a science called theology, the knowledge of which can be communicated, and is necessary to a teacher of religion. In the Catholic Church a theologian is a man who is familiar with the opinions of other sound theologians, with the authoritative utterances of the Church on the various questions of doctrine and discipline. In the Protestant Church, he is a man who is not only familiar with the writings of the theologians of his and other schools, but has a certain skill of his own in the interpretation of Scripture. Under the first theory, preaching is of course of comparatively little consequence. Under the second, a good preacher has of necessity to be a good theologian, and in making a man a good theologian you do most of the work of making him a good preacher. But as the popular interest in dogmas has declined, and as theological definitions have lost their clearness, a young man who leaves college well versed in theology is no longer as well equipped for the work of preaching as he used to be. To put the matter in another way, the technical point of a minister's training has not the value it once had. He needs now, in order to reach "the sinner," not so much hermeneutical skill or dialectical acuteness, as something else which no college can give him, and which books do not yield—a wide experience of life, and its trials and problems. Any one in our days who undertakes the task of religious exhortation must be able to say, in order to succeed, not simply that he has read or thought much, but also that he has suffered and seen much. Of purely official consolers or guides the world is well-nigh tired, and the number of honest men who are willing to appear in any such character every day declines. The successful preachers are therefore more and more those who not only have fluency of expression and vividness of imagination, but to whom years have brought the usual share of human burdens and anxieties. No art can make the talk of a man about sorrows he has not felt, perplexities in which he has never been plunged, and joys which he has never known, from seeming shallow and perfunctory; and it is with sorrows and perplexities and joys, rather than with opinions or propositions, that preachers have now to concern themselves. It must be added, too, that in so far as a minister has to be a casuist he is worse off now than he used to be, because casuistry is harder to teach, owing to the greater complexity of life, and the greater range of experience needed to enable a man to see clearly through what may be called the *mêlée* of conflicting rights and duties by which the simplest and humblest career is now surrounded.

The general result is that the regular clergy in England find their office perhaps more endangered by the labors of volunteers than it ever was before, far more than in the days of Wesley. When the Archbishop acknowledges the awakening power of the two American revivalists, he is not likely to secure much heed for his reservation of the subsequent work of counsel to the ordained ministers, and any admission from such a quarter that a really fruitful religious awakening can be carried on to the end without their aid has in England political as well as religious significance. It is most likely, too, that the enormous success of this movement, which seems to stir the highest as well as the lowest circles, will have its effect in convincing the rationalists both in church and state of the width of the interval which still separates the bulk of any community from anything like a real acceptance of the negative position with regard to the great problems of life and death. The philosophers may demolish the popular belief to their full satisfaction, and yet find again and again that the cares and sorrows of life have far more power in strengthening faith than logic in overthrowing it.

## JOSEPH WINLOCK.

DIED JUNE 11, 1875.

SHY soul and stalwart, man of patient will
Through years one hair's-breadth on our Dark to gain,
Who, from the stars he studied not in vain,
Had learned their secret to be strong and still,
Careless of fames that earth's tin trumpets fill;
Born under Leo, broad of build and brain,
He watched while others slept, in that hushed fane
Of Science, only witness of his skill:
Sudden as falls a shooting-star he fell,
But inextinguishable his luminous trace
In mind and heart of all that knew him well.
Happy man's doom! To him the fates were known
Of orbs dim-hovering on the skirts of space,
Unprescient, through God's mercy, of his own!

J. R. L.

## WHO ARE OUR ANCESTORS?

THE principles of heredity established by modern inductions in biology tell against the barbaric traditions of law and heraldry and for the rights of women, so far, at least, as the influences of strictly inherited qualities, both mental and physical, go towards determining our natures—namely, for the equal right of women to be counted among our ancestors. The likelihood in the average of a grandson's resembling his maternal grandfather in any quality is as great as that of resembling the paternal one; and a granddaughter is as likely to resemble in any quality her paternal grandmother as the maternal one. This law, which appears rather by the failure of the various fanciful hypotheses held on the subject of heredity than by positive

evidence sought for it, is on this very account the better founded in accordance with the canons of induction—namely, by the method of difference, or the absence of exceptions, taken together with the positive evidence for heredity generally. But this law does not imply that there is any tendency of one sex to transmit to the other any proper qualities of its own, except in that latent state which the law essentially implies, and which, as a mode of transmission, is one of the most important inductions in biological science, having various illustrations and applications.

Nearly all laws of heredity are properly laws of averages, against which, of course, evidences may be massed by a partial or one-sided induction. They can in general be held to be true only as governing averages ; or at best as being laws of such real tendencies as mask and modify and even countervail one another. Such real tendencies have been made out by the more philosophical observers, like Dr. Lucas, through the judicious choice of subjects for investigation least likely to be affected by chance or training—*e.g.*, rarely-occurring physiological peculiarities. Some special laws have thus been made out, such as the tendency of transmission to the same sex of individual characters or peculiarities first appearing in one, though otherwise they have no special relation to sex ; and on the other hand, the more general secular, slowly-acting, and weaker tendency of transmission to both sexes of qualities, or degrees of qualities. which originally belong to one. This tendency is shown only in connection with the tendency to inherit acquired qualities at earlier and earlier ages, or periods of life, and therefore in a manner independent of adult sex development. The causes which keep the sexes different are, however, much more powerful than this tendency, which is apparently operative only where qualities so transmitted have ceased to be of special sexual importance, or have lost, as they readily might in this case, their original association with sex.

Individual prepotency, again, or the preponderance of influence upon offspring of one parent over the other ; the absence of perfect equality of influence in all respects, or the accidental inequality of influence, which may be said to be the most invariable fact of heredity, masks and confuses all other laws, whether of averages or of real tendencies. But this prepotency does not appear to belong to one sex more than to the other ; so that the rule holds that in the long run the two sexes are of equal influence in transmitting individual or family characteristics, so far as these are independent of the influences of education and family traditions ; and it should be especially noted that characteristics associated with sex are transmitted *latently*, though none the less really, through the sex in which they do not appear. The very large part, however, which education has to play in human development—in the election and fostering of hereditary tendencies—is another masking and confusing cause, which may account in great measure for traditional and popular notions about descent, but does not really interfere with certain general conclusions in answer to the question, Who and how many are our real ancestors, or those who have determined our really inborn natures ? We are quite ready to agree with those who cry, "Great is education !" This power is, indeed, the scientific foundation of law and moral responsibility ; but heredity is also great, and even adds to, we believe, instead of diminishing, the true grounds of social institutions, the rights of law and punishment.

The importance of heredity leads to the rather startling consequence from the equality of the sexes in determining descent (exhibiting the rôle which sexual generation takes in the phenomena of organic life generally), that all living beings, both animals and plants, of races in which sexual generation is the prevailing mode of reproduction, derive their natures on the average from every productive individual of only a few generations back whose descendants have survived within their race or biological province. The true genealogical tree of science branches backwards—a cause of great difficulty and annoyance to the genealogist. When we take account of strictly inherited natures and variations of natures, setting aside the conventions of names and the traditions of external inheritance, we are led by the rule of the equal transmission of inborn qualities by both sexes to search for our origin through two parents and four grandparents, to eight great-grandparents (or six if one's parents are first-cousins), and sixteen potential great-great-grandparents. And our "gret-gran'thers multiplied by three" would, with their equal spouses, make thirty-two. We call these "potential" ancestors of the fifth degree, since, on account of the intermarriages of relatives within permitted grades of consanguinity, even the sixteen possible ancestors of the fourth degree may be condensed, so to speak, to the lesser number even of eight. Such reticulation or interlacing of branches in the back-reaching lines of ancestry through which one may arrive by several paths to the same individual ancestor (who, therefore, fills the place of several potential ancestors), becomes more and more frequent, and ultimately, or in the long run, a predominant feature of the natural genealogical tree ; for it takes but twenty generations or about five hundred years to reach a generation with more than a million potential ancestors in it, or one which can be reached through more than a million various lines of ancestry. We call two lines different, even though they may coincide in all but small portions of their courses.

It is in a high degree probable in the average case that a few thousand individuals have filled the larger number of these million places, since true races, even of men, are usually confined to narrow provinces. An insular position like that of Iceland is not the only kind of isolation in a race which would make any one of the present generation a descendant by so many thousands of lines (on the average) from every productive individual of twenty generations ago, as almost certainly to make every such individual, who has any living descendants at all, an ancestor of *all* now living in the province of his race. The agricultural peoples of the counties of England appear to be thus isolated in great measure, so that of a few thousands, five hundred years ago, each would be an ancestor of almost all living at the present time in his county. But neither such provincial limitations of a race, nor any but the most rigid caste interdictions of marriage, would prevent an English lord's being the descendant of a very large number of peasants of five hundred years ago, since the interdicted marriages are not between absolutely separated castes, and alliances descend by small grades in the social scale, without scandal, through collateral lines, in the course of a few generations, from the noble to the serf ; and ascend by the same grades.

The case of Iceland affords an instructive illustration of the remarkable effect of the biological principle of bi-sexual generation, namely, that in a comparatively short, almost insignificant, period in the duration of a race, even the most advanced has the solidarity of a zoöphyte. Iceland has been occupied for about thirty-eight generations by a nearly fixed population of fifty thousand—an isolated race of Scandinavians. The number of potential ancestors which any one has of the thirty-eighth degree is about two hundred and seventy-five thousand millions. All these were represented in the case of the present Icelanders by fifty thousand emigrants ; so that on the average each emigrant filled the places of five and a half millions potential ancestors, or could be reached on the average by this number of partially differing reticulate lines of descent. If we reckon the average duration of human life at a third of a century, the condensation on the whole has been from five hundred and fifty thousand million possible ancestors of all degrees, to the thirty-eighth inclusive, down to the one million four hundred thousand who have actually lived in the island, or to one in three hundred and ninety-three thousand of potential ancestors. It is thus made almost certain that every original emigrant to this island who has any present descendants at all is an ancestor of all now living. A doubt of this conclusion arises, however, from the circumstance that the inhabitants have been more or less divided into isolated provinces ; but if occasional intermarriages between members of different provinces have amounted to one in ten thousand marriages, a connection through these of every present inhabitant with all the original settlers would be in a very high degree probable.

Common qualities in the Icelander distinguishing him from others of the Scandinavian races, such as travellers have noticed, and especially physiological ones like that early noted by Sir Henry Holland (of a superior stature in the Icelandic men, due mainly to the greater lengths of their spinal column) would not necessarily require the supposition of a close intermixture of the race to account for it, unless it be an instance of that morphological variation to which limited races are more subject than extensive ones. But such a physiological character is more likely to be the direct common consequence of similar conditions, exercises, and modes of life, and of their inherited effects, than of the mere drifting of morphological variation on one hand, or the survival of characters from the advantages of them in the struggle for existence. The human struggle usually depends, or has come to depend, on other than merely bodily or athletic grounds of advantage. Intelligence and strength in union or brotherhood have long been the vantage-grounds of the human contest in the competition of race with race, or tribe with tribe, and in opposition to unfavorable external conditions. And biology affords a proof, in the natural genealogical tree, of the merely natural brotherhood of men quite as impressive as the theological derivation of the race from a single pair ; but does not make so complete and emphatic a reference back to one concentrated responsibility for human weaknesses and sins. How great this becomes on the theological theory can also be estimated by the above mathematical reasoning. Thus, if the degree of relationship of any ancestor to a descendant be represented by the number of places of potential ancestors of his degree occupied by him, compared to the whole number of that degree, then the relationship of each parent to their offspring would

be one-half ; that of each grandparent one-quarter ; of each great-grandparent one-eighth ; except from the marriage of first-cousins, which would make a pair of the eight fill two-eighths each, or one-quarter, or be of the same degree as grandparents ; and if in any remote generation a single pair could have filled all the places of the potential ancestors of that generation, their relationship to all their descendants would be of the same degree as that of immediate parents ; so that though the number of potential ancestors of the generation of the estimated time of Adam would be a number requiring more than seventy numeral figures to express it, yet with all these concentrated, as was possible, in a single pair, this pair comes to have the proximity of relationship to us of immediate parents. Such ancestors as Adam and Eve would therefore be nearer relatives to us than our grandparents.

A recent newspaper correspondence has discussed the statement that the Roman Princess Torlonia, though of a family which became prominent only eight centuries ago, was yet the descendant of a thousand Colonnas. The thirty-two generations which may be assumed for this period would give the princess about eighty-six hundred millions of potential ancestors in all. This number, which would of course in any case be greatly reduced by the intermarriage of remote relatives, might easily include among its representatives many thousands of persons bearing this family name, but would doubtless also be represented by many more thousands of persons as humble in name and origin as the Colonnas were eight centuries ago.

## PORT DARWIN.

MELBOURNE, March 24.

AUSTRALIA is just recovering from the horror of a shipwreck which would pass almost unnoticed in a larger community, but is a great event here, and affects many families in the colonies. On the 24th of last February, as the steamship *Gothenburg* was returning from the Northern Territory by the ordinary route round the east coast of the continent, her crew observed that the sea, which had been very rough, became suddenly smooth. The warning was disregarded, and in a few minutes the ship struck at full speed upon a coral reef, landing herself about three parts of her length. At first it was believed that she could be floated off, and no proper care was taken to launch the boats. But a storm came on, and the ship listed over and broke up so suddenly that only a few altogether escaped (22 out of 125), and most of them by righting a boat which had been upset. But for the accident that one party fell in with a steamer in waters where ships of any kind are very scarce, it is probable that no one would have been saved. A South Australian judge, Mr. Wearing, was among the drowned, and is universally regretted as a man of high social qualities and great professional ability. Two other lawyers perished with him, and two or three other professional men. Most of the passengers, however, were lucky gold-diggers.

The disaster calls attention to the new settlement on the northern coast, which is rapidly rising into importance. Some dozen years ago, the British Government handed over all that part of Australia which lies north of the 26th degree of latitude and between the 129th and 141st parallels of longitude to the colony of South Australia. There was some reason for the gift. South Australian energy had explored the whole distance up to the Indian Sea, and the South Australian boundary presented the nearest approach to settlement. Still, there are grave reasons for questioning how far it was wise in the Home Government to offer the grant or in the Colonial to accept it. The Northern Territory has to be settled from the coast. It is true that a colonial enterprise has lately connected it with a telegraph from Adelaide; that the Adelaide postmaster drove across the continent in a buggy, traversing what our maps used to call the great Australian desert ; and that a few stock-owners have since taken sheep and cattle across by the line of telegraph. Still, when I tell you that only 100 miles of road have been made between Adelaide and Port Darwin, a distance of 1,600 miles, you will understand that the journey by land is not often attempted. Nor is a road across likely to be soon made. A company of a highly speculative kind was indeed started two years ago, which proposed to construct an elevated railway, and demanded in return a grant of forty million acres ! But no amount of log-rolling would carry such a scheme through the Legislative Assembly. At present, the more we know of the interior, the more certain does it seem to be that it consists entirely of patches of desert and patches of pastoral country, without corn-land, forests, rivers, or mines ; in fact, with none of the features that invite settlement. Still, South Australia cannot neglect its costly dependency, and is rather in the position of a child having to carry about a baby half as big as itself ; for it is but a small colony of some 200,000 people, mostly interested in corn, wool, copper, or wine, and with but the faintest sprinkling of a mercantile community. It has made many blunders, but has done much good work ; and, after one very costly failure to occupy and survey the territory, has at last established a government and order of a kind. Its success has been mainly due to exaggerated reports of the mineral wealth of the territory. It is over three years since South Australia was filled with rumors that gold was so plentiful in the North that the men pitching the telegraph poles were forbidden to carry away any of the earth they disturbed. So prevalent was this report that employers began to apprehend a general stampede of workingmen, and I believe we were only saved from a very large emigration by the impossibility of procuring transport. But two or three thousand men, chiefly miners, did actually go North to explore. A period of bubble companies and stock-jobbing succeeded in due course, and this was followed by the inevitable collapse. The truth is now known to be that the country is auriferous, but that there is no alluvial gold, and that large capital will be required to work the quartz reefs. Still, a gold-bearing country, with large rivers and easy communication with India and Batavia, is not likely to remain long without a population.

The question now comes whether a rich strip of territory on the Northern coast of our continent ought to be governed by the legislature of a small colony whose nearest town of 5,000 inhabitants is 1,500 miles distant. And the wreck of the *Gothenburg* has brought up this question again, for three of the lives lost in that shipwreck were sacrificed to the supposed necessity of sending up a Judge of the Supreme Court, with an associate and a Crown prosecutor, to try a Chinaman guilty of burglary, who, as it turned out, had escaped before the Judge arrived. Of course, this particular difficulty might be, and soon will be, partially met by the appointment of a resident Judge ; but even then there will be constant appeals to the court in Adelaide. Nor are matters of law the only ones that demand prompt settlement. It is a question whether Port Darwin is the best site for a capital ; it is a question how the gold reefs ought to be leased ; and here, as in every part of Australia, our waste lands are a political trouble, and are contended for by two classes—the sheep-farmer who rents, and the corn-farmer who buys. It might be an extreme measure to equip a population of two or three thousand with all the paraphernalia of a constitution, especially as the Home Government would undoubtedly insist on the two Houses of Parliament. But it is a question, I think, whether the territory would not be better administered as a Crown colony by a Governor and a small council. The present arrangement is evidence of that curious sense of incapacity to govern which has succeeded to the old arrogant, doctrinaire tone of Downing Street. But Adelaide is not more enlightened or more disinterested than London, and practically is very little nearer to the governed territory ; and the present arrangement only serves to retard settlement and produce political complications.

I regard this question of the Northern Territory as one of the highest importance for all Australia, for a reason which Americans will understand. The climate of the Northern Territory is sub-tropical, and it is a question how far men of British extraction can labor in it. I have questioned several who have been there, and can get no conclusive answer, but am inclined to believe that it is a trying climate, bearable by young men, but not by those who have passed middle age. Partly for this reason, and partly to escape the high wages demanded by Europeans, the capitalists interested in opening up the territory are trying to import Coolies and Lascars in such numbers as to swamp the whites. I have little doubt they will succeed. The Governor of South Australia, Mr. Musgrave, is a man of sense and good feeling, thoroughly opposed to slavery under any name or in any form. But he has little power to interfere, and perhaps does not sufficiently exert what power he has. The employers will carry the day against him, if, indeed, they may not be said to have done so, for several ship-loads of Coolies have arrived. It is possible that the white men, who are not very numerous in the North, will quickly recede before their colored rivals. In that case, Australia will have nothing worse to complain of than an Asiatic colony in one part of the continent. But it is possible, also, that the whites will live on side by side with the colored men, taking the lighter employments for themselves, leaving the Asiatics to hew wood and draw water, and contracting a patrician scorn for manual labor as fit only for "niggers." In that case, the prospect is not a reassuring one, for an arrangement found to work profitably and pleasantly at Port Darwin, and which has partially invaded Queensland, may easily overspread a large part of a continent in which the coldest climate is as genial as the south of France. I do not suppose I shall live to see slavery or a war of races myself, but I fear there is some danger for the next generation if the Northern Territory continues to be administered by a distant government, with no check of public opinion, and with no object except to achieve good financial results.

# Correspondence.

## THE ORIGINALITY OF PROFESSOR ADAMS'S WORKS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: To the communication of "M. G." respecting "certain coincidences" in my recent work on 'Democracy and Monarchy in France' "which need explanation" I reply as follows:

1. The coincident passages from Buckle and from myself relating to Helvetius are an account of the argument of the philosopher, given, as far as possible, in the language of the philosopher himself. The first chapter of 'De l'Esprit' is entitled "Exposition des Principes," and is a kind of abridgment of the whole work. This was used by both Buckle and myself (as our references show); and that our language should correspond is no more strange than that two reporters should use the same expressions in reporting or abstracting the same speech. In very many instances, and in all the passages that are strikingly alike, we have simply translated the original. A single example will be enough to show that neither Buckle nor myself wandered very far from the author we were giving an account of. Helvetius, after stating that we have but two faculties, that we have these in common with animals, and that we are superior to animals solely by reason of "*une certaine organisation extérieure*," uses these words:

"Si la nature, au lieu de mains et de doigts flexibles, eût terminé nos poignets par un pied de cheval, qui doute que les hommes sans arts, sans habitations, sans défense contre les animaux, tout occupés du soin de pourvoir à leur nourriture et d'éviter les bêtes féroces, ne fussent encore errants dans les forêts comme des troupeaux fugitifs?" (p. 2).

This is the basis of my sentence:

"That if Nature, instead of giving us hands and flexible joints, had terminated our limbs with hoofs like those of a horse, we should have remained wanderers on the earth, chiefly anxious to find our needful supply of food and to protect ourselves against the attacks of wild beasts" (p. 41).

And of Buckle's:

"That if, for example, our wrists, instead of ending with hands, and flexible fingers, had merely ended like a horse's foot, we should have always remained as wanderers on the face of the earth, ignorant of every art, entirely defenceless, and having no other concern but to avoid the attacks of wild beasts, and find the needful supply of our daily food" (p. 621).

The other coincident passages cited by "M. G." might be shown to have had a similar origin, but space will not allow it; and therefore I can only refer, for proof of the statement, to the volume itself and its foot-notes.

It is evident that my assailant desires to convey the impression that I have used Buckle and the quotations given by him as my authority. To this the answer is that an inspection of our works will show that we used different editions of Helvetius, Buckle using 'De l'Esprit' (Amsterdam, 1759, 2 vols.), I using 'Œuvres Complètes de Helvetius' (London, 1781, 2 vols.) By comparison I find that Buckle, in his notes, has made nine quotations from his author, and that I have made eight; also that of the eight passages quoted by myself, three only are quoted by Buckle. In other words, in giving an account of a philosophical theory as chiefly embodied in a single chapter of eight pages, both of us together have given fourteen different quotations, six of which are given by Buckle alone, five of which are given by myself alone, and three of which are given by us both in common.

2. As to the correspondence of quotations from other authors, this is to be said. In preparing the chapter on the "Philosophers of the Revolution" I not only examined the works of the four philosophers reviewed, but I also examined (importing a large number of volumes for that especial purpose) the works of all such contemporary and subsequent authors as I thought would throw light on their influence. When Buckle was first published in America I read him with care, taking copious notes on the authorities to which he refers. These citations with others I have freely used in collecting my library and in my subsequent researches. From the great mass of notes thus accumulated, I used in the composition of the chapter referred to such sayings and anecdotes as in my opinion would best illustrate the influence I was trying to show. That the same and a host of others are to be found in Buckle is doubtless owing to the fact that he was trying to show the influence of the same writers, though for quite another purpose. Whether these facts show any improper indebtedness to Buckle, I leave to others to judge.

3. The next article in the indictment is that, "after disposing of Helvetius, Mr. Adams makes up his notice of Condorcet in precisely the same manner." Presuming that this is a typographical error for Condillac (as Condorcet is not mentioned in the volume), I reply that I have made just four quotations from Condillac, and that not a single one of them is to be found in Buckle. Moreover, my references are all to the ten-volume edition of Condillac's complete works, while Buckle's are all to a two-volume edition.

4. "From his examination of philosophical theories," says "M. G.," "Buckle proceeds to consider the influence these exercised on the spread of physical science. Mr. Adams does the same, but he mentions not a name nor a fact that is not contained in Buckle."

This statement shows either great carelessness or great disingenuousness. Buckle devotes thirty solid pages (627-657) to his exposition; I, a single paragraph (p. 49) to mine. Buckle's was intended as a most exhaustive summary of all that was done for science by the writers referred to; mine was merely a qualifying paragraph thrown in to prepare the way for the political discussion that follows. That every "fact and name," therefore, contained in mine should be found in Buckle is certainly no marvel. They are also all found in Whewell, and I doubt not in every writer on the history of science.

5. "Remarks about him [Rousseau] by Bonaparte, Hume, Lord Holland, Pathay, etc., are quoted. They are all given in Buckle, p. 767."

This statement will appear in its true light when the following facts are considered. On turning to Buckle, I see that he has referred to nineteen different authors; on referring to 'Democracy and Monarchy' (pp. 76–79), I find that I have referred to thirteen. Now, of these thirteen five only are quoted by Buckle. I have given "remarks about him" (*i.e.*, Rousseau) by Lessing, Herder, Kant, Schiller, Goethe, Carlyle, and Maine, to none of whom (save to Goethe, and that for a remark different from mine) does Buckle refer. Yet "M. G." declares "they are all given in Buckle"!!

6. In respect to the passage cited from De Tocqueville, I have only a word to say. That I used the book very freely is shown by my numerous quotations and references. Concerning the intellectual genesis of the figure and the comparison contained in the two quotations I have no recollection. My presumption is, that having read the passage in De Tocqueville, I afterwards reproduced the comparison and the figure without thinking of the source from which they had come into my mind. I believe it is admitted that there is such a thing as "unconscious memory"; at any rate, this explanation must go for what it is worth.

7. In speaking of the chapter on "The Rise of Napoleonism," and its original appearance in the *North American Review*, my assailant remarks: "There are various kinds of reviews, all equally legitimate, providing only that in writing one kind the reviewer does not pretend to give another"—which is to say, the article professed to be what it was not. This conclusion was reached after the declaration that it "was first printed as a review of Lanfrey and other works." To which I respond as follows: The article was *not* printed as "a review of Lanfrey and other works," but simply as an essay on the subject embodied in its title. If it could be said to "pretend" to be anything, it was an account of "The Rise of Napoleonism," as revealed by the most recent and most trustworthy authorities; certainly, it never pretended to be anything else. At the head of the article stood, in accordance with a well-known habit of the quarterlies, what I believed to be the most important of such authorities. Of these, Lanfrey was placed first, simply because his is the great—indeed, the *only*—history of the period written since the publication of the 'Letters and Despatches of the First Napoleon.' The book was used, therefore, not to be reviewed, but as a great source of information—indeed, just as Macaulay used Nugent's 'Memorials' and Thackeray's 'Life of Pitt' in preparing his famous essays on Hampden and Chatham. As the essay was largely narrative, not to have made free use of Lanfrey would have been utterly inexcusable; to have made dishonest use of him, and then to have invited attention to my dishonesty by constantly quoting and referring to him as I do, would have been simply to advertise myself gratuitously not only as a literary trickster, but as a literary fool. The book was constantly followed, but original authorities were just as constantly consulted.

8. "Not even Mr. Adams's title is original, for about three years ago Mr. H. Reeve published 'Royal and Republican France,' a work of precisely the same character."

To the momentous charge embodied in this paragraph I plead not guilty, though unfortunately I have only my word to place in opposition to that of my assailant. I cannot, however, allow the distinguished friend and translator of De Tocqueville, "Mr. H. Reeve," to lie under the imputation of having produced a work of "precisely the same character" as the one to which "M. G." has given his attention. I have not had the pleasure of reading the handsome volumes of Mr. Reeve, but on turning them over in a book-store I see that they are made up of the essays on French subjects with which for the last thirty years he has enriched the English quarterlies. I seriously fear, therefore, that the only similarity between my book and his is in their titles—and in the imagination of "M. G."—Very truly yours,

C. K. Adams.

Ann Arbor, June 12, 1875.

# Notes.

THE twenty-fourth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Detroit on Wednesday, Aug. 11. Within the past fortnight has appeared the volume of Proceedings at the meeting held last year at Hartford. It contains the address of the President, Professor Lovering, the reports of committees, and a large number of interesting and valuable papers (Salem, Mass., published by the permanent secretary, F. W. Putnam).——An exhibition of Revolutionary relics has been opened in Boston for this week under the best auspices. It takes advantage of the attraction of the Bunker Hill celebration, and the net proceeds will be placed at the disposal of the Ladies' Centennial Commission of Boston.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have printed very tastefully in clear type the Rev. Dr. Storrs's address, delivered before the N. Y. Historical Society on April 15, on 'The Early American Spirit and the Genesis of it.' Though commemorating the seventieth anniversary of the Society, it is really one, and one of the best, of the Centennial orations of the day. The Centennial, by the way, comes opportunely to redeem our "eloquence" from the disrepute into which politics had plunged it.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin send us the first four parts of a new 'History of the United States,' written anonymously from an English standpoint and for English readers primarily, but in a fair and sympathetic spirit. We can better speak of its merits as the work progresses. The mechanical execution is noticeably good, and the illustrations fresh and helpful, always excepting the unprofitable kind for which the imagination alone is responsible, such as (p. 60) the massacre of the settlers by the Indians, the subsequent flight of the latter (p. 72), the last moments of Sir Humphrey Gilbert (p. 12), Pocahontas saving Capt. Smith's life (p. 31, a double exercise of the fancy), etc. etc.—all full-page wood-cuts.——The United States Naval Institute was founded at Annapolis in 1873, and the papers read at the monthly meetings during that and the following year have now been collected in one volume of 'Papers and Proceedings.' The contents are in every way creditable to the members of the Institute and to our navy. The voyage of the *Tigress* in search of the *Polaris;* the interoceanic canal *via* the Isthmus of Darien and the Atrato River; the manning of our navy and mercantile marine; the fight of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*; our fleet manœuvres in the Bay of Florida, are papers which will interest the general reader. Among the more technical topics are compound engines; the requirements of the marine compass; the armament of our ships-of-war; and experimental determination of the centre of gravity of the U. S. steamer *Shawmut.*——The third annual report of the Managers of the Zoölogical Society of Philadelphia shows a large accession of members, very considerable additions to its collection of animals, and a flourishing condition generally. The financial scheme of this Society deserves the attention of any city desirous of mantaining a zoölogical garden. "Those who are seeking a good return for their capital will find," says the report, "in the certificates of the loan of this Society a sure and profitable investment." These certificates (for $100 and upwards) bear interest at six per cent. in money and two and a half per cent. in tickets of admission to the garden.——We learn that Professor C. F. Hartt of Cornell has been appointed, with Major Continho, a Brazilian, to take charge of the Geological Survey of Brazil.

—Evidently, American literature for the next few years is to be markedly retrospective in character. The physical and the moral landmarks of pre-Revolutionary times are finding their host of commentators, illustrators, and preservers. New York has had rather less than its share of these, certainly as compared with a city like Boston, and we are glad of any symptoms of an active antiquarian interest in the past which is entirely gone, as well as in that which is rapidly passing away on this island. Both these links in the continuity of the history of New York are caught up in a work of which the first number lies before us: 'Old New York, from the Battery to Bloomingdale' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The projector of it is Mrs. Eliza Greatorex, with whose etchings of scenery in Colorado and of the home of Albert Dürer many of our readers are doubtless familiar. She is an artist not in the front rank of etchers, certainly, but her work always commands respect, and this her latest seems to us equal to her best. She looks at the few historic buildings left us through a veil which softens out of sight their present incongruous surroundings, and creates as far as is possible an illusion of the century whose true physiognomy we strive to recall. Most successful from a picturesque point of view is the old Jersey Ferry House, but there is little to choose between the remainder—St. Paul's Church, the Battery, the Carey-Ludlow House, and Sir Henry Clinton's headquarters. A view of New York from Hobuck (Hoboken) in 1796 is copied from an original sketch by Archibald Robertson, and is a curious memento of both the Jersey and the New York shores of the Hudson. More sketches by the same and perhaps other artists, which have never yet seen the light, will be inserted in 'Old New York.' Mrs. Greatorex's etchings are in pen-and-ink, reproduced here with unusual sharpness by some of the photographic printing processes; the text, by M. Despard, is gossipy rather than learned. A history of New York, by another lady, Mrs. Lamb, is, we believe, in press, and will be liberally illustrated from manuscript and other sources in respect to the antiquities of the metropolis.

—Professor Joseph Winlock, Director of the Observatory of Harvard College, died suddenly after a brief illness last Friday morning, June 11, at the age of forty-nine. One of the foremost of American astronomers, whose honorable career in science began thirty years ago, who has filled with great credit several important positions of scientific labor and trust, is thus cut off in the midst of a life whose usefulness cannot be estimated by ordinary standards. Well-known and highly estimated by all active collaborators in astronomy, both at home and abroad, he was never so well-known to others or to the public as his important services deserved. This was chiefly on account of a modest shrinking from any candidacy for honors, amounting almost to an aversion from them, and an indifference to an uncritical or merely popular reputation. Immediately upon graduating from Shelby College, Kentucky, in 1845, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in that College, where he remained until 1852, when he removed to Cambridge, Mass., and took part in the computations of the 'American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac,' then under the superintendence of Admiral C. H. Davis. In 1857, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics of the United States Navy; and in that capacity served in succession as Assistant at the Naval Observatory at Washington, as Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac and as Director of the Mathematical Department of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. On the breaking out of the war, in 1861, he was a second time made Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac. His next service to astronomy was in the position of Director of the Observatory of Harvard College, and Phillips Professor of Astronomy, to which he was appointed in 1865—a position already made highly honorable by the labors of his predecessors, the distinguished astronomers, Professors W. C. Bond and G. P. Bond. He has also served at the same time as Professor of Geodesy in the Mining School of Harvard College. Only a few months ago, Mr. Bristow appointed him the Chairman of the Congressional Commission for Investigating the Causes of Steam-Boiler Explosions. These many appointments to places of responsibility are evidences of the rare sagacity, skill, sound judgment, and integrity of character which were qualities conspicuous to all who knew him well or dealt with him in his various duties. Upon taking charge of the Cambridge Observatory, he proceeded with energy to complete its equipment, adding to its already famous resources a meridian circle, constructed in accordance with his designs by Throughton & Simms of London—an instrument whose performance has been pronounced by competent judges the best of its kind in the world. The distinguished astronomer, Adams, of Cambridge, England, subsequently ordered an instrument from the same makers to be constructed on the same model. Professor Winlock also secured for this Observatory a very perfect astronomical clock, made by Frodsham of London, from which, through contrivances of his own, true time is telegraphed to neighboring cities. He also set the famous equatorial instrument of the Observatory upon a new career of usefulness and glory in astronomical spectroscopy. In 1870, he put into regular working efficiency a mode of observing the sun—namely, by a single lens, a heliostat, and photograph—which he independently conceived, and was the first to utilize as a form of systematic observatory work. French astronomers have lately been contending with one another about priority in the conception of this method of observation, which was so important a part of the equipment for observing the transit of Venus last December furnished to American expeditions; but in all that really constitutes effective originality the honor of this invention undoubtedly belongs to Professor Winlock. He was, however, almost entirely indifferent, in the singleness of his devotion to his favorite science, to popular fame, or even to contemporary recognition. Besides his observatory work, he was engaged on two occasions in the direction of expeditions to observe solar eclipses—namely, that to Kentucky in August, 1869, and that to Spain in December, 1870. Though ingenious as an inventor, his judiciousness was so much more prominent a quality that his originality is shown rather in a thoroughness and detailed efficiency of contrivance than in the more brilliant qualities that distinguish the more famous inventors. Very numerous little but very effective improvements in astronomical methods distinguish the astronomical art of the present day; and in these Professor Winlock's originality was very consider-

able. Among his published works, besides the 'Annals of the Observatory' under his directorship, are a set of tables of the planet Mercury (arranged with characteristic neatness and ingenuity); brief papers in astronomical journals and in the 'Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.' He was a native of Kentucky, and the grandson of General Joseph Winlock, who entered the American army at the beginning of the Revolutionary War and also served in the war of 1812, and was a member of the convention which drew up the constitution of the State of Kentucky.

—Every six months the Boston *Daily Advertiser* is made the medium of an æsthetic discussion more or less characteristic of the New England capital. The last time it was a musical question, and there was some heavy firing exchanged by the Teutonic purists and the Italian eclectics. To-day, Mr. Charles H. Moore writes in praise of the beautiful Paul Veronese lately committed to the care of the Athenæum (together with several French pictures of great value) by Mr. Quincy Shaw, and by way of pointing his moral gives a side-thrust at the fine examples of Millet in the same collection. Without delay, several anonymous writers spring to the rescue of Millet. Mr. Moore, at the time of our last information, had not rejoined, and perhaps will not feel himself obliged to do so, for the letters of his antagonists have the drawback of being rather vague and wandering, while his own communication was extremely definite and to the point. A short but intemperate note by Mr. W. M. Hunt (the only one signed) does not strike us as contributing a valuable element to the discussion. Mr. Moore, we say, is definite; he gives us an exact mechanical recipe for enjoying Paul Veronese. He recommends the student to make a parallelogram and fill it with a series of shades proceeding from black to white, and then mark on it certain points corresponding with the gradations of tone in the painter's flesh-surfaces. One should also (and this advice is not explicitly addressed to the "student") make a point of comparing a certain jewel on the breast of Saint Catherine with any detail—"if any can be found"—in the adjacent Millets and Troyons. The value of this advice seems to us to depend altogether upon what Mr. Moore means by the "student." If he means one thing, the performance with the parallelogram is quite too little trouble; if he means another, it is quite too much. If he means a youthful, unperceptive, undeveloped person who has been put upon a bench with a primer to get a lesson in "art" by rote, this after all rather simple contrivance will prove insufficient for making him apprehend the generous beauty of a fine Veronese. If, on the other hand, he means the usual intelligent amateur, the admirer, the observer, the enjoyer, the demands of the parallelogram will seem a very unmannerly intrusion. This latter student has a more effective process of his own.

—The operation of the jewel on Saint Catherine's breast seems superficially a simpler one, but we think this appearance is deceptive. (We assume, of course, that any other jewel on a breast in a picture of equal value by the same author, might be used in a similar way.) It involves, in the first place, your always having a Millet or a Troyon, or another French picture of equal value, in the immediate neighborhood, and it leaves you in uncertainty whether the "detail" which you have carefully selected in it for your experiment is really a detail at all, and whether therefore the experiment is not in the nature of things invalid. Paul Veronese is a magnificent painter, but the number of persons disposed to risk this amount of possibly unremunerated exertion for the sake of appreciating him is after all inconsiderable. There is only one rule of general application, we fear, for appreciating a picture—namely, to enjoy it. The greatest painter cannot ask more than that. Mr. Moore says excellently that "the men of deep and comprehensive insight perceive the necessity of complete characterization of every visible form." It is almost impossible, it seems to us, to state too strongly the rights of complete characterization. That is essentially what intelligent painting always proposes to itself. Some painters, of course, find it in one mode of representation, some in another, but it is what each in his own way undertakes to give us. Mr. Moore indeed affirms that Millet (of whom he thinks very ill) quite fails to give it to us—that the most he does is to "convey more or less of true and pleasant sentiment." But here again, surely, the critic is infelicitous. If we were obliged to define Millet's power in a single word, we would say it was the power of characterizing. Mr. Moore perhaps uses the word in some peculiar sense; we use it in that of representing objects so that the vision immediately recognizes their nature and use, and goes to meet them sympathetically, imaginatively, with relish and friendliness. Millet represents toil-worn peasants—their attitudes, their gestures, their clothes, their furniture, their implements, the soil in which they work, and (so far as he can as a painter) their temperament, their feelings. It is a perfectly definite class of objects, and we have always regarded the painter's representation of it as quite a triumph of solid, complete, persuasive characterization. We should even go so far as to say that there are sections of characterization in Millet's pictures, of corresponding dimensions, which have given us as much pleasure as that jewel on Saint Catherine's breast. We are afraid Mr. Moore's extreme enjoyment of Paul Veronese has made him unjust to the remarkable Frenchman—which is an unfortunate result for so elevated an emotion. We would strongly urge other students to guard against a similar accident; for surely the great Venetian himself, if he were to revisit the earth, would, with his superbly liberal sense of the pictorial, find an ample measure of the same gift in Jean-François Millet, and reflect sagaciously that the world is wide—since a brother artist can be so little of a Venetian and yet so much of a painter.

—The poetry of the *Atlantic Monthly* for July includes a rather large number of noticeable poems. One or two of these we should be inclined to quote at length were it not for the pathetic appeal made by the publishers, who inform the editors of the country at large that great injustice is frequently done by the reproduction of entire contributions from magazines, the sale of the original being often in this way interfered with, and the copyright (which the publishers of the magazine are very likely to own) also impaired in value. To some people it may seem strange that for such injuries as these the publishers or owners of the magazine should not bring an action at law, since there can be no doubt that the reproduction of a copyrighted article or poem is an actionable offence. But the explanation of their somewhat suppliant attitude on the subject is, we suppose, that an action for what seems on its face to be a compliment would have rather an odious appearance, and would be likely to open the flood-gates of editorial calumny upon the heads of the offending publishers. It would also be unquestionably difficult to prove what amount of damages were due the publishers. However, the publishers certainly have a right to what they ask, and we are therefore prevented from quoting entire one or two of the shorter poems in this number, particularly Mr. Lowell's sonnets, and a poem by Mrs. Kemble called "Waking." The latter undertakes to express a kind of pain which we should say, speaking from general recollection, had not often been attempted in verse, and to our mind the verses are very powerfully impressive, almost throughout. The last lines, we confess, appear to be dragged in to complete the extremely difficult measure, but to all those who have known the dull leaden weight of a grief which sleep only seems to numb for the time, we think these lines must prove more than interesting. Mr. Edgar Fawcett has some pretty verses on "Moss," in which he achieves a simplicity rather unusual with him, and Mr. T. B. Aldrich contributes a poem on "Identity," which describes an incident in "Twilight Land" and in "No Man's Land" the exact nature of which we do not make out. In this land, which at the first blush we should suppose to be the next world, two "hurrying shapes" meet and bid each other stand. One cries out agape, "And who are you?" to which the other replies, "I do not know, I only died last night." This reply, taken in connection with the title, seems to imply that Mr. Aldrich wishes to suggest an heretical doubt as to the identity of souls before and after death, but as this fancy is hardly in Mr. Aldrich's vein, we suppose we may be mistaken, and can only regret that no solution of the puzzle (which as a puzzle is pretty enough) is promised in the August number.

—The prose in this number of the magazine comprises among other contributions an article on "Passing the Cataract of the Nile," by Charles Dudley Warner; an account of the battle of Bunker Hill, by Mr. Horace E. Scudder; a scientific study of lightning and lightning-rods, by Mr John Trowbridge; an account of the progress of Russia in the East; an article on "Washington in Cambridge," by Alexander McKenzie; and an essay descriptive of an "obsolete fine gentleman," who is no other than the Italian fine gentleman of the latter part of the eighteenth century, as he appeared to the eyes of the satirist and poet Parini; as well as another instalment of "Roderick Hudson," by Mr. James; an essay on the "Social Aspects of the German Romantic School," by Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen; and a story called "Broke Jail," by D. H. Johnson. The names of most of these authors are so well-known that the reader has a pretty clear idea beforehand what to expect from each of them. This, however, cannot be said of Mr. Trowbridge. His article ought to be read by all householders who have been of late years deluding themselves with the belief that the lightning-rod was an obsolete invention, which instead of directing lightning from a house attracted it. The fact seems to be that Franklin's name is deservedly honored, and the reason why lightning-rods have here and there earned a bad reputation is because they have been badly erected or badly connected with the ground. Mr. Howells's article will be found ex-

tremely pleasant reading, and we should recommend Mr. Warner, before writing anything more of foreign travel, to study his style a little. Mr Warner does not seem to have made up his mind in writing about the Nile whether to describe his adventures naturally, or in the manner of Mark Twain, and shows an inclination to "drop into" humor of a sort that is beyond all endurance.

—The London *Times* of May 25 contains a full report of the Rede Lecture delivered in the Senate House, Cambridge, on the preceding Saturday, by Sir H. S. Maine. His subject was: "The effects of observation of India upon modern European thought." The lecture is one of the ablest of Sir Henry Maine's productions. It exhibits in a condensed form his remarkable and, in our generation, unequalled power of philosophical analysis of the elements of early civilization, and his equally remarkable power of exhibiting the relations of modern institutions to the early, if not primitive, forms from which they take their origin. The lecture is written, as becomes a spoken discourse, in a style of great vigor and animation. It contains little that is absolutely novel to the careful student of its author's earlier treatises, but it presents certain important topics in a new light, and opens the way to fruitful fields of enquiry. The lecture is so rich in thought and abundant in suggestion that we cannot attempt a full analysis of it, but must be content to note only some of its most striking passages. After speaking of the circumstance that knowledge of India has deeply affected European thought in many ways, Sir Henry Maine points out the fact that Sanskritic study has been the source of certain indirect effects of prodigious practical importance. "There is no question of its having produced very serious political consequences . . . . for the new theory of language has unquestionably produced a new theory of race." But perhaps the most important of the numerous suggestions contained in the lecture is the following: "India has given to the world comparative philology and comparative mythology, it may yet give us a new science not less valuable than the sciences of language and of folk-lore. I hesitate to call it comparative jurisprudence, because if it ever exists its area will be so much wider than the field of law." And the lecture is mainly devoted to showing that the undertaking to found such a science is conceivable and practicable. Incidentally, Sir Henry Maine touches on a great number of interesting matters, such as the contrast between popular and correct views of Indian civilization, the character of the Brahminical religion, the nature and operation of caste, and, most important of all, the Eastern forms of ownership and their relation to those of the West. This contribution to the history of property would alone suffice to give great value to the lecture. The lecture ought to be reprinted in this country. It is a contribution of no slight worth to the general stock of thought.

—Sir Henry Maine has the courage of his opinions. Here is one of his *obiter dicta:* "Competition is the regulated private war of ancient society gradually broken up into indistinguishable atoms." And here is a striking sentence: "Whenever a corner of the veil which hides from us the primitive condition of mankind is lifted, there are two positions, now very familiar to us, which seem to be falsified by all that we are permitted to see—all men are brothers; all men are equal." "I conceive," says Sir Henry Maine, "that the investigation [into the origin and growth of the social and juridical institutions and conceptions of men] might throw quite a new light on this part of the social mechanism. As one consequence of a new method of enquiry, I believe that some celebrated maxims of public policy and private conduct, which contain at most a portion of truth, might be revised and corrected. Among those I do not hesitate to place the famous 'greatest happiness' principle of Bentham. Great as is the reluctance to accept 'the greatest happiness for the greatest number' as the standard of morality, no observant man can doubt that it is fast taking its place in the modern world as the regulative principle of all legislation. The theory has great imperfections unless some supplementary qualifying principles be discovered, and for these qualifications I look to some new application of comparative methods to customs, ideas, and motives." A stronger plea for the value of abstract studies in a practical community like our own, trying to work out salvation by democracy and equality, could hardly be made.

—One of the latest of Mr. Ruskin's pamphlets is 'Proserpina: Studies of Wayside Fowers, while the air was yet pure among the Alps, and in the Scotland and England which my Father knew. Part I.' Discursive as all Mr. Ruskin's late writing is apt to be, and with indications of weariness and restlessness that give pain to readers conscious of their obligation to the writer, this little book exhibits in a delightful way Mr. Ruskin's unrivalled fineness of perception and truth of immediate vision. It is not a methodical botanical treatise, but it contains much exact information and poetic suggestion concerning plants which every lover of flowers is glad to get and would not easily find elsewhere. The frontispiece is worth study; it represents the common heath blossoming and stricken in days. It is a beautiful piece of draughtmanship, beautifully engraved, and might serve as a lesson to those students of drawing who are beginning to be discontented with the lifeless and ill-drawn patterns of Mr. Walter Smith and the infidelities to nature of Mr. Prang's admired chromolithographs.

—A remarkable etching by Rajon from Watts's portrait of Mill has just been published. It is not only a likeness in which the characteristics of Mill's face are rendered with striking correctness and simplicity, but is also a print of rare merit in technical execution. It may stand comparison with the best engraved portraits. While rendering the fine intellectual forms of Mill's head and the rigid lines of self-discipline which show the force of his moral nature, Mr. Watts has succeeded at the same time in indicating those subtile refinements of sentimental expression, and that peculiar mobility of countenance by which the emotional sensitiveness of his nature was exhibited. Such a portrait is the best possible illustration of the autobiography, outer and inner man being surprisingly illuminative of each other. The background and body of the portrait are too heavily etched for best effect—partly in compliance with a bad passing fashion; partly, no doubt, to reproduce as nearly as may be the deep tone of the picture. But the etching of the head is masterly. There is no waste or random work. It is the work of a man who knows the value of line not less than of tone—a praise that can be given to very few of the modern and popular etchers.

## GENERAL SHERMAN'S MEMOIRS.*

II.

THE story of the campaign of Atlanta is not given with a fulness proportionate to its importance, or quite in keeping with the amount of detailed description devoted to other campaigns. This is, no doubt, in the main an unavoidable thing, growing out of the nature of personal recollections. In narrating his own experience, the writer grows more general as his career widens. As a captain, he speaks of his regimental mess and his company officers. As a brigadier, he tells us of his colonels and their regiments; but when he becomes the commander of a great army, he rarely has occasion to extend his notice beyond the commandants of the wings of his army. There are some points, however, in which we think the book shows haste, and in which it is not yet too late to add profitably to the information given. One of the most essential things to enable a critical reader to understand the movements of a campaign, and one of the most satisfactory, is an analytical table showing the full organization of the command. This General Sherman usually gives, but not always on the same system. The table showing the organization of the army under his command at the time of Johnston's surrender, gives the name of the State and number of every regiment, with names of brigade, division, corps, and army commanders. That which shows the strength of the army with which the campaign of Atlanta was begun is full in numerical parts, but very deficient in description of the subordinate organizations, giving neither regiments, brigades, nor divisions, and names no officers below the grade of corps commanders or commandants of special detachments. It is often cumbersome to embody such tables in the text of a historical book, but either in the foot-notes or in the appendix they should be given with the utmost fulness and on a consistent and definite plan.

The "March to the Sea" will always have a romantic interest to the readers of American history, and Sherman's narrative of it is perhaps the most attractive part of his book. With his quick eye for the humorous, he seized upon many amusing facts, and they are generally so illustrative of events and of the character of the people, both white and black, that they are free from any well-founded objection. This is also true, in the main, of the description of the march from Savannah northward, though in giving his version of the burning of Columbia it would have been in better taste to have avoided offensive reference to Wade Hampton and his part in the controversy. The false accusation of having ordered the burning of the city was well calculated to exasperate a man like Sherman; but the proof of its falsity has long since been public, and a dispassionate statement of the facts was certainly all that was desirable. The circumstances made the charge credible to the whole body of the Southern people, and it was natural that they and their leaders should repeat it till it was both disclaimed and disproved.

The treatment of his personal relations to others is, throughout, the

* 'Memoirs of General William T. Sherman. By Himself.' Two vols. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

vulnerable part of General Sherman's book. In all that belongs to the larger discussion of plans of campaign, he is just and fair in allotting the merit of authorship and execution. He gives to Halleck the praise for a comprehensive and correct strategy in the campaign of Fort Donelson and Shiloh; he accords to Grant the conception and execution of the campaign of Vicksburg; and he claims distinctly and without circumlocution, as he had good right to do, the origination of the movement from Atlanta upon Savannah and thence to North Carolina. The correspondence he quotes seems fairly to establish the fact that Lincoln and Grant yielded a rather reluctant consent to this plan of campaign at the outset, and would have preferred to transport his forces by sea from Savannah to the James River rather than have him complete the march of which the very central idea was that it should interrupt the Confederate system of railway communications beyond the possibility of repair.

When, however, the General touches upon relations more purely personal, he too often forgets the rule that the facts should be stronger than the epithets applied to them. Even in a posthumous memoir it should not be permitted to attribute bad character to others, or to belittle them, without giving sufficient evidence. Again, there are personal quarrels and even personal wrongs which the successful man can afford to forget, and which it is not generous to perpetuate. We have already referred to some instances of the former class of mistakes on the part of the author. In the latter will be put by nearly everybody his treatment of his final quarrel with Stanton and Halleck. Stanton, though an ardent patriot, was imperious and often wrong-headed in his judgment of the conduct and character of others. In the midst of the panic created by the assassination of Lincoln, his excited imagination saw wide-reaching schemes for turning victory into defeat by murder and treachery. Sherman's convention with Johnston seemed to him an unpardonable leniency towards the rebels against whom his heart was then hot, and he struck at it with all his force and by every means. Not to be with him in every radical purpose of reconstruction which he had was to be against him, and he acted accordingly. That he was unreasonable, that he was wrong in taking the public at once into the controversy, that he treated Sherman badly in assuming that he was not to be trusted in continued command of the army, is all very true. But as Sherman has the right to a friendly interpretation of his conduct in view of what we now know of the simplicity and straightforwardness of his character and the steadiness of his loyalty to the Government, so Stanton has a right to our remembrance of the wild excitement at Washington, when neither the theatre nor the bed-chamber was safe from the assassin, and when most men felt that the country's crisis was so supreme that neither friendship nor ties of blood should be considered if they seemed to conflict with the swiftest action in whatever was necessary to secure the result that threatened to slip from our very grasp. It is right that Sherman should give every fact, and tell us fully his motives and his feelings at the time, but it is to be wished that he could have brought himself years ago to calm the vehemence of his anger, and, unless there were better evidence of unworthy motives in Stanton than any that has been produced, to admit that he meant well for the country, however harsh was his action toward the General himself.

The offence Halleck committed was in adopting the theory of the Secretary of War, that a different course from Sherman's was necessary, and that as the latter could hardly be expected to act vigorously on a policy opposed to his own, he must be practically though not formally relieved of his command. He was mistaken, for Sherman would have attacked Johnston, if ordered to do so, just as vigorously as if it were his own suggestion. But it was not strange that this should have been viewed differently at Washington, nor that, in the intensity with which all leading men were aiming at decisive results, they should have forgotten even a proper regard for persons. We cannot see in either of these incidents the occasion for an implacable feud.

His careful explanation of the way in which he came to be charged with insanity during his early command in Kentucky is doubly amusing, chiefly so in showing how such arrows have continued to "stick in the side," and what pains the General now takes to remove what he thinks a stain left upon him, but which everybody else laughs at. For war uses, the people soon learned to wish for madness with his kind of method in it, as Lincoln jocosely wished more of his officers drank another general's whisky. The picture of Cameron surrounded by newspaper reporters, whom he retained as confidential friends in a council of war with a department commander, is well drawn, and hits off the political manners of the time in a way they deserve.

In the judgment Sherman passes upon his subordinates, it would be rash to question his justice, though it would seem that the victims of his censure are chosen somewhat at random, as are also the subjects of his praise. When failure in military duty is given as a reason for removing an officer from his command, the presumptions are very strong that it was demanded by the circumstances, and the purpose of a military memoir might not be fully accomplished if mistakes or bad conduct were not held up for blame, even when our sympathies would make us prefer leaving such old sores uncovered. But there are a few cases in which no blame is attributed, where nevertheless the mention is not complimentary. For instance, in giving his reasons for not assigning either Logan or Blair to the command of the Army of the Tennessee after McPherson's death, the General does not say that either had been lacking in courage or in capacity. On the contrary, the implication is a strong one that as division and corps commanders they had done their duty well. The reason actually assigned is curious. It is given in these words: "I regarded both Generals Logan and Blair as 'volunteers' that looked to personal fame and glory as auxiliary and secondary to their political ambition, and not as professional soldiers." As the General has taken pains to say, in his concluding chapter, that at the close of the war "some of our best corps and division generals, as well as staff-officers, were from civil life," it is clear that this should be regarded as one of those instances in which the wrong reason is given for a right action. It is every way unfortunate in expression, not merely in the use of the term "volunteers," but in the apparently implied assertion that the volunteers were actuated by "political ambition" and the regulars by "personal fame and glory." No man would sooner than Sherman claim for our officers and soldiers of all classes the merit of fighting for the noble cause of the Union from purest devotion to the country. The mere politician on the one hand, and the mere soldier of fortune on the other, would be despised by him as by us; and it is unfortunate that careless writing should have given so strange a shape to his statement, and one so tempting to severe criticism.

The publication of the book in the author's lifetime will at least have this advantage: that it gives opportunity for revision and correction. His testimony as to what passed under his own eye, and to so great an extent under his own orders, is too important an element in the history of the time to be allowed to remain in an imperfect shape, and we do not doubt he will prune it of blemishes and add to the fulness and accuracy of its statements of fact before he will be content to leave it for posterity. It deals less with comprehensive views of the "grand strategy" of the war than we wish it did; but this is, in part at least, due to its form as a book of personal recollections.

## LADY DUFF GORDON'S LETTERS.*

LADY DUFF GORDON'S letters may certainly rank among the most delightful in our language. They deserve to become classical. This was apparent when the first series was published, a few years since, and we may say it with equal emphasis on closing the present volume. The letters here contained were written during the last four years of the author's life, beginning on Christmas day 1865, and ending in the summer of 1869. She died at Cairo, in July of this latter year. She had spent seven years upon the Nile, and had become familiar with the river, the localities, and the people in a way that few travellers had ever done. Why and how this was her letters from Egypt abundantly show. They are introduced, here, by a short Memoir, written, with charming simplicity and in the best taste, by her daughter, and they are followed by a collection of letters written from the Cape of Good Hope during the winter of 1862-63. She had gone off alone to this distant region on the same sad errand which subsequently led her to Egypt—with the view of benefiting health. Her last years were spent in a struggle with consumption, which brought her life to a premature close. These letters from the Cape are also extremely entertaining, and if they are less so than those written in Egypt, it is the fault of the subject and not of the writer; for they show the same acute observation, the same strong intelligence, the same genial, sympathetic turn of mind, the same wit and fancy, and, above all, the same happy, easy, natural vividness of style. Like all the best writing of this kind, Lady Duff Gordon's letters are interesting not only for what they tell us of her subjects, but for what they tell us of herself. She was not only a "superior" woman in the usual sense of the word, but a thoroughly charming one: we read between the lines, and feel flattered by the sense of intimacy which we gather there. She was the product, evidently, of fine influences implanted in a grateful soil. She was born and brought up in a circle in which the intellectual tone, the standard of culture, was very high, and she strikes us as a woman of a great natural wit which had been quickened by every social advantage. She was evidently extremely clever; her mind moved lightly and easily

* 'Letters from Egypt, etc. By Lady Duff Gordon.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

through a liberal range of interests, and left an impression wherever it rested. If we were to attempt to describe her in a single word, we would say, we think, that she was remarkably *intelligent*. She understood easily. She has in perfection what the best minds of women have as their strong point—she is singularly appreciative. She divines, she sympathizes, she enters into things at short notice. She has an abundant, spontaneous humor, and though she writes gracefully, as a gentlewoman should, she has a kind of frankness and robustness and breadth of utterance which indicate the distinctively British temperament. Add to this that Lady Duff Gordon had a style which was almost a matter of genius—so colloquial is it, so natural, so perfectly that of homeward-bound letters, and yet so available for every purpose, so vivid, so correct, so apt at imagery, without visible effort. Add also to this, further, that she lived for years an idle, contemplative invalid in the midst of the most picturesque scenery, people, and manners in the world, and you have enumerated the various reasons why her letters should be delightful.

"A. seems to doubt whether he will come," she says in one of her letters, "and to fear that M. will be bored. Was I different to other children and young people, or has the race changed? When I was of M.'s age I should have thought any one mad who talked of a Nile voyage as possibly a bore, and would have embarked in a washing-tub if any would have offered to take me, and that with rapture. All romance and all curiosity, too, seems dead and gone. Even old and sick, and not very happily placed, I still cannot understand the idea of not being amused and interested. If M. wishes to see the Nile," she adds (M. was her young son), "let him come, because it is worth seeing; but if he is only to be sent because of me, let it alone. I know I am oppressive company now, and am apt, like Mr. Woodhouse in 'Emma,' to say: 'Let us all have some gruel.'" Lady Duff Gordon herself never ceased, to the last, to be amused and interested. Her life in Egypt was an exile (she spent her summers—the torrid African summer—as well as her winters there), and, so far as her own family and friends were concerned, a solitude. At the last she was without even a European female servant; she had domesticated herself thoroughly with her beloved Egyptians, and she led her invalid life with such help as they afforded, in spite of the fact that the present daughters of the Pharaohs know neither how to wash, to sew, nor to cook. She loved the Egyptians because, evidently, she had endeared herself to them. If she was an exile from home, she had at least made herself a regular "social position" in Egypt. It was a very high one, too. Her headquarters were for the most part at Thebes, but she was known and admired all the way up and down the river, and by the poor people in especial was regarded as a heaven-appointed Lady Bountiful—a sort of glorified missionary. As to missions in general she had, we believe, her own views; but she performed a constant work of charity and civilization. The people came to her for everything, especially for medicine, and she rendered them every service, from curing their colics to healing their conjugal broils. But with the great people as well she was on the best terms: the pashas and sheikhs seem to have greatly valued her influence and to have taken extreme satisfaction in her conversation. There is something extremely striking in the idea of this lonely English lady, struggling with a mortal disease, secluded, inactive, and apparently without exceptional means of munificence, making herself a sensible influence in this heavily-burdened Egypt by the aid simply of her tact, her generosity of feeling, and her mother-wit. It was the feeling that she was being of use and playing a part which helped her to become so attached to the land and its people, in spite of much that, at best, was dreary in her position. In the autumn of 1868 she attempted a journey into Syria, but wrote on her return that it almost cost her her life. "The climate is absolute poison to consumptive people. . . . . At Beyrout the Sisters of Charity wouldn't nurse a Protestant nor the Prussians a non-Lutheran; at Omar and little Blackie nursed me better than Europeans ever do. I did not like the few Syrians I saw at all." Omar was Lady Duff Gordon's dragoman, the hero of this pretty anecdote: "I am more and more of Omar's opinion, who said with a pleased sigh, as we sat on the deck of the *Urania*, under some lonely palm-trees in the bright moonlight, moored far from all human dwellings: 'How sweet are the quiet places of the world!'"

Lady Duff Gordon writes almost exclusively about Egypt and the people and things that surround her. Her allusions to what is going on in Europe are rare and brief; we do not know whether she made no others, or whether such passages have been omitted. She expatiates on the small details of her daily life, introduces all her acquaintances (always with the happiest vividness), and keeps giving news of her innumerable servants, pensioners, and visitors. We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of quoting, in spite of its length, a passage about one of her friends. It is an excellent specimen of her style, and an example of what we mean by her being naturally an admirable writer:

"I have been much amused, lately, by a new acquaintance who, in romances of the last century, would be called an 'Arabian Sage.' Sheykh Abdurrachman lives in a village half a day's journey off, and came over to visit me and to doctor me according to the science of Galen and Avicenna. Fancy a tall, thin, graceful man, with a gray beard and liquid eyes, absorbed in studies of the obsolete kind, a doctor of theology, law, medicine, and astronomy. We spent ten days in arguing and questioning; I consented to swallow a potion or two, which he made up before me, of very innocent materials. My friend is neither a quack nor superstitious, and two hundred years ago would have been a better physician than most in Europe. Indeed, I would rather swallow his physic now than that of many an M.D. I found him, like all the learned theologians I have known, extremely liberal and tolerant. You can conceive nothing more interesting and curious than the conversation of a man learned and intelligent, and utterly ignorant of all modern Western science. If I was pleased with him, he was enchanted with me, and swore by God that I was a Mufti indeed, and that a man could nowhere spend time so delightfully as in conversation with me. He said he had been acquainted with two or three Englishmen who had pleased him much, but that if all Englishwomen were like me, the power must necessarily be in our hands, for that my 'akl' (brain, intellect) was far above that of the men he had known. He objected to my medicine, that it seemed to consist in palliatives, which he rather scorned, and aimed always at a radical cure. I told him that if he had studied anatomy he would know that radical cures were difficult of performance, and he ended by lamenting his ignorance of English or some European language, and that he had not learned our 'Ilm' (science) also. Then we plunged into sympathies, mystic numbers, and the occult virtues of stones, etc., and I swallowed my mixture (consisting of liquorice, cummin, and soda) just as the sun entered a particular house, and the moon was in some favorable aspect. He praised to me his friend, a learned Jew of Cairo. I could have fancied myself listening to Abu Sulyman of Cordova, in the days when we were barbarians, and the Arabs were the learned race. There is something very winning in the gentle, dignified manners of all the men of learning I have seen here, and their homely dress and habits make it still more striking. I longed to photograph my Sheykh as he sat in my divan pulling MSS. out of his bosom, to read me the words of 'El Hakeem Lokman,' or to overwhelm me with the authority of some physician whose very name I had never heard."

That is an attractive figure delightfully sketched, and it is one of many pictures, all freely and happily touched. In the singular medley of Dutch, English, Germans, Malays, and blackamoors who constituted society on the southernmost tip of Africa, Lady Duff Gordon found subjects of a very much less delicate picturesqueness; but her letters from Capetown and from the Dutch settlements of the inland country, where she visited, are extremely curious and entertaining. Even during the long, squalid voyage out, she writes charmingly. "Next day we got light wind S.W. (which ought to be S.E. trades), and the weather has been, beyond all description, lovely ever since. Cool, but soft, sunny, and bright, in short, perfect; only the sky is so pale. Last night the sunset was a vision of loveliness, a sort of Pompadour paradise; the sky seemed full of rose-crowned *amorini*, and the moon wore a rose-colored veil of bright pink cloud, all so light, so airy, so brilliant, and so fleeting that it was a kind of intoxication. It is far less grand than northern color, but so lovely, so shiny." We said that these letters deserve to become classical. When a book really deserves this fate, it generally achieves it, and toward it criticism must allow this volume to make its way in its own fashion. But one may at least say, without fear of talking too largely, that Lady Duff Gordon's letters will become classical to the point of being re-read, after a due interval, by any one who has read them once.

## LIFE OF THE EARL OF MINTO.*

LORD MINTO held high offices, and his keen sagacity and rare disinterestedness won the confidence of associates more celebrated than himself. He nevertheless failed to take rank in the first line of statesmen. His memoirs, therefore, owe their historical importance mainly to the light which they throw on the character of his friends, and by far their most interesting feature is the picture which they present of Burke, as seen by a friend and disciple, whose calm good sense prevented him from overlooking the defects of his teacher. In estimating the value of Sir Gilbert Elliot's letters, it should be noted that he belonged to that section of the Whigs which sympathized with every phase of Burke's opinions. He opposed the American war; he lost his seat on the defeat of the coalition; he joined in the prosecution of Hastings; he shared the hopes excited by the prospect of a Regency; and when the violence of the revolution divided the Whigs he followed the guidance of Burke and Portland. He was further united to Burke as much by intimate friendship as by political sympathy. In what-

* 'Life and Letters of Sir Gilbert Elliot, First Earl of Minto, from 1751–1806. Edited by his great-niece, the Countess of Minto.' London: Longmans; New York: R. Worthington & Co.

ever Elliot says of his hero, there is no danger of an underestimate of that hero's merits, and the coolness of Elliot's judgment is a guarantee against errors arising from the bias of affection. From his letters it is possible to see the impression which Burke, by his actual life and acts, made on his associates.

To appreciate what this impression really was is a great step towards understanding Burke's character and towards the solution of the enigma of Burke's career. How did it happen that his virtues and genius, which made him the prophet, never enabled him to become the statesman, of his generation? In the case of Burke, as in that of every other man of pre-eminent genius, there will be found to be a very close connection between the strong and the weak side of his nature. Elliot's letters bring into clear relief the fact which readers of Burke's works forget, that the writer's influence was due even more to moral than to intellectual greatness. "How high," writes Elliot, "does this [*i.e.*, the fact that Pitt had deserted Hastings] set Burke and . . . a few who have discerned between his *single right* and the popular and *universal* wrong. He was called mad and worse by many perfectly well-meaning men on this very subject, and he has now dragged his own party, the King, the Ministry, the Parliament, and all the rest of the world, by the mere force of truth and by his single vigor, into this measure." This capacity for catching the moral aspect of great questions, and for forcing it on the minds of others, was, even more than Burke's eloquence, the source of his influence. When he opposed the American war, or when he denounced the oppressions of Hastings, or inveighed against the Revolution, his "single right" was opposed to prevailing opinion. Few will now assert that in all these instances Burke was entirely in the right, but no one can deny that he seized hold of moral aspects in each question which escaped his contemporaries, and "dragged" the world by his vigor into his measures and policy.

The vividness, both of imagination and feeling, which lay at the basis of Burke's influence was also the cause of that strong personal attachment which gained for him in return the affection in addition to the admiration of his friends. The age was, it is true, rhetorical, and permitted the full expression of sentiment, but, after all allowance is made for this, the vehemence of Burke's affections is very remarkable. Rockingham had been a kind and just patron, but his follower felt his death with the keenness with which few men feel the loss even of their intimate friends. "Burke," says Elliot, "is overcome by the loss of his friend, and in a day or two will, I hope, be able to cry and relieve himself." The same ardor of friendship which appears in this passionate grief over Rockingham's death is constantly visible in Burke's intense admiration for the real or supposed talents, and equally intense desire for the sympathy, of his associates. Elliot was a man of far more than average ability, but Burke's obviously sincere admiration magnified his talent into genius. "You are too tall," Burke writes to his friend, "for the second rank; you *must* not be in it." "Sir Gilbert Elliot," he writes on another occasion, "is not found in the common shop of the diplomatic exchange," and he uses language of nearly equal eulogy with regard to "Elliot of Wells," a gentleman of no marked character and no special ability. The language of Burke's letters is calm when compared with the fervor in which he would speak of his friends' talents to their very face. Sir Gilbert made a speech of some merit, in which he pronounced a eulogy on Burke. The following passage from a letter to Lady Elliot describes Burke's feelings and behavior:

"Burke is quite out of himself on the subject, and I am quite convinced that nobody on earth except yourself can feel as he does about it. His expressions . . . are extravagant, and I will not repeat them. 'The most beautiful thing that ever was heard, divine beyond human sweetness,' and such like. . . . I went home with him afterwards to dinner, and he could not at all contain himself. He was darting every now and then across the room to embrace me. At dinner, without any provocation, he had his hand every now and then across the dishes to take my hand."

On another occasion, conversation turned in Elliot's presence on the power of speaking without interruption for hours. It happened that Elliot had on two or three occasions delivered speeches of three or four hours' length. "This," he writes, "was expatiated on by Burke till I literally begged for mercy, and I was really distressed, whatever you may think of it." The extravagant eulogy was the more absurd, as the occasion for it was one of Sheridan's greatest oratorical triumphs. It is in fact in perusing the account of Burke's exaggerated and often tactless praise of his friends that the reader of Elliot's correspondence first catches a glimpse of the defect which, more than any other intellectual or moral failing, deprived Burke of the weight naturally due to his virtues and capacity. This defect was a marvellous want of tact and of insight into character. Students who are impressed by Burke's prophetic foresight and charmed by his wonderful descriptions and analysis of character, find it hard to believe that the man who was so far-sighted was not equally clear-sighted, and that the writer whose immortal rhetoric has handed down to us the most brilliant pictures of his contemporaries, failed to see far into their character. Yet Elliot's letters alone would be sufficient to prove that Burke's want of tact in minor matters was simply one example of that singular lack of sound judgment which made his advice often more dangerous to his friends than to his enemies.

Two instances in which the good sense of his associates averted deplorable errors are worth special notice. When, in 1789, the King recovered from his illness, the Prince stood in a position which required from him and his partisans a display of the most delicate good feeling and stern self-control. The least want of respect towards his father was certain to ruin him and his friends in the eyes of the nation. He and his brother received, it must be admitted, the gravest provocation from the Queen. Burke was consulted, and "was very much of the Prince's mind for strong measures." The Duke of Portland and Elliot opposed and prevented a course of action the folly of which was at once apparent not only to Elliot but to his wife. "It is lucky," she writes, "that there was a *cool* head in the party like the Duke of Portland's; for, if I may venture to say it, Mr. Burke's advice was the worst possible. It is certainly material for the Princes to keep up an intercourse with the King, and the only means by which they will ever be able to justify their conduct during his illness." In 1791 the "Old Whigs" were compelled to decide what should be their attitude towards Fox. Burke prepared a memorandum to guide the Duke of Portland in an interview with the great Whig statesman, of whom Burke had till a year or two before been the ardent friend and admirer. The noticeable point is that the memorandum goes on the supposition that Fox was a liar. The absurd injustice of this supposition is apparent, but, even were it true, it would be fatal to Burke's insight, for his view of Fox's character in 1791 would, if well founded, show that he had for years revered as a patriot a man who wanted even the honorable feelings of a gentleman. Elliot refused to deliver the memorandum, which could only have turned a misunderstanding into an envenomed quarrel. Of the intemperance of Burke's anti-Revolutionary policy more than enough has been said and written, but it is startling to find him disgusting even the partisanship of Lady Malmesbury by the proposal to retaliate on prisoners of war for the execution of *émigrés* bearing arms against their country. These traits explain in part why the Whigs preferred in a leader the good sense and feebleness of Portland to the genius and passion of Burke, and make at least intelligible the dictum of Thurlow, that Burke "was a man of genius without wisdom."

A deficiency in judgment would not have debarred Burke from the highest posts had the consequences of this defect not been aggravated by a peculiarity in his external circumstances. To call him an adventurer in the ordinary sense of the word is the grossest injustice, since no man ever made greater sacrifices of interest to principle. It is nevertheless true that he pursued politics as a profession, and could not be indifferent to legitimate professional gains. Hence, even his friends considered that his services might be rewarded by pecuniary remuneration. In 1789, the Whigs expected to come into power, and Portland and Elliot considered "how to arrange Burke and his family in a manner equal to Burke's merits." The following was the arrangement contemplated: Richard, his brother, was to be Secretary to the Treasury, with a salary of £3,000 a year, and it was the intention of the Duke to give him on the resignation of the Secretaryship an office in the customs of a £1,000 a year for life. The arrangement as to Burke himself is thus described by Elliot:

"Edmund Burke is to have the Pay Office, £4,000 a year; but as that is precarious, and he can leave no provision for his son, it would be doing little or nothing of any real or substantial value unless some *permanent* provision is added to it. In this view, the Duke is to grant him a pension on the Irish Establishment of £2,000 a year *clear* for his own life, with the reversion of half of it to his son for life, and the other half to Mrs. Burke for her life."

No one will maintain that these or far greater rewards were adequate payment for the dedication of Burke's talents and industry to the public service. Looked at as professional pay, the pay is small, but the need for this payment not only tempted his friends to repay Burke in money rather than by high office, but also produced the more serious effect of making him appear to the public not a statesman of the rank of Chatham, North, or Fox, but a professional politician, who, if he did a good day's work, looked for fair wages. Nothing but the most scrupulous tact and the exercise of the soundest judgment could have saved Burke from the discredit attaching, in his case

most unfairly, to the character of an adventurer; and tact and judgment were exactly the qualities in which he was wanting. He surrounded himself with a body of relations and dependents who might have discredited a statesman of assured position. On this point an extract from a letter of Elliot's is conclusive:

"Burke has now got such a train after him as would sink anybody but himself: his son, who is quite *nauseated* by all mankind; his brother, who is liked better than his son, but is rather oppressive with animal spirits and brogue; and his cousin, Will Burke, who is just returned unexpectedly from India, as much ruined as when he went many years ago, and who is a fresh charge on any prospects of power Burke may ever have. Mrs. Burke has in her train Miss French, the most perfect *she-Paddy* ever caught. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, Burke is in himself a sort of power in the state. It is not too much to say that he is a sort of *power* in *Europe*, though totally without any of those means, or the smallest share in them, which give or maintain power in other men. Mirabeau said, like a true Frenchman, but with some truth, at one time, 'Ma tête aussi est une *Puissance*.' The same thing is almost true with regard to Burke, who does not, however, say it of himself."

In these sentences lies the secret both of Burke's failures and of his power.

*Abraham Lincoln:* sa Jeunesse et sa Vie politique. Par Alphonse Jouault. (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.)—If this little book is the work of a Frenchman who has only visited this country, as its opening paragraphs indicate, it is creditable to the author. It is commonly said that Frenchmen know little and care little about men and things beyond the limits of France, and it is gratifying to find a French press issuing a book so full of accurate knowledge and cordial appreciation of a man who, great as he was, was distinctively and exclusively American. The first part of the book treats of the youth of Lincoln, the second of his political career up to the time when he became President, and the third of his life at Washington, from his arrival there till his death. The first part contains a fuller account of Lincoln's early life than we recollect to have met with elsewhere; it is interesting, and appears to be authentic. The matter of the rest of the book is more familiar; it is well selected, well arranged, and clearly presented. The author knows our great President well, and admires him cordially. The following sentences show the spirit of his work. He says that his "principal dessein est surtout de montrer l'honnête homme dans le grand citoyen." Again: "à le voir, vous n'auriez pas reconnu de suite ce qu'un Anglais nomme un *gentleman*, mais vous n'auriez point osé affirmer qu'il n'en fut pas un, parcequ'on trouvait en lui cette absence de prétention et ce désir d'être courtois et affable envers chacun, qui sont l'essence sinon l'enveloppe des gens bien nés." The noticeable errors are few, and sometimes droll, as when our conventions are introduced to the French people under the name of *concusses*, and the famous Brooklyn preacher under the name of "le révérend Beecher Stove." The Indian Black Hawk becomes "le Faucon Noir." The statement that the Northern troops at Bull Run attacked "le camp du général Beauregard *solidement retranché*"—that Grant succeeded in placing his troops beyond the James River "par d'habiles manœuvres qu'il effectua *sans être inquiété*"—and that the assassin Booth was overtaken and put to death "dans les marais de Mary's County, *dans l'Illinois*," are the most serious mistakes that we have noticed. The absence of the Gettysburg speech of Mr. Lincoln is also, for the sake of French readers, to be regretted.

**** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices.* |
|---|---|
| Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of John Quincy Adams, Vol. VI. | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Birch (S.), Egypt, from the Earliest Times to 300 B.C. | (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) |
| Blasius (W.), Storms: their Nature and Laws | (Porter & Coates) |
| Boyesen (Prof. H. H.), A Norseman's Pilgrimage: a Tale | (Sheldon & Co.) |
| Erskine (Mrs. T.), Wyncote: a Tale | (Henry Holt & Co.) $1 25 |
| Fish (D. W.), First Book in Arithmetic | (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) |
| Complete Arithmetic | " " " |
| Frothingham (R.), Battle of Bunker Hill, swd. | (Little, Brown & Co.) |
| Gautier (T.), Constantinople | (Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00 |
| Greatorex (Eliza) and Despard (M.), Old New York, Part I., swd. | (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 3 00 |
| Hepburn (Prof. A.D.), Manual of English Rhetoric | (Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) 1 25 |
| Keary (Annie), Oldbury: a Tale | (Porter & Coates) 1 25 |
| Noyes (J. H.), Home-Talks, Vol. I. | (Oneida Community) |
| "Ouida," Signa: a Tale | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Packard (A. S., jr.), Insects of the Field, swd | (Estes & Lauriat) 0 25 |
| Portfolio, No. 66, swd | (J. W. Bouton) 1 00 |
| Prescott (W. H.), Biographical and Critical Miscellanies | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Proceedings of Am. Association for the Advancement of Science, 1874, swd. | (Salem) |
| Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute, Vol. I., swd | (D. Van Nostrand) |
| Sauveur (L.), Petites Causeries | (Lee & Shepard) 1 50 |
| Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages, swd. | (Lee & Shepard) |
| Stewart (Prof. B.), The Sun and the Earth, swd. | (Estes & Lauriat) 0 25 |
| Storrs (Rev. R. S.), The Early American Spirit, swd. | (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) |
| Wichert (E.), The Green Gate: a Tale | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |


PUBLISHED THIS DAY.

*GAUTIER'S CONSTANTINOPLE.* Translated from the French by Robert Howe Gould, A.M. American edition, specially revised. Uniform with Gautier's 'Winter in Russia.' $2.

*ERSKINE'S WYNCOTE.* A New English Novel. By Mrs. Thomas Erskine. 16mo. Leisure Hour Series, $1 25.

"We have not read a more pleasant story than this for many a day. . . . 'Wyncote' is well written, and full of human interest throughout, which is more than may be said of many a so-called 'brilliant story.'"—*London Spectator.*

"An excellent story."—*London Times.*

"Admirable for observation, for humor, for pathos. It may safely be recommended to people whom a long experience of stupid novels has soured and blighted."—*London Academy.*

RECENT STANDARD PUBLICATIONS.

*TAINE'S NOTES ON PARIS* $2 50
*WAGNER'S ART LIFE AND THEORIES.* $2.
*SAINTE-BEUVE'S ENGLISH PORTRAITS.* $2.
*GAUTIER'S A WINTER IN RUSSIA.* $2.
*MAINE'S EARLY HISTORY OF INSTITUTIONS.* $3.

Recent and Favorite Volumes of the Leisure Hour Series.

Price $1 25 each.

Walford, L. B.—Mr. Smith.
Alexander, Mrs.—Ralph Wilton's Weird.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall it Be?
Fraser-Tytler C. C.—Mistress Judith.
Alcestis—A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About, E.—The Notary's Nose.
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

*Starr & Marcus,*

*Jewellers and Silversmiths.*

DIAMONDS AND GEMS.

*Works of Art in Stone Cameos.*

BRONZES, CLOCKS, AND ORNAMENTS.

22 *John Street, New York.*

*4th Clearance Catalogue*

JUST READY.

TEN THOUSAND GOOD BOOKS at enormously reduced prices—30 to 60 per cent. from Publishers' rates.

*CATALOGUES*

SENT FREE TO ANY ADDRESS.

For first choice of these great bargains write at once to

ESTES & LAURIAT,

301 Washington Street (Opp. "Old South"),

BOSTON.

*Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

*Buckingham Hotel,*

FIFTH AVENUE, COR. FIFTIETH STREET,

(OPPOSITE THE CATHEDRAL.)

Location unsurpassed, high ground, splendid outlook, near the Central Park, Grand Central Depot, and in close proximity to many of the prominent churches and schools; an especially desirable residence for families. Will be completed by September next.

*FLOWER'S DIAGRAMS OF THE* Nerves of the Human Body with explanatory text. Edited by Wm. W. Keen, M.D. 2d American, revised after the 2d English edition. 4to, cloth, $2, by mail free of postage.

TURNER HAMILTON, Publisher,
129 South Tenth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

*"THE READER" treats of the last issue in the Clarendon Press Series—Burke Annotated—and of a recent book of feminine travel in Australia, just published by Macmillan, on page* ii.

NEW

## *VALUABLE PUBLICATIONS*

SUITABLE FOR

## *Text-Books and Works of Reference*

In Academies, High Schools, Colleges, and Theological Seminaries.

1. *EPOCHS OF HISTORY.* Each 1 vol. 16mo, with outline maps. Price per volume, in cloth, $1.

"This series is worth almost its weight in gold."—*London Spectator.*

"This method of presenting history is well adapted to the exactions of the present age, and the series, if the forthcoming volumes shall answer the expectations raised by the volumes already issued, will form a cheap, compact, and valuable constituent of the library of any student or intelligent family."—*Boston Daily Advertiser.*

"Well printed, neatly bound, liberally illustrated with maps, convenient in size, and very well written, these dollar volumes ought to obtain a wide circulation."—*Phila. Press.*

The following volumes are now ready:

1. *THE ERA OF THE PROTESTANT REVOLUTION.* By F. Seebohm, author of 'The Oxford Reformers —Colet, Erasmus, More,' with appendix by Prof. Geo. P. Fisher, of Yale College, author of 'History of the Reformation.'
2. *THE CRUSADES.* By Rev. G. W. Cox., M.A., author of the 'History of Greece.'
3. *THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR*, 1618–1648. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner.
4. *THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK;* with the Conquest and Loss of France. By James Gairdner, of the Public Record Office.
5. *THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND FIRST EMPIRE:* an Historical Sketch. By William O'Connor Morris, with an appendix by Hon. Andrew D. White, President of Cornell University.

2. *ANCIENT HISTORY FROM* the Monuments.

In this series we have a compact but popular presentation of the highly important results of recent archæological investigation. The annals of Egypt, Assyria, and Persia, as derived from the monuments, and from the cuneiform inscriptions generally, are of the greatest importance to understanding the development of human civilization and the tendency of religious thought. Besides this, there has been brought out a mass of evidence and illustration on manners and customs, language and literature, tending to throw light on the earlier books of the Bible, a knowledge of which is indispensable to every well-informed man. This has heretofore been practically inaccessible because of the recondite manner in which it has been discussed. Each of these volumes has been prepared by specialists who are masters of their respective departments.

Now Ready:

1. *EGYPT.* From the Earliest Times to B C. 300. By S. Birch, LL.D. 12 illustrations.

Will be published immediately:

2. *ASSYRIA.* From the Earliest Times to the Fall of Nineveh. By Geo. Smith, of the British Museum. 13 illustrations.
3. *PERSIA* From the Earliest Period to the Arab Conquest. By W. G. W. Vaux, M.A. 5 illustrations.

Each 1 vol. small 12mo, cloth, price $1.

3. *MURRAY'S MYTHOLOGY.* Manual of Mythology. For the use of schools, art-students, and general readers Founded on the works of Petiscus, Preller, and Welcker. By Alexander S. Murray, Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities British Museum. With 45 plates on tinted paper, representing nearly 100 mythological subjects. 1 vol. crown 8vo, cloth, $2 25.

"A correct, useful, and sensible manual of mythology adapted for popular use, and also for use in higher schools and academies. It has the great merit of being perfectly intelligible, and at the same time that it is very scholarly."—*Christian Intelligencer.*

"Every reader of classical literature will find this an invaluable hand-book. It is comprehensive, and is particularly valuable because of the handsome plates that are given with the sketch of every prominent character in mythology."—*Buffalo Commercial Advertiser.*

4. *DR. GILLETT'S WORKS ON* Natural Theology.

*GOD IN HUMAN THOUGHT;* or, Natural Theology Traced in Literature, Ancient and Modern, to the Time of Bishop Butler. With a closing chapter on the Moral System, and an English Bibliography from Spenser to Butler. By Prof. E. H. Gillett, of the N. Y. University, author of 'Life and Times of John Huss,' etc. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, $5.

"The great feature in this work is the wide extent which characterizes the discussion. Particular portions of the field have been often investigated, but we know not where to look for a work so complete and exhaustive as this of Professor Gillett. But it is not only the richest contribution yet made to the literature of the subject; it is of greatest importance as an effective weapon against the materializing and sceptical tendencies of the present period."—*Watchman and Reflector.*

*THE MORAL SYSTEM.* With a historical and critical introduction with special reference to Butler's 'Analogy.' Designed as a text book for schools and colleges. By Prof. E. H. Gillett, D.D., of the New York University. 1 vol. 12mo, $1 25.

UNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY,
NEW YORK, April 13, 1875.

*Scribner, Armstrong & Co.:*

GENTLEMEN: I have read Prof. Gillett's 'Moral System' with much interest, and gladly add my testimony to that of Dr. Atwater and others to its solid value. The historical survey which introduces the subject is a model of lucid and comprehensive statement. I do not know where more information can be obtained in so small a compass.

The analysis of Butler's 'Analogy' is thoroughly done, and the additional matter by the author is in the same line with that of this standard production, and adapts it to the needs of the present time.

The circulation of such a treatise in our academies and colleges will be highly useful.

Yours truly, WM. G. T. SHEDD.

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO. will send their Catalogue of Educational Publications to any address on application.

*Any or all of the above sent, post-paid, on receipt of the price, by the publishers,*

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO.,
743 and 745 Broadway, New York.

## *Selected Poems Now Ready:*

ILLUSTRATED.
Printed on Heavy Toned Paper.
*TEN CENTS PER NUMBER.*

No. 1. Locksley Hall (A. Tennyson).
No. 2. The Prisoner of Chillon (Byron), Latest Verses (Byron).
No. 3. The High-Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire (Jean Ingelow), Bernardo del Carpio (Mrs. Hemans).
No. 4. The Bridge of Sighs (T. Hood), Lines to my Mother's Picture (W. Cowper), The Three Fishers (C. Kingsley).
No. 5. Tam O'Shanter (R. Burns), To the Unco Guid (R. Burns).
No. 6. Death of Arthur (A. Tennyson).
No. 7. The Raven (E. A. Poe), Lucy Gray (W. Wordsworth).
No. 8. The Yarn of the Nancy Bell (W. S. Gilbert), The Lost Heir (T. Hood), John Anderson my Jo (R. Burns), Faithless Sally Brown (T. Hood).
No. 9. Make Way for Liberty (J. Montgomery), The Charge of the Light Brigade (A. Tennyson), On the Loss of the Royal George (W. Cowper), The American Flag (Joseph Rodman Drake).
No. 10. Songs of Seven (Jean Ingelow).
No. 11. The Brook (A. Tennyson), Our Dead (Miss A. A. Procter).
No. 12. Mother and Poet (Mrs. E. Browning), The Horn of Egremont Castle (W. Wordsworth), Mary Morrison (R. Burns).
No. 13. The Diver (Schiller), "Break, Break, Break" (A. Tennyson), Illusion (Miss Procter), Death's Final Conquest (J. Shirley).
No. 14. To the Skylark (P. B. Shelley), The Cloud (P. B. Shelley), Ode on a Grecian Urn (John Keats).
No. 15. The Death of the Old Year (A. Tennyson), The Old Year (Francis Turner Palgrave), Dirge for the Year (P. B. Shelley), New Year's Eve (A. Tennyson), Sonnet from the Portuguese (Mrs. Browning), Midnight Mass for the Dying Year (H. W Longfellow), Song of the Silent Land (H. W. Longfellow).
No. 16. The Power of Poetry (Matthew Arnold), The Cotter's Saturday Night (R. Burns), The Banks o' Doon (R. Burns), Bonnie Lesley (R. Burns).
No. 17. Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard (T. Gray), Hallowed Ground (T. Campbell), Is there, for Honest Poverty (R. Burns).
No. 18. The Red Fisherman (W. M. Praed), Ode on a Favorite Cat Drowned in a Tub of Gold Fishes (T. Gray).
No. 19. The Miller's Daughter (A. Tennyson), To Blossoms (Robert Herrick).
No. 20. Hart-leap Well (William Wordsworth), How they Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix (Robert Browning), A Canadian Boat-Song (Thomas Moore).
No. 21. A Legend of Bregenz (Adelaide Procter), The King of Denmark's Ride (Caroline Norton), Gentle River, Gentle River (Thomas Percy).
No. 22. The May Queen (Alfred Tennyson).
No. 23. Dora (A. Tennyson), Alexander's Feast (John Dryden.)
No. 24. Look at the Clock (Thomas Ingoldsby), The Friar of Orders Gray (Thomas Percy), A Charade—"Campbell" (W. M. Praed).

To each purchaser of a complete set of above is given a copy of 'EDWARD OSBORNE.'

*EDWARD OSBORNE.*

By the author of 'Mary Powell.' A short story of the Stuart and Elizabethan Times.
*TWENTY-FIVE CENTS.*

*RAB AND HIS FRIENDS.*

With two fine Illustrations.
*TEN CENTS.*

KILBOURNE TOMPKINS,
16 Cedar Street, New York.
☞ Will be sent, post-paid, on receipt of price.

## *Auction Sale at Richmond, Virginia,*

ON THE FOURTEENTH OF JULY, 1875,
OF THE
*VALUABLE LIBRARY*

of the late *Hon. THOS. H. WYNNE*, Corresponding Secretary of the Virginia Historical Society. Rich in American Private Prints and Local Histories, Confederate States Publications, etc., etc.

Orders filled by the Auctioneer. Catalogues sent on application.

J. THOMPSON BROWN, AUCTIONEER,
1113 Main Street.

## *The National Series.*

This Series, numbering nearly 400 volumes, is the most extensive, the most complete in every branch of instruction, the most uniformly excellent, and the most universally popular Series of School and College Text-Books ever issued by a single publishing house. It includes among others the following:

### *Standard Books of National Series.*

Parker & Watson's National Readers.
Parker & Watson's National Spellers.
Monteith & McNally's Geographies.
Davies's Complete Mathematics.
Clark's English Grammars.
Emma Willard's Histories.
Beers's Round-hand Penmanship.
Peck's Ganot's Philosophy.
Jarvis's Physiology and Laws of Health.
Porter's Chemistries.
Wood's Botanies.
Cleveland's Compendiums of Literature.
Pujol's French Course.
Chapman's American Drawing.

### *Newest Books of National Series.*

Watson's Independent Readers.
Watson's Independent Spellers.
Monteith's Independent Geography.
Peck's Short Arithmetics.
Clark's Brief, and Normal Grammar.
Barnes's Brief History of the United States.
Steele's 14 Weeks' Course in each Science.
Wood's Botanist and Florist.
Peabody's Moral Philosophy.
Worman's French Echo.
Worman's German Series.
Searing's Virgil's Æneid.
Jepson's Music Readers.
Folsom's Logical Book-keeping.

The whole crowned by the unique collection of professional manuals known as

*THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' LIBRARY.*

In 30 volumes, headed by Page's 'Theory and Practice of Teaching.'

A Descriptive Catalogue and Price-List of all A. S. Barnes & Co.'s Publications will be sent free to the address of any Teacher or School Officer applying for it.

The "National Teachers' Monthly" commands in its editor and contributors the best professional talent the country affords. Subscription, $1 per annum.

A. S. BARNES & COMPANY,
EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHERS,
111 and 113 William Street, New York.
113 and 115 State Street, Chicago.
112 Camp Street, New Orleans.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 24, 1875.*

## The Week.

THE celebration of the Bunker Hill Centennial in Boston, though a great success as a spectacle, was remarkable most of all for the enthusiasm with which the Southern military visitors were received, a large majority of whom had served in the Confederate army. The cordiality of their reception not only took them, but took the Bostonians themselves, by surprise. They passed along the streets amidst a storm of applause, were overwhelmed with invitations, and encountered nowhere the shadow of old enmity or suspicion. General Fitzhugh Lee, in particular, was the object of the warmest attentions; one eminent physician, who in old days, it is said, would not permit his respirators to be sold at the South, being unwilling to stop the progress of tubercles in pro-slavery lungs, went out of his way to shake the rebel soldiers warmly by the hand. The Charleston company went out to Harvard College, were received and addressed by the President, who reminded them of the honorable place Southern names bore on the roll of graduates; showed them over the Memorial Hall, and received an expression from the Colonel of a wish that the college might hereafter promote, as in the past, not the greatness only but the unity of the nation. Ben Butler figured largely in the procession, as a kind of a soldier, being the commander of the State militia, and General Devens delivered the oration at the monument; but the two State Senators made no appearance, Mr. Dawes being doubtless overcome by the horrid massacres of negroes which he thinks are going on, and Mr. Boutwell being occupied with preparations for the second civil war which he believes to be impending. The political importance of the occasion can hardly be overestimated, because if Boston be disposed to forgive and forget, the rest of the country may be fairly presumed to be in the same mood; and we have at last the assurance that the period of hostile, coercive, and unconstitutional legislation is at an end—that we have seen the last of electioneering "outrages."

---

The Ohio Democrats have held their Convention and nominated William Allen for Governor and General S. F. Cary for Lieutenant-Governor. The platform is an out-and-out inflation document, denouncing the "contraction" of which the Republican party has been guilty, and "the further contraction proposed by it," declaring that this contraction has already brought "disaster to the business of the country" and threatens it with "general bankruptcy and ruin," demanding that this policy be abandoned, and "that the volume of currency be made and kept equal to the wants of trade, leaving the restoration of legal-tenders to par with gold to be brought about by promoting the industries of the people and not by destroying them." Another resolution—

"That the public interest demands that the Government should cease to discredit its own currency and should make its legal-tenders receivable for all public dues, except where respect for the obligations of contracts requires payment in coin, and that we favor the payment of at least one-half of the customs in legal-tenders"—

seems to be intended to "meet the views" of the repudiationists, since it either looks their way or means nothing. Another resolution denounces all sumptuary laws. It seems hardly credible, but it is nevertheless true, that Mr. Allen, the candidate for Governor on this platform, is an old "hard-money" man, and that "General" Cary is an old prohibitionist, besides being under charges of fraudulent dealing in the sale of a mine. To complete the tale, it need only be added that Senator Thurman, who has been playing the part of Old Roman among the Democrats for the last few years, and always, when an opportunity offers, bewails the depravity of the times, and is a great enemy of paper-money, made a ratification speech in which he admitted that some mistakes might have been made by the convention, but urged his hearers to remember that there are times when "demands upon us are so great" that it is the duty of every man to "put his shoulder to the wheel" and "let time correct whatever errors have been committed," and begged them to sink "all minor differences" and go to work for the common cause—"victory in Ohio" and the "death-knell of the Republican party."

---

Some of the newspapers have discovered that this platform has at least the merit of being honest, in advocating inflation in so many words, but this is a mistake. Take it all in all, with its fabrications about "general ruin and bankruptcy," the old talk about exceptional cases in which "the obligations of the contract" may require payment in coin, and its candidates, the work of the convention is about as rascally a piece of "politics" as we have seen in a good long time. It is the first serious mistake the Democrats have made since the elections last fall, and, unless we are greatly mistaken, will do more to injure them in the East and on the Pacific coast than it can possibly do them good in Ohio. The talk of Mr. Thurman about "minor differences," when he and everybody else knows that the currency is the great question of the day, places him in a very humiliating position. The Republican platform is non-committal as to this subject, and its candidates are good. Under these circumstances, we have no hesitation in advising any one who thinks our advice worth taking to vote the Republican ticket. We should give this advice exactly on the same grounds on which we should have advised any one in New York a year or so ago not to vote for "Jimmy" Hayes as a reformer.

---

During the week there have been several heavy failures in London in the East India and the metal trade, and these have involved the suspension of several bill-brokers and minor firms. So generally were these failures expected that they caused little uneasiness and no serious apprehension. They were the results of remote causes, the East India trade having been unprofitable for several years, and in the last two almost ruinously so. Since the panic of 1873 in this country, the market for English iron and steel has suffered badly, and it has been felt that it was simply a question of time when large concerns in this line of business would suspend. More failures are expected, but there are no indications of a panic, the conditions for one not existing. Gold continues to flow to London, the shipments from this country during the past three weeks having been over $15,000,000, which is the largest amount ever sent from here in so short a time. These shipments had little reference to the mercantile troubles in London, but nevertheless are timely, and cannot fail to have a good effect. When the unsound houses are discovered, and all which cannot go on suspend, money in London ought to become very cheap, and hopes are entertained that American securities will again come into favor to the extent of favorably affecting the exchanges between New York and London. Already this year we have exported $46,800,000 specie, which is the largest amount for a corresponding time on record; the largest previous shipment having been in 1866, when at this date $45,125,000 had been sent. The banks of the whole country have not gold enough to continue for a month shipments at the rate of the past three weeks, but the gold does not come out of the banks. It is sent to pay for five-twenty bonds called in and redeemed by the Treasury, and the gold is taken thence and put on shipboard. While the banks are losing gold, they are gaining in legal-tender notes, the New York banks having now about $69,000,000—which is more than they have held for years. A good part of the recent accumulation of these notes comes from the redemptions of national-bank notes which drift to New York during the dull season,

At the Stock Exchange, speculation was tame, but generally directed to depressing prices, until late in the week, when the tide was turned. United States bonds, both here and in Europe, have been strong, and at times enough higher in Europe than here to justify exports from New York. The outlook in regard to the crops was never better, particularly in the Southern States, where the cotton-fields now bid fair to yield a crop of 3,900,000 to 4,500,000 bales. All through the South more corn and grain have been put in, and it is thought that this part of the country will have, beyond its own wants, a large amount to export, which is something unusual. General trade continues dull, but it is "between seasons." Encouraging views are taken of the fall trade, there being good reasons for believing that the coming season will show more recuperation than any since the panic of 1873. At the present time manufacturing interests are depressed, production has been curtailed, and the only demand which can be looked for is that which arises from the necessities of consumption; in other words, no speculative demand is expected for any class of goods this year. But the necessary demand ought to be larger than last season; credits are not extended—in fact, were never more restricted. There will undoubtedly be a good many mercantile suspensions, but of firms which were weakened by the panic, and have since been using their past credit, and waiting, like Micawber, for something to turn up which would help them out.

---

The railroad war has been settled by the ratification, on the part of the respective directors of the Baltimore and Ohio and Pennsylvania Railroad Companies, of the terms agreed to by the representatives of these companies at the meeting in this city last week. The precise stipulations are not known; but it is known that the general passenger and freight agents of the two companies have been at work preparing a new schedule of rates; that the rivalry hereafter is to be kept within reasonable bounds—in other words, that rates are not to be reduced below actual cost, as they had been before the close of the "war." The roads were then carrying wheat from Chicago to the seaboard as low as two and a half mills per ton per mile—scarcely enough to pay for the coal burnt on the engines. The most significant and satisfactory feature of the settlement is the provision which permits no change without the sanction of the directors of each company. This puts a check on the assumption of irresponsible power by the president of each company. It had become too much the custom for Mr. Garrett to assume that he was the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, and of Mr. Scott that he was the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. Each managed as if there were no directors, much less stockholders. By the settlement, a peril which threatened railroad credit and, beyond that, general disaster, has been averted. The prominent stock speculators were opposed to the settlement.

---

Investors who are looking about for nice, quiet railway securities into which to put their money, will find a good deal of food for reflection in the history of the railroad war, throwing, as it does, much light upon the management of trust-property. Mr. Tylor, in his interesting work on "Primitive Culture," has shown how many cases of institutions, or ideas, or theories, or feelings there are in modern society which are simply the result of "survival." They do not correspond to the facts of the present time, but they have lasted over from the past. We are inclined to think that the idea of the "trustee" must be one of these cases. The trustee, as he is described in musty old law-books published ten or fifteen years ago, is a prudent, thoughtful, sagacious man, generally of advanced years, and long trained in a profession which carefully discriminates between rights and duties flowing from conflicting pecuniary interests. The trustee as we know him in actual life, however, is generally a young, thriving man of business, who made his money by "operations," is generally known among his friends as "Tom" or the "Commodore," is generally profoundly ignorant of the existence of any rules of law or morality which forbid a trustee from speculating with trust-funds, and, in fact, generally regards trust-funds of which he has the management as a convenient means of "extending his lines," "building up commerce" in one direction or another, or breaking down some "combination." The presidents of the trunk-lines to the West seem to be good illustrations of the modern idea of the trustee, and we know of nothing more stimulating to the fancy or calculated to lend an interest to the daily life of the "small capitalist," than the sight of placards such as have been put up in the streets lately in all directions, with "Let the war go on," "Down with monopolies," etc., etc, printed upon them. To be sure, his property may disappear in the operation, but then he has the satisfaction of knowing that "Tom" has beaten the "Commodore" or the "Commodore" has beaten "Tom," as the case may be.

---

General Porter, of the Board of Public Works, has taken strong ground in the dispute with the laborers about the reduction of pay. In his reply to a Tammany committee which recently visited him on the subject, he declared that the taxpayers of the city should not be compelled by any act of his to pay more than the market prices for anything; that wages paid by Government to laborers in excess of the current wages "would appear to be mere gratuities"; and that he did not know what justification he could find for "giving away public moneys." And he added the significant remark, that he understood at the time the reduction was made a number of taxpayers, observing the great difference between the city and the current rates, were "actually in consultation with counsel with a view to proceedings in the courts" to enjoin the departments from paying wasteful rates. This, no doubt, was very startling news to the committee; but it ought not to have been. Indeed, an injunction ought to be the regular and normal way of stopping such abuses. The city is, so far as public works goes, exactly like any other corporation. The stockholders are the taxpayers, and the latter ought to have exactly the same right to restrain wasteful expenditure that the former have in a railroad or a factory. Particularly is this so since the reformed charter gives taxpayers general authority to set in motion an enquiry into the expenditures of money by the city officials. A legal opinion on this subject by counsel would be very interesting.

---

The last number of the *Christian Union* contains an article by "Mr. Beecher's editorial associates" upon the Brooklyn trial, which says in substance, and truly, that whatever the issue of the legal proceedings may be, public opinion will decide sooner or later, without doubt or disagreement, whether Mr. Beecher's life has "been rotten to the core or grounded in sincerity." "Men may hereafter question how far he was wise," they say, "how far he fell short in prudence or insight, or in rightly fitting his acts to the requirements of circumstances," but "it will not remain an open question whether his whole work was a fraud." They then ask those who blame him for going so far in his efforts to prevent an outbreak of the scandal to consider the injury which the outbreak has actually wrought to the community, and to ask whether, in view of the magnitude of this injury, he was not justified in his efforts to keep it quiet. This, however, suggests the obvious reply, that the "outbreak" consists almost wholly in an investigation of the ways and means employed by him and his friends to secure secresy. Had he shown at the outset the courage he preaches to other men in the pulpit, and collared Tilton when he accused him of debauching his wife, there would have been nothing, or very little, to examine or expose. Had he not made a bosom friend of Moulton, Moulton's iniquities would never have been laid before the community. The article concludes by calling on those who stand by Mr. Beecher to show their love for him by "doing whatever helpful and Christian deed lies nearest their hand." We go further, and call on the Tiltonites to show their love for that eminent man in the same manner. In fact, we advise both sides to display their fiery zeal in good works. Mr. Beecher's associates also

add that "we are members of one another, and living and dying we are the Lord's," which is true, with limitations. The devil, we fear, has a large interest in some of us, as will appear clearly at the right time.

'Ginx's Baby' has again been getting Mr. Edward Jenkins into trouble. Had he never written it, he would have remained in some obscure position, in which his duties and temptations would have been suited to his powers. On the giddy eminence on which it has placed him, he comes to grief nearly every week. After making a ferocious attempt to settle the question of copyright offhand, he took up the relations of France and Germany, and let out the important secret that a bloody war between these two powers was prevented by a tract of the Peace Society, which was opportunely caused to fall into the hands of the Prussian military men. He then took up, in the House of Commons, the working of the Commission which has been charged with the financial part of the process of disestablishing the Irish Church—a difficult question, requiring considerable knowledge of Ireland, of the Church, and of accounts to deal with it satisfactorily. Mr. Jenkins accordingly blundered grossly in his facts, cast foul and unwarrantable imputations on honorable men, and so thoroughly disgusted the House, that though there is a strong case against the Commission, only 34 members voted with him, against 148. The *Pall Mall Gazette* says that "no member of the House of Commons has yet succeeded in arousing feelings of antagonism and irritation in the same degree as Mr. Edward Jenkins, and no other member could have so completely frittered away a strong case as he did" on this occasion. A speedy return to the composition of little philanthropic novelettes would, indeed, seem to be the course which all the signs of the times press on this statesman's attention.

The right of Mr. Keet, the Wesleyan minister, to put the word 'Rev." before his name on his daughter's tombstone in the churchyard of Owston Ferry, in England, has been solemnly argued by counsel before the Chancellor of the Diocese of Lincoln, who is a young man and the bishop's son. The facts in the case are already familiar to our readers, and the report of the proceedings in court reads very much like a caricature by some satirist who hated the clergy. The Chancellor has solemnly delivered judgment in the case, refusing the citation asked for directing the vicar to allow the obnoxious inscription to be made. It is difficult to read the decision with a grave face. It holds that, if the use of the term "Reverend" implies that the person bearing it is entitled to administer the sacraments, it would be against the laws of the Church to apply it to a Wesleyan minister; moreover, the use of the title was forbidden by the teachings of John Wesley and the rules of the Wesleyan Conference, which it appears, on a pinch, the Chancellor thinks himself bound to enforce. If, on the other hand, it was admitted, as had been contended at the bar, that the epithet "Reverend" was a title of courtesy, and might be given to all persons "worthy of reverence," it must still be denied to Mr. Keet, because, though he might be a very estimable person in private life, and though there might be some strong excuse for his being so bad a thing as a Wesleyan, yet the Church could not admit that a Wesleyan minister was, as such, "worthy of reverence," because he was a schismatic. Besides this, if he was allowed to call himself "Reverend" on his daughter's tombstone, "it might be the means of disseminating doctrines inconsistent with those of the Church." After turning the matter over thoroughly, the Chancellor could see no way of granting the application unless the inscription were so worded that it would show that it was only "an asserted title," or in other words, we suppose, unless Mr. Keet would make it "The so-called Rev. Henry Keet," or the "soi-disant Rev. Henry Keet," or the "alleged" or the "self-styled Rev. Henry Keet"—which he is hardly likely to do. He has given notice of an appeal from the Chancellor's decision, and the case will probably go to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, but no doubt is entertained as to the final result. He will certainly be allowed to call himself "Rev." on his daughter's tombstone if he pleases. The decision of the Chancellor, who is a rather light-headed young man who holds the place as his father's son, is commented on in the *Times* in terms of not unmerited severity, as it is only prevented from being exasperating and insulting to Dissenters by being very absurd.

There is just now a curious controversy going on in Germany as to who is responsible for the late "scare," the official press being apparently disposed to throw the blame on the "semi-official," which got up the talk about the French *cadres*, and was supposed to be "inspired" by the Foreign Office. A report, however, that the Press Bureau of the Foreign Office, which supplied information to well-behaved newspapers, was suppressed, has been denied, inasmuch as there is no such bureau attached to the Foreign Office, while there is one attached to the Ministry of the Interior, which remains. The official paper says there never was any intention at any time of addressing a request to the French Government to reduce its forces or discontinue the reorganization of the army. The bulk of the work of mediation seems to have been done by England, Austria having refused to participate in it, and accordingly a somewhat acrid tone is taken by the German press towards England, on the assumption that her intervention took place rather in the interest of France than in the interest of peace. The conclusion to which all the pros and cons of the affair seem to point most clearly is that there *was* talk about calling on France to suspend her armaments or to restrict the size of her regimental *cadres*, and that it was allowed to get into the newspapers as a "feeler," and that it probably originated with the military men, who felt it to be their duty to act on military considerations solely, and that the remonstrances of England, and of the Emperor of Russia, and the shock which it evidently gave to the moral sense of the world, led to its being promptly dropped and repudiated—a course which was made all the easier through a frank disavowal of hostile intent on the part of France; and this France was enabled to make without loss of dignity, through the interference of England.

The Committee of Thirty have been busily engaged in the revision of the constitutional bills, and especially those on Public Powers. The important changes made in the first draft, of which we have already given a summary, are that a third instead of a bare majority of the Legislature is to have the power of requiring the President to call an extraordinary session, and both Chambers are to assemble as a matter of course on the death or resignation of the President, and the consent of the Assembly is to be necessary to a declaration of war. The most excitement prevails over the question whether departmental elections shall take place by general ticket, or by arrondissement, the Left being in favor of the former method and the Government of the latter, as offering greater facilities for the exercise of that supervision of the election which every French Government seems to consider one of its first duties.

Garibaldi has had another of those extraordinary tributes to his popularity with which his life has been crowded, and which he bears with such unshaken modesty and good sense. He has, with the picturesqueness by which his whole career has been marked, taken up the improvement of the bed of the Tiber as the work of his closing years, and on the 25th ult. brought his scheme before a crowded sitting of the Italian Parliament. His bill was passed by a unanimous vote, followed by a storm of applause from the galleries. It was declared "urgent" by another unanimous vote, and with another burst of applause. The enterprise is to cost $12,000,000, of which a portion is to be assessed on the property to be benefited by the change; two-thirds of the rest of the expense is to be borne by the Government, but not more than $6,400,000 in all; and the remaining third by the City of Rome. The improvements are to consist of a canal to aid the discharge of the Aniene, one of the most important tributaries of the Tiber, and of the surplus waters of the river itself, and the construction of embankments within the city for the latter, and the discharge of the overflow into the marshes of the Maccarese and Ostia, so as to help to fill them up by the sediment; and last, not least, a port and a railroad connecting the city with it.

## THE CREDIT OF SOVEREIGN STATES.

MR. HUGH McCULLOCH has, in a recent letter to the *Tribune*, in commenting on the condition of American credit in Europe, declared his belief that the only thing now which prevents its "being of the very highest character" is the default of which many of the States have been guilty with regard to their public debts, and he cites the repudiation of her bonds by his own State, some forty years ago, as an example. These old repudiations by Mississippi, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and other States about that period are for the most part forgotten in this country. A new generation has come on the scene, which found all old liabilities "wiped out," and which has had a very pleasant time in riding on the wave of prosperity which came in with the railroads and has been rising steadily ever since; and it has troubled its head very little about the griefs of its fathers' creditors. But then the creditors have not forgotten, as Mr. McCulloch points out. They, for the most part, live in countries where it is not easy to forget the past and begin anew, and they belong largely to a class which finds great difficulty in restoring its fortunes if once impaired, and which cherishes with bitterness the memory of bygone losses. One still finds representatives of it among the old men, who look on Americans as swindlers and all American enterprises as humbugs, and keep their old bonds, with a certain cantankerous affection, as good things to swear over after dinner. Some of them, like the one Mr. McCulloch describes, might have "converted" their bonds, or got something in payment of them, if they had chosen to bestir themselves, but they preferred to avoid everything which might in any degree lessen the moral blackness of the transaction.

The memory of these mishaps might have died entirely out by this time, however, and would indeed have been buried by the financial success of the United States, if the misfortunes of the war, and the change which it wrought in the character of the electoral constituencies in several of the Southern States, had not caused a renewal of the frauds and defalcations on a greater or less scale. The carpet-bag régime was a terrible thing to follow close on the waste and destruction of the armed struggle, because on no side was it so mischievous as on the financial side. If the most upright and skilful men in the community had taken charge of the Southern State finances after the peace, they would have found their restoration a task of extraordinary difficulty, even if the voters had been intelligent and far-sighted. As things went, with very ignorant constituencies, led by the lowest order of adventurers, the wonder is that even greater havoc was not wrought with the public credit, and that any Southern State should now be in a position to offer any terms to its bondholders. Nothing can be more melancholy, in fact, than the condition of the Southern State securities. The Alabama Fives can be had for about 34; the Arkansas Sixes for 28, and the other obligations of the State for 15; Georgia, owing to the flight of the carpet-bag governor and the early passage of the State government into good hands, has her bonds at about 90. North Carolina bonds can be had, at prices varying with the description, from 51 down to 3½; those of South Carolina average about 33, and the "non-fundable bonds," or, in other words, those that are virtually repudiated, at 6¼. One denomination of Virginia Sixes reaches 64, the rest figure at about 36, and the "deferred bonds" at 8½; Tennessees, old and new, bring about fifty. Louisiana bonds of various kinds range from 37 to 25.

Of course the London Council of Foreign Bondholders is very gloomy over this state of things. We gave some account of their wailings two months ago. We have little doubt that many of the debts in this country of which they are disposed to take a dark view at present, will turn out better than they expect; but then we do not see much sign of improvement in the manner in which foreign money-lenders seek to protect themselves against deception and loss in their pecuniary transactions with governments. All the loans of this class put on the European Exchanges owe their success largely, if not entirely, to the traditional impression, which the promoters studiously strengthen, that the credit of a state may fairly be looked at from what may be called the standpoint of international law—that is, that as in the eye of the law all states are equal, however widely they may differ as to resources and population, and have the same rights, and are entitled to the same immunity from coercion or insult, so also their commercial honor may be treated as about equal also, and it may properly and safely be presumed that a "sovereign" state will not cheat or lie. We do not mean to say that the case is ever put in this bald way, or that it is ever asserted broadly that it is as safe to lend money to Ecuador as to France or England; but the mere terms of "sovereign" and "independent," the mere fact that the borrower is a government which has a treasury and levies taxes, are allowed to have a most deluding effect on the understanding, and to lead people to dispense with precautions which, in dealing with individuals, no one thinks of neglecting. In lending money to an individual, even though he be wealthy, and though the lender knows that if there be any default he can call the law to his aid, he places his main, or indeed almost his entire, reliance on character. He considers not simply what are the debtor's resources, but in what manner he is likely to manage them, what amount of will or zeal he is likely to bring to the discharge of his obligations. In dealing with a government, there is hardly ever any such careful weighing of the facts. The banker who disposes of the loan of course puts the best face possible on the matter, and makes urgent parade of the state's ability to pay, and the small subscriber, who is eager for his seven or eight per cent., takes it for granted that a government which is able to pay if it pleases is sure to please.

Now, there can, even from the moral, to say nothing of the commercial point of view, be nothing more deplorable than the ease with which badly-governed or dishonest communities get loans. It corrupts nations, as well as men, to be able to get money without trouble, and by the aid of fine words, and by making a parade of their mines and their revenues; and the matter becomes more serious when we consider that the accumulations of capital seeking an outlet are increasing rapidly at all the great moneyed centres, that simultaneously with this there is all over the world a rage for "public improvements," which finds vent in the assumption of heavy charges on future earnings. We are, therefore, likely to witness incessant borrowing for an indefinite period, but if there is to be any end to fraud and complaints of fraud, bodies like the Council of Foreign Bondholders must devote more time to prevention and less to cure. The best time to give advice to an investor is before he invests, and advice about loans to governments must now be based, more than ever before, on prolonged and recorded observation of the character of the borrowing community, as displayed in its financial legislation and the mode of administering justice. Fifty years ago, if you knew the character of one small class of public men, in most communities you could tell pretty well how any given political and financial problem would be dealt with. In our day this is no longer possible. The influences which determine the course of legislation are more subtle and varied, and come from a much greater number of sources, and the speeches and promises of "prominent men" mean much less.

When, for instance, an American State wishes to borrow money, lenders would do well to consider that, in the first place, although it is called a "Sovereign State," this term must be construed with considerable limitation. It can borrow like a sovereign, but, if it fails to pay, it stands in a very different position from any other sovereign state of similar resources and population, and no forcible redress can be obtained from South Carolina and Louisiana, for example, without encountering the whole power of the Union. This does not, perhaps, and ought not to make any substantial difference in the security, but it does, more or less, increase the popular indifference to foreign opinion, and is therefore to be taken note of in dealing with States whose population is below the average of intelligence. Another thing to be taken into account is, that in States in which the commercial element is not strong and influential, the sense of the value of commercial honor is apt to be small. An agricultural community, for instance, is apt to be more impressed by any legal or constitutional flaw in the making of a loan, than by the inexpediency

of taking advantage of this flaw. In the present condition of politics, too, when the changes in public offices and in the men who figure prominently in public life are very frequent, and all political careers are likely to be short, political traditions are apt to be very weak, and the knowledge of recent political history very poorly diffused, so that, as Mr. McCulloch has pointed out, the credit of a State may have received serious damage a very few years ago without the present generation of voters knowing much, if anything, about it.

For all these reasons, the best thing that could be done for the prevention of defaults and frauds by States would be what we may be allowed to call the accumulation of moral rather than material statistics. A record ought to be kept of the recent financial history of each State, showing in a plain way the mode in which former loans or guarantees were met; the tendency of legislation in financial matters, such as usury laws, stay laws, and all laws intended to interfere with the execution of contracts about money; the mode of appointing the judiciary, and the precautions taken or not taken for the preservation of judicial independence—which are generally a very good test both of popular morality and intelligence. A man who thinks a judge ought to be the exponent of popular opinion for the time being is apt to be, financially considered, an unsafe man, and it matters little whether he be a knave or a fool. We might multiply these suggestions indefinitely. It will be easily seen that they touch matters far more important to investors than the extent of the material resources. Everything that can be done ought to be done by the moneyed men to make the new classes into whose hands the governments of the world are passing see the importance of character to communities as well as individuals, that it is as wrong and dangerous to cheat by thousands as by ones or threes, and that the peaceful agriculturist has no more right to turn rascal than the hardened stockholder.

## POLITICS AND THE POLICE.

AN Albany committee appointed to investigate a supposed increase of crime in this city is now sitting here and examining witnesses. From evidence already published with regard to the comparative number of indictments and convictions before and since the success of the attack upon the Ring, it seems probable that there has been no positive increase of crime, but, on the contrary, a positive increase in the prosecution of criminal offences. Nevertheless, the condition of the police in this city is not such as to command universal confidence, and there can be little doubt that a searching investigation would bring to light many practices and customs of the constabulary which are of a most corrupting and demoralizing nature. One witness has been brought before the committee, himself formerly employed on the force, who swears that with regard to certain classes of habitual crime the police live upon them, levying upon the keepers of gambling-shops, "panel-houses," and "fences" a regular tribute, in consideration of which these are allowed to carry on their business, and entitled to receive notice of any intended descents ordered by the city authorities. How much of this story is true and how much an exaggeration we do not pretend to say, but it is not on its face improbable, and the results of investigations into police forces in other cities than New York have made most people ready to believe a good deal. An investigation into the police of Cincinnati, for instance, was made some years ago which brought to light the most astounding degree of intimacy between the police and the criminal classes—one police officer going so far as to have a regular place of deposit with a receiver of stolen goods, the two being in a kind of partnership. The State-Police scandals in Massachusetts showed a similar condition of affairs, though not so bad. In Brooklyn, when we hear of the policemen whose negligence enabled a burglar to enter a house and nearly murder a man being punished with the remarkable sentence of a three days' stoppage of pay, we cannot help feeling that the presumptions are rather against than in favor of the good administration of any police force.

There are peculiar reasons why the Albany Legislature should undertake this investigation, one being that it is itself the body which is responsible for the actual condition of the police. The Police Commission which has charge of the protection of life and property in this city is the direct product, and one of the most striking products, too, of the peculiar system of government to which this city has for the past generation been subjected. With regard to the other boards, such as that which has charge of the public works, or the parks, or the docks, there might be some pretence that their administration by a legislative commission was merely a matter of convenience and effectiveness; but this cannot be said of the Police Commission, because it is not merely a board charged with the duty of protecting life and property, but is also a political body as well, the control of which may in a critical time determine the fate of the Republican or the Democratic party. Through the Commissioners' hands all the votes cast in the city pass, and on their efficiency and integrity depends the fairness of an election. It is unnecessary to say that this is an un-American and extraordinary power to put in the hands of the police; that it makes of every man in the force a politician; that it makes his term of office dependent on political influences; that it makes it for the interest of each party as it comes into power to "rotate" the old Commissioners out of office—not necessarily because it wants to commit frauds, but in great measure because no politicians of common sense, who could in any way prevent it, would trust such machinery out of their own keeping. Nominally, the system has now been changed, and, under the present charter, the city government is to have control of its own commissions, but the cause of this is the fact that the same party happens to be in control at once of the administrative machinery in this city and at Albany. Were the Republicans to come into power in the State next year, they might be relied upon to make it "warm" for Democratic Commissioners. It does not require much imagination, for example, to foresee the terrible fury of the attack which would be made on such a Commissioner as Fitz John Porter.

The recent history of the Board which is charged with the duty of protecting life and property most of us have forgotten, but it is worth recalling. When the Reform party got control of the city by the election of Havemeyer three years ago, one of the first acts of the Custom-house politicians—the connection between Federal, State, and municipal politics is worth noticing here—was to prepare a charter for the city and convey it to Albany. Of course, being reformers, the first thing to be done was to remodel the Police Board as it had existed under the Ring, by turning out objectionable characters; one of the worst of these was a man named "Hank" Smith; yet, for reasons which it is not necessary here to go into, but which were solely political, Murphy, Bliss, Gardner, and Davenport decided that it was necessary to retain "Hank" in office, and he was so retained by a special act of the Legislature. The next step was for Mayor Havemeyer to appoint to act with "Hank" Mr. Oliver Charlick and Mr. Hugh Gardner; and Gardner's first official act was to move the appointment as Police Superintendent of a man named Matsell. Matsell had been an officer of police for many years prior to 1857, when the police was a band of roughs, constables, and politicians, and in 1857 supported Fernando Wood in armed resistance to the law. He then retired into private life, and occupied himself with publishing the *Police Gazette*, a paper which probably does more to stimulate the commission of crime of every kind than any single hardened criminal could do by his example in a lifetime, and which ought not to be allowed to be sold in the streets or to pass through the mails. The appointments now being complete, the Board went to work; and so well did they do their work that, before many months had passed, Gardner and Charlick were both indicted for fraudulent election practices, and obliged to resign their offices after conviction by a jury. Matsell, who is now in the Board, becomes President of it, and we find him called in, by the same body that regularly sets in motion the machinery which brings him and his kind to the surface, to aid them in their enquiries into the condition of the machinery for the repression of crime. To make the thing com-

plete, we should not omit to notice that on being summoned he comes in with his counsel, like a shrewd old man as he is, and on the first important enquiry is directed by his counsel not to answer —evidently on the ground that it is he himself who is under investigation, and therefore needs to be guarded against the danger of exposing himself to a criminal prosecution.

No one can expect to have a good police force so long as the administration of it is put in such hands, and the administration of it will certainly be so lodged as long as the connection between politics and the police is kept up. If we were to enquire into the cause of the increase of the number of indictments and convictions alleged to have taken place, we should unquestionably find that whatever there is of it is due to the increased efficiency of the judges and district-attorneys, brought about by the fact that the effect of the reform movement was to break up, in a measure, the connection between them and politics, while their professional dignity and social importance have been increased by a more secure tenure of office or increased salaries. If we had attempted to reform the Bench by "rotating" Barnard and Cardozo out, and rotating in their doubles, by means of special acts of the Legislature, we should have done something very like what we do now in attempting to get a good police while we make it a political body and hand it over to the Legislature to "fix." The experiment has been tried pretty thoroughly, not only in this State, but in Massachusetts as well, where the reformers, in their determination to put an end to the liquor-traffic, took a last farewell of all American traditions of civil self-government, and in Massachusetts, of all places in the world, introduced what was called a State Police—a sort of *gendarmerie* deriving its power from the central authority, but having a jurisdiction over the entire State, and in the execution of its peculiar duties of preventing the sale of liquor entirely superseding the local constabulary. What was the result? Nothing but corruption or charges of corruption on every side, while the sale of liquor went on very much as before. The experiment confessedly failed, as it ought to have failed. In New York, the Legislature have never gone so far in a centralizing direction as they have in Massachusetts, but have contented themselves with undertaking the management of the internal affairs of a single city. We have seen the result in the recent history of the Police Commission. We trust the Legislative Committee will not overlook this branch of the subject, for it concerns the body which they represent quite as deeply as it does the inhabitants of New York; and we may add that, unless they look into it, their investigation will be quite futile.

## THE DIPLOMATIC SITUATION IN EUROPE.

PARIS, June 4.

THE Government of the 24th of May was very severe towards the foreign press; a Vienna paper, the most important organ of Austrian journalism, the *Neue Freie Presse*, was prohibited in France, probably on account of its extraordinary zeal in behalf of M. Thiers. The Duc Decazes a short time ago put an end to this prohibition, and he has done well to allow the French public to become acquainted with the contents of the *Neue Freie Presse*, at least that part of the French public which understands the German language, and I must confess that it is not very large. It is well known in Vienna that the *Neue Freie Presse* is in constant communication with the Geheimer Rath Aegidi, the director of the press department in the *Kanzlerei* of Prince Bismarck.

It is certainly one of the most remarkable features of the situation that the most literary, the most popular paper of Vienna should be placed under this patronage. I would call attention to an important communication just made to it, which bears the mark of Berlin, though it is dated from Paris (under the date of May 17); it has for its title: "Retrospective View of the Berlin Interview, by a German Diplomat." This article affects the most authoritative tone; it is the work of one who does not conceal that he is behind the scenes, and knows all the secrets of the gods. The key-note of this review is the necessity, the force, and the durability of the Prusso-Russian alliance. This alliance is now more than a century old; it dates as far back as the death of the Empress Elizabeth; it has borne the trial of the greatest misfortunes; it has lasted during the most opposite circumstances, "from Lutzen to Tilsit, from Tilsit to Leipzig and Sedan"; the friendship of Russia and of Prussia has never had any long eclipse, while the quarrels of France and of Austria have been periodical. The personal relations of the two Emperors, William and Alexander—the latter represented as a "soft (*weiche*), amiable, and unprejudiced nature"—have in themselves something almost romantic. The nephew looks with pride on the achievements of his uncle. Between the two Emperors stands Prince Bismarck, who is, says the German diplomat, a *spiritus rector* There is no jealousy in the noble mind of the Emperor of Russia, no more than in the soul of the German Emperor, and both are ready to recognize in Prince Bismarck one of those leading minds who must be obeyed. There is even much personal affection in the sentiment which draws the Emperor Alexander towards Prince Bismark. The geniality, the robust good-nature, the manliness of the German Chancellor have gained his friendship. He knows that Prince Bismarck, strong as he is, will undertake nothing important without securing his good-will. In fact, the Prusso-Russian alliance has become the centre of all European politics.

As for Austria, she is now reconciled with Russia, but this reconciliation has been the work of Prussia, and Bismarck knows that "the new *rapprochement* has not yet borne the proof of fire." He looks upon the great difficulties of the Austrian Empire, and feels, like every impartial observer, that "Austria must renounce all independent initiative in the general affairs of the Continent and follow in all circumstances the new German Empire. The least deviation from this line of conduct, either in political or in religious matters, would alienate Germany and expose Austria to immense dangers." Our wise German diplomat observes like a philosopher of antiquity that true wisdom consists in submitting "to the inevitable, to the reality."

This picture is not much overdrawn as far as Austria is concerned. There are, to be sure, some Archdukes, such as the Archduke Albert, the conquerer of Custozza, and young Archduke Salvator, who think of a revenge of Sadowa, but the Austrian people bear no ill-will to Germany. Austria did not lose a province, not even a village, in the war of 1866. Public opinion in Vienna and in Pesth is completely engrossed with the financial question; the great *Krach* of two years ago is still the only subject of conversation. The Austrian people was somewhat of a novice in speculation; trade does not revive; the depression is extraordinary. For such places as London and New York the effects of a crisis are not permanent, but the Austrian financiers have been completely demoralized. Society has suffered much in Vienna from the effects of the *Krach*, and many people have been ruined. The Austrian state finances have always been in a miserable state; but Hungary, who wished after Sadowa to play the part of a great power, has now learned at her expense that it is a very costly pleasure. The deficit of the Hungarian budget is enormous, and Hungary has entered the great road which is marked by less and less remunerative loans.

The financial situation of Austria is pressing very heavily on her; it is not so in England; but all the wealth of Great Britain produces no effect on our German diplomat: he has discovered that in this nation "the flat Celtic element is getting more and more the best of the old, energetic Anglo-Saxon element." If Goldwin Smith heard this, what would he say? England becoming Celtic! England is described as now humbly paying court to the German Emperor in order to secure his mediation or his help in case of a conflict with Russia in Central Asia.

At the time when our German diplomat expressed so much contempt for Russia, England had not yet given any signs of a new policy. We have been led now to believe that she assumed at Berlin a new attitude, and Lord Derby's answer to Lord Russell in the House of Lords gives indications of a little more spirit than was expected from England. The *Times* has written some leaders in the old, proud style. It is quite evident that English pride suffers at the idea that her Continental influence is not felt as it used to be. But she did not take this new attitude without ample precautions. When Count Shuvaloff returned to London from St. Petersburg, he passed through Berlin, and he told Prince Bismarck that the Czar would have no unprovoked war between Germany and France. The conversation was long and stormy, and Count Shuvaloff was not, it seems, perfectly reassured by it, for as soon as he arrived in London he invited Lord Derby to send a pacific note to Berlin at the time of the arrival of the Czar. Prince Bismarck knew at once that Count Shuvaloff's hand was behind Lord Derby's writing, and he was so angry that he did not go to the railway station to meet the Emperor Alexander on his arrival, though his health had allowed him to go the day before to see his own Emperor. Alexander is generous, and not only did he pardon this fault of etiquette, he called on

Prince Bismarck a few hours after his arrival, and they had a long conversation, which was the true "interview of Berlin."

The German diplomat tries to unravel the mystery of this interview. What we all know is that peace was decided for the season. Prince Bismarck, feeling that war was impossible, said that he had never entertained the notion of it—that all this wild talk about war was the work of the newspapers. This was simply making a virtue of necessity. Whatever Prince Bismarck may aim at in the large field of European politics, he will never proceed without securing the neutrality of Russia. This neutrality is the key-note of his policy, the one thing which gives him constant preoccupation. He has shown little respect for the powers of the old Continent. Russia alone has always been the object of his solicitude. His Borussian blood may draw him towards the great power of the North; perhaps he feels that Russia is the great danger of the new united Germany, and that the danger ought to be averted as long as possible.

Prince Gortchakoff, the Russian Chancellor, likes to be considered as a rival of Prince Bismarck; he reached power as the representative of purely Russian ideas—almost as the enemy of Germany. Bismarck knows that Prince Gortchakoff would be very happy and very proud to outwit him. The Russian Chancellor preserves all the old traditions of diplomacy; he writes his despatches in French, and may be justly proud of the great purity of his style. Some of his despatches have become quite famous, as well as some of his sentences. I will only cite the despatch which he wrote to ask for the revision of the Treaty of Paris, made after the Crimean war. The professional jealousy of the two Chancellors has often been a difficulty for Prince Bismarck, but he has always contrived to use his Emperor as a *Deus ex machinâ*. Whenever a difficulty was created by Prince Gortchakoff, it was solved at Ems or at some other watering-place. In fact, Prince Gortchakoff, who had entered the lists as a *Slavophile*, had to become the witness and sometimes the tool of Germany; he allowed Bismarck to move quite freely in the labyrinth of the Schleswig-Holstein question; he could do nothing to hinder Sadowa; he saw the re-establishment of the new German Empire.

The German Chancellor worked while the Russian Chancellor wrote, or made delicate allusions, or said *bons-mots* in his conversation. Prince Gortchakoff could not well undo now what his adversary has done; but he is probably at the bottom of this new *rapprochement* between England and Russia which has been made manifest by the recent speech of Lord Derby, and which at once inspired the English press with a degree of confidence which it had not shown for a very long time.

I could add further details: not only has the Russian Chancellor invited his sovereign to draw a little nearer England, some advances have also been made to Austria. A military attaché who enjoys the personal friendship of the Czar was despatched after the Berlin interview to Vienna, and saw the Emperor of Austria. Some advice was given about the attitude of Archduke Albert, the conqueror of Custozza, who talks too openly and too freely about Prince Bismarck and the Prussians; about Archduke Salvator, who wrote a military pamphlet which did not please the Prussian staff: this young archduke is now in apparent disgrace, and has been travelling in France. Great prudence was recommended to Austria; at the same time, this recommendation was the mark of a real interest, and assurances of this interest were tendered in the most distinct manner.

The alliance of Russia and Prussia, which has been since the Crimean war the centre round which Prince Bismarck formed all his plans, is not yet on the point of being dissolved, but it is gradually losing its force. Bismarck felt that Russia had been injured by Europe, harshly treated, outlawed. He knew that Russia would think of nothing but the preservation of her Polish provinces and the revision of the Treaty of Paris. He steadily kept this in view, and if you study by the light of this single idea the history of the Polish insurrection, of the Danish war, of the war with Austria, of the war with France, you will, I believe, hold the thread of German diplomacy. The situation is now different. Russia is no longer a sort of outlaw in Europe; she is perfectly secure; she has revised the Treaty of Paris, and herself dictated the terms on which she would have the revision made. She is courted not only by Germany, but by all the powers of the Continent. A Russian princess of great intelligence, the favorite of her father, has entered the English royal family. Russia can choose her friends; and she may find that Germany has perhaps become too dangerous a neighbor. The moderation and the personal feelings of the Russian Czar will in all probability keep things as they are, and peace is not likely to be broken for a while. Yet, it is well to study the new directions of the great political forces. Germany has abused her victory; she has done what Napoleon the First did in his time; and the whole world is silently protesting against the despotic temper of the new masters of Europe.

# Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press, by arrangement with the English publishers, 'The Abode of Snow,' a record of travel in Thibet and Upper Tartary, from *Blackwood*. They will also publish, when prepared, a 'History of Transcendentalism in New England,' on which the Rev. O B. Frothingham is engaged.——The Boston *Medical and Surgical Journal* (Hurd & Houghton) for June 17 is a noticeable number. It contains a sonnet to Joseph Warren, by Dr. Holmes; a description of Warren's day-book; an account of the identification of his body on the battle-field by Dr. John Jeffries (contributed by the latter's son); an excellent engraving of his portrait by Copley; and papers on the sick and wounded at Bunker Hill, the medical profession in Massachusetts during the Revolution, by Dr. Geo. B. Loring, the diseases of America (by a Hessian surgeon), etc., etc.——A correspondent writes us: "Brachet's little French Grammar, mentioned in your issue of June 10, is inaccurate on many points, and any one who intends to use it should first take his pencil and correct its mistakes by means of the detailed review in the *Revue Critique d'Histoire et de Littérature* for December 19, 1874."——The prospectus of a new French quarterly has been handed us, to appear January 1, 1876, under the title of the *Revue Historique*. The conductors of it are to be MM. Gabriel Monod and Gustave Fagniez, and the catholicity of their management is inferrible from the fact that their staff of contributors embraces men of such opposite theological opinions as Tamizey de Larroque, Littré, and Renan. Other well-known writers engaged for the *Revue* are Fustel de Coulanges, Paul Meyer, Gaston Paris, Taine, etc., etc. Two features of this publication which deserve special mention are an historical bulletin of new books, discoveries of MSS., proceedings of learned societies, etc.; and an analysis of French and foreign periodicals. The attention of the *Revue* will be chiefly confined to the history of Europe during the period from the death of Theodosius (A.D. 395) to the downfall of Bonaparte (1815). F. W. Christern is the American agent.

—In the death of Samuel Gardner Drake at Boston, on the 14th inst., the students of American history have lost a writer who has contributed largely to their instruction. Mr. Drake was born at Pittsfield, N. H., in 1798, and when thirty years old removed to Boston, where for a great many years he continued in business as a bookseller. During that period he not only sold old and curious books, but he collected and studied them, and published many interesting and valuable works. His two hobbies were genealogy and the history of the Indians of New England. In relation to the latter subject, he published 'The Book of the Indians,' 'Indian Captivities,' 'Indian Biography,' 'The Old Indian Chronicle,' and also most carefully edited editions of Church's 'King Philip's War,' Mather's 'Relation of the Wars with the Indians,' and Hubbard's 'Indian Wars.' He also edited Mather's 'Wonders of the Invisible World' and Calef's 'More Wonders,' besides publishing 'Annals of Witchcraft in the U. S.' In 1870, he issued a 'History of the Five Years' French and Indian War.' Mr. Drake was also the author of the best history of Boston yet produced; and he made great collections for his work. It was not, however, a success either financially or as a local chronicle. Projected on too large a scale, it might better be termed a history of Massachusetts from a Bostonian point of view. Still, it contains a great deal of local history not elsewhere to be found, and possesses a solid value as a contribution to the history of the times. Some three years ago, the city voted a subscription of $5,000 towards the completion of the work, but the infirmities of age compelled the author to decline the tardy recognition of his services. It was as a genealogist, however, that Mr. Drake gained his most enduring fame. He was the real founder of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society, for he established and conducted its quarterly magazine—the *Register*, and thereby placed the association on the high road to success. For many years he edited the magazine, and though he wrote few elaborate genealogies, he revised and amended many, and he most cheerfully gave from the stores of his knowledge to all enquirers. To the disinterested enthusiasm of such men as Drake, and the still living Joel Munsell, of Albany, and John Ward Dean, of Boston, the credit is due of having kept alive the spirit of enquiry, or rather of having planted and protected the little twig which has now grown to be a vigorous tree. Mr. Drake's principal publication in this branch was entitled 'Result of Researches among the British Archives,' giving all of the information, as we pointed out a few months ago, to be found in Hotten's more pretentious volume, recently issued. As a collector of rare books, Mr. Drake was indefatigable. His first collection was sold, we believe, to Mr. George Brinley, of Hartford, a

second mainly to the British Museum, and a third w a in his t the time of his death. He was the recipient of many honors from learned societies, but at home certain unfortunate asperities in literary discussions prevented perhaps an adequate reward. He was enthusiastic in defence of his own beliefs in historical matters, and an unnecessary sharpness of language aroused enmities which now seem strange and senseless. Still, no man asked less of the public than he did, and the sum of his long labors is enough to keep his memory green for many years.

—It is announced that a Philadelphia inventor has discovered a new mechanical force, which, named for its discoverer, is called the "Keeley Motor." An instrument of moderate dimensions, called a "multiplicator," is fed with a small quantity of water, and from this water and the air there is developed a force of wonderful power, whose nature would seem to resemble the expansive power exerted by a condensed gas, and whose energy is measured by tons per square inch. If one-tenth of what is claimed for this motor be true, we are on the brink of a revolution equal to that which was brought about by the introduction of the steam-engine. Steam and water-power will become valueless, coal will be in demand only for domestic and metallurgical purposes ; and waterfalls will be left in their native wildness, where the lover of nature can enjoy their beauty unscarred by the workshops of men. It is not yet time to pass on the merit of this invention, the sight of which has as yet been accorded only to a privileged few ; but there is one thing which we may be certain of—it does not develop a remarkable mechanical energy without the expenditure of an equivalent amount of fuel of some kind, and the success or failure of the motor, assuming it to be an honest invention, will depend upon the cheapness of this fuel. The conservation of forces is as much a physical fact as the inertia of matter ; neither force nor matter can be created or destroyed—the most that can be done is to make an exchange of equivalents. The fuel consumed chemically in cells of the battery is as essential to the telegraph or the electric engine as is the fuel consumed by the fire in a locomotive fire-box ; and, in the same way, the "Keeley Motor" is either an ingenious mechanical fraud, or a device by which some new method of consuming fuel is applied to produce mechanical results.

—Two noticeable articles in *Harper's* this month are "A Glance at the Island of Lewis," with sketches taken on the spot, by Mr. William Black ; and one on "Caricatures of the Revolutionary Period," by James Parton. The latter reproduces some of the caricatures of Gilray, so many of which are just as good, or at any rate just as amusing, as they were a hundred years ago. In the other, Mr. Black, who seems as clever with his pencil as he is with his pen, takes us over a good deal of the ground with which the readers of the 'Princess of Thule' are already familiar, and gives a more detailed account of the lives and manners of the inhabitants of "The Lewis," the stalwart islanders, the "remarkably robust" young women with their picturesque costumes, the thriving port of Stornoway, the dull, desolate interior of the island, the half-Esquimaux bee-hive huts, without chimneys, but with their roofs of straw covered with turf, and, inside, the peat-fire saturating with its pungent smoke this straw, which is afterwards pitchforked off and distributed over the fields for manure—the value of the manure really standing in the way of a thorough-going chimney-reform in the interior of the island, where other manure is difficult to get. The songs of the Hebrides are plaintive, generally turning on the love of a young maiden who is deserted, or in some other way loses her lover ; and as the only native instrument permitted on the island is the jews-harp (the bagpipes having been tabooed by the Free Kirk) it may be imagined that the dance music cannot, as Mr. Black says, have "too much madness" in it. Those who are fond of tracing the genesis of pleasing fictions may be interested in a sentence which Mr. Black throws out with much apparent ingenuousness, as if he rather hoped the hint would be acted on by some new writer : "Here on the right lies the great island of Bernera, presided over by a worthy farmer and fisherman, who is called its King. Might not one by accident shorten Bernera into Borva, and begin to wonder whether, supposing the King of Borva has a daughter, she is as beautiful as the beautiful scenery in which she dwells ?"

—Mr. W. C. Brownell, a writer with whose name we are not familiar, though from the way in which he handles a pen we should be inclined to think him no tyro, contributes to the *Galaxy* for July an entertaining article on "English Lecturers in America." Going back to the lecturing days of Dickens, who may be said to have set the fashion in this matter, Mr. Brownell says very justly that since his time a notion seems to have prevailed among the literary class in England that America is the Atlantis of lecturers, where the third-rate littérateur may refurbish his reputation, better his social standing, and replenish his pocket. Going over the long list, however, of those who have come over to try their fortunes, including as it does Dickens, Thackeray, Edmund Yates, George Macdonald, Froude, Charles Kingsley, Mr. Edward Jenkins, Mr. Gerald Massey, Mr. Wilkie Collins, Mr. Charles Bradlaugh, a certain Dr. Porteous, of whose visit we must confess ourselves hitherto ignorant, and Mr. Proctor and Mr. Tyndall, Mr. Brownell shows very conclusively that many of these made a great mistake in coming at all, and that of the whole list only those succeeded who had really something to say or do (for it requires some latitude of expression to bring all these gentlemen in as "lecturers") in public which they knew how to say or do. For example, to hear or see Tyndall was a real pleasure and excitement even to an audience absolutely guiltless of scientific knowledge or capable of forgetting whether water was a compound or elementary substance ; but to hear many another of this throng of lecturers gave us no food for thought, and neither made us laugh nor weep, but only put us into the frame of mind in which the waiter to whom was pointed out the "great Thacker" must have been when he asked, "And what did *he* do ?" So, to look at the matter from another point of view, there was no particular reason to suppose that because the public had enjoyed reading the 'Moonstone' they would hunger and thirst for readings from it or other stories by the same author ; nor because they had read Froude's histories, and wondered whether they were true, that they should particularly care about the controversy raging between the historian and Father Tom Burke. Of course, what some of these gentlemen counted on when they came over here was the curiosity of the public about their personal appearance, for it seems that as long ago as Thackeray's ventures in lecturing he was aware of the possibility of a *succès de curiosité*, and plaintively observed to a friend of Carlyle that "*he* would not go around the country exhibiting himself for so much a night as I am doing" ; but they seem to have forgotten the important fact that the enormous increase of great men in these latter days has really created a glut in the market, and that the jaded curiosity of the public on the subject requires much stimulation. Great men for the last generation have multiplied so fast, and the agencies for manufacturing them have become so widespread, that lecture-goers have become satiated. Probably the best way that a man of real eminence could now find for making a genuine sensation out of his appearance would be to bruit it abroad in every direction that he never either read, lectured, or appeared in public. By this simple device we have no doubt that in a few years he would have the whole civilized world at his feet, begging him to come out and just let it "have one look." The general conclusion to which Mr. Brownell arrives is that the public in America is much like other publics, and that what it likes it is willing to pay for, and what it dislikes it cannot be persuaded into paying for. Minor celebrities abroad should reflect that there are a great many European reputations which are insufficient for a lyceum outfit on this side, just as there are many eminent Americans who would find themselves in like case in Europe.

—We summarize from an article in the *Pall Mall Gazette* certain particulars concerning the fair of Nizhni-Novgorod. In European Russia, there are at least 6,500 fairs, and new ones are constantly springing up. Since the emancipation of the serfs the demand for articles of luxury at these places of popular resort has been steadily increasing. The Nizhni fair surpasses all others in the numbers that attend it and the extent of its transactions: merchandise to the value of $300,000,000 is stated to be annually warehoused for it in the Russian Empire. This fair is in fact probably the largest and most important fair in the world, due mainly to the circumstances of its favorable situation at a point where the Oka flows into the Volga, thus connecting the industrial provinces of Central Russia with the Baltic, Western Europe, and Central Asia. The Kama, a tributary of the Volga, also connects Nizhni with the most remote Northern districts, the Ural, and Siberia. Cotton fabrics are the goods most dealt in. Since our civil war Asiatic cotton has been a staple at the fair, the nomadic tribes having commenced buying the calicoes expressly manufactured for them, in large patterns and glaring colors, in Russian factories. The woollen trade is here but of subordinate importance. Russian silks are offered at reasonable rates, owing to foreign competition ; raw silk, however, only comes to the fair in small quantities, the great bulk being forwarded direct to Moscow. Furs prepared for use are in constant acceptance. Moscow and Siberian merchants bring sables from the Yakutsk territory, and squirrel fur from the shores of the Obi, Yenisei, and Lena, and the north-west of European Russia ; Polish Jews coming to Nizhni to exchange beaver, river-otter, and musk-rat skins for squirrel skins. Dressed skins of hare, cat, fox, marten, squirrel, and lamb are in the market. Dyed cat-skins are sent in large quantities to China, but the export of other furs to that country has greatly diminished. Goat-skins come

from the Armenians of Nakhitchevan, and undressed leather, principally from Samara, Siberia, Perm, and Kazan, while Kostroma, Vladimir, and Nizhni furnish the fair with cheap shoes, the demand for which has greatly increased since the emancipation. Foreign iron is unable to compete at Nizhni with that of home manufacture, and only finds its way there in the form of nails. One-third or one-half of the value of the iron disposed of is paid for in cash, the remainder standing over until the following fair. Wooden trunks are sold in immense numbers to Asiatic dealers, at prices varying from four to seventy-five roubles. The Moscow money-boxes sent to the fair have locks containing a multiplicity of springs, which give forth musical sounds whenever they are opened.

—The business in corn has grown rapidly since the opening of the railway from Moscow: St. Petersburg can now be more readily satisfied. The last week in August, bringing news of the general harvest, is the most important to the trade; while the fair is being held the grain is stored in boats in the large corn dock on the right bank of the Volga. Astrakhan sends the whole of its train-oil and from fifteen to twenty thousand puds of caviare to Nizhni. Among liquors the greatest sale is of new wine, known as "tchikhir," coming principally from Kisliar. It soon spoils, and has generally to be purified with charcoal; wines of Russian growth are sold under foreign names. Grape brandy abounds since the remission of the duty. St. Petersburg sends sugar, which costs a rouble the pud more than that from Moscow; the Ukraine sugar is the cheapest. The demand for tobacco increases, but only the better kinds are dealt in. Drugs worth five millions of roubles are annually brought to Nizhni. Among the remaining commodities colonial produce occupies the next place, then come articles of dress, cosmetics, watches, china, glass, and earthenware. Tea, which used to be the most important article of all, still meets with a large sale. The chests on their arrival are piled up on the banks of the Siberian dock, and covered with bast matting. The entire stock never reaches Nizhni at the same time, a large proportion being frequently delayed until within a few days of the closing of the fair. The Russian tea trade is extremely complicated; tea is brought in the first instance to Kiakhta by Chinese merchants, who exchange it for Russian goods; the buyers sell it to merchants in Moscow, Irbit, and Nizhni, and these again dispose of it to traders who visit Nizhni, purchasing hundreds of chests at a time; there are, moreover, commission agents and middlemen, the latter of whom convey the tea from Kiakhta to Nizhni. As every one engaged in the trade levies his percentage, the tea is very dear by the time it reaches the consumer. Dealings are based exclusively on the invoices, which give so correct an account of the weight, class, and quality that the purchaser never thinks of having a chest opened; recently, Canton tea has begun to compete with that from Kiakhta. The transactions in commodities of all descriptions at the Nizhni fair ordinarily amount to about 125,000,000 of roubles, or about 90,000,000 dollars. The fair is held from the 25th of July to the 25th of August.

—A very curious literary fraud (as it really seems no more than just to call it) has lately been perpetrated by Captain J. A. Lawson, author of 'Wanderings in the Interior of New Guinea.' We read his book shortly after its appearance, and found it a remarkably entertaining record of travel. There was a certain vagueness about some of the author's statements, and many of his stories bordered closely upon the marvellous; but his manner of narration seemed most plausible, he gave, first and last, a good deal of detail, his work was published by a most respectable house (Messrs. Chapman & Hall), and, above all, the things he had seen and done were so curious that, if they were not true, the more was the pity. New Guinea (or at least its innermost recesses) has remained, in spite of the actual mania for exploration, very much of a *terra incognita*, and the author had, we confess, a capital accomplice in the vagueness of our own information, as also in that of most other readers. We say accomplice advisedly, for it now appears that Captain Lawson is an inordinate romancer—a Baron Münchausen who never so much as winks at you, to save his conscience. His volume has been attacked by several specialists—travellers, mountaineers, and naturalists, with the London *Athenæum* for their mouthpiece—all clamoring for proof of his extraordinary assertions. These have been so riddled by criticism that it is hard to see what remains as pure fact. We suppose it is a fact that Captain Lawson did repair, in the spring of 1872, from Sidney in New South Wales to the New Guinea coast (although even this fundamental statement has been seriously impugned), and that at Houtree, in the latter region, he did engage four servants and parties to accompany him into the interior. His own story is that, with three companions and a moderate amount of baggage, he dived into the unknown, and in the month of February following reappeared at his starting-point, exhausted, despoiled of his luggage, and with but two companions surviving. In the interval, he had apparently faced every peril that can beset a traveller in a country where men and beasts are equally objects to be avoided, and he had finally escaped only with his life from a terrific combat with the diabolical Papuans. We cannot enumerate the remarkable phenomena that came under his observation, but we must mention his great achievement—his discovery, namely, of the highest mountain in the world. Captain Lawson and his Papuan servant walked one autumn day up Mount Hercules—not indeed to the summit, which he sets down as 32,783 feet high, but to an altitude of 25,314 feet, where their physical sensations prohibited further advance. If Captain Lawson's story about Mount Hercules is true, it involves one of the most momentous geographical discoveries of our day, and one of the most extraordinary physical feats; if it is largely intermingled with fiction, it is of course a proportionately audacious imposture. The story has apparently created a breeze in the Alpine Club, whose members are naturally desirous to make the acquaintance of a mountain more than twice the size of Mont Blanc, and yet assailable without ropes, ice-axes, hobnailed boots, guides, or any of the usual Alpine accessories. Captain Lawson is apparently keeping quiet, either because his case is hopelessly bad, or because he desires to annihilate all his critics at a single stroke. The principal fact in his favor is that it is inconceivable a man should pull so long a bow in the face of almost immediate and certain discovery. Unless he makes a very telling rejoinder, we shall be obliged to class his book, in virtue of the quite heroic scale of its fabrications, with the first-class curiosities of literature. But even if it is demolished as a record of fact, it may have a certain fortune as a competitor of Münchausen and Poe's 'Arthur Gordon Pym'; though this would be doubtless, morally speaking, a better fortune than it deserves.

—The most popular of living Italian poets is perhaps Giosuè Carducci, better known by his pen-name of Enotrio Romano, who is pronounced by competent authority the best lyrical poet of Italy. Carducci is, however, no less renowned as an orator and scholar, and is a professor in the University at Pisa. His oration at Arquà on the occasion of the Petrarch festival we have already noticed. He has, moreover, found time to edit most admirably many of the Italian classics, and has been an industrious writer for various periodicals. Some of the more valuable of these contributions have been lately collected, and published under the title 'Studi Letterari' (Leghorn, 1874). The volume contains articles on the development of the national literature, Dante's minor poems, Dante's various fortune, and music and poetry among the cultivated world in Italy during the XIVth century. The first and longest article gives a history of the literature of the *cinquecento*, and is a fine specimen of the fruits of the new method in literary history. Other articles are also excellent, and will be welcomed by all students of early Italian literature.

## JAMES'S TALES AND SKETCHES.*

WHOEVER takes an interest, whether of mere curiosity or of critical foreboding, in the product and tendency of our younger literature, must have had his attention awakened and detained by the writings of Mr. James. Whatever else they may be, they are not common, and have that air of good breeding which is the token of whatever is properly called literature. They are not the overflow of a shallow talent for improvisation too full of self to be contained, but show everywhere the marks of intelligent purpose and of the graceful ease that comes only of conscientious training. Undoubtedly there was a large capital of native endowment to start from—a mind of singular subtlety and refinement; a faculty of rapid observation, yet patient of rectifying afterthought; senses daintily alive to every æsthetic suggestion; and a frank enthusiasm, kept within due bounds by the double-consciousness of humor. But it is plain that Mr. James is fortunate enough to possess, or to be possessed by, that finer sixth sense which we call the artistic, and which controls, corrects, and discontents. His felicities, therefore, are not due to a lucky turn of the dice, but to forethought and afterthought. Accordingly, he is capable of progress, and gives renewed evidence of it from time to time, while too many of our authors show premature marks of arrested development. They strike a happy vein at starting, perhaps, and keep on grubbing at it, with the rude helps of primitive mining, seemingly unaware that it is daily growing more and more slender. Even should it wholly vanish, they persist in the vain hope of recovering it further on, as if in literature two successes of precisely the same kind were possible. Nay, most of them have hit upon no vein at all, but picked up a nugget rather, and persevere in raking the surface of things, if haply they may

* 'A Passionate Pilgrim, and Other Tales. By Henry James, jr.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
'Transatlantic Sketches.' By the same author.

chance upon another. The moral of one of Hawthorne's stories is that there is no element of treasure-trove in success, but that true luck lies in the deep and assiduous cultivation of our own plot of ground, be it larger or smaller. For indeed the only estate of man that savors of the realty is in his mind. Mr James seems to have arrived early at an understanding of this, and to have profited by the best modern appliances of self-culture. In conception and expression he is essentially an artist and not an irresponsible *trouvère*. If he allow himself an occasional carelessness, it is not from incaution, but because he knows perfectly well what he is about. He is quite at home in the usages of the best literary society. In his writing there is none of that hit-or-miss playing at snap-dragon with language, of that clownish bearing-on in what should be the light strokes, as if mere emphasis were meaning, and naturally none of the slovenliness that offends a trained judgment in the work of so many of our later writers, unmistakably clever as they are. In short, he has *tone*, the last result and surest evidence of an intellect reclaimed from the rudeness of nature, for it means self-restraint. The story of Handel's composing always in full dress conveys at least the useful lesson of a gentlemanlike deference for the art a man professes and for the public whose attention he claims. Mr. James, as we see in his sketches of travel, is not averse to the lounging ease of a shooting-jacket, but he respects the usages of convention, and at the canonical hours is sure to be found in the required toilet. He does not expect the company to pardon his own indolence as one of the necessary appendages of originality. Always considerate himself, his readers soon find reason to treat him with considération. For they soon come to see that literature may be light and at the same time thoughtful; that lightness, indeed, results much more surely from serious study than from the neglect of it.

We have said that Mr. James was emphatically a man of culture, and we are old-fashioned enough to look upon him with the more interest as a specimen of exclusively *modern* culture. Of any classical training we have failed to detect the traces in him. His allusions, his citations, are in the strictest sense contemporary, and indicate, if we may trust our divination, a preference for French models, Balzac, De Musset, Feuillet, Taine, Gautier, Mérimée, Sainte-Beuve, especially the three latter. He emulates successfully their suavity, their urbanity, their clever knack of conveying a fuller meaning by innuendo than by direct bluntness of statement. If not the best school for substance, it is an admirable one for method, and for so much of style as is attainable by example. It is the same school in which the writers of what used to be called our classical period learned the superior efficacy of the French small-sword as compared with the English cudgel, and Mr. James shows the graceful suppleness of that excellent academy of fence in which a man distinguishes by effacing himself. He has the dexterous art of letting us feel the point of his individuality without making us obtrusively aware of his presence. We arrive at an intimate knowledge of his character by confidences that escape egotism by seeming to be made always in the interest of the reader. That we know all his tastes and prejudices appears rather a compliment to our penetration than a proof of indiscreetness on his part. If we were disposed to find any fault with Mr. James's style, which is generally of conspicuous elegance, it would be for his occasional choice of a French word or phrase (like *bouder, se reconnaît, banal*, and the like) where our English, without being driven to search her coffers round, would furnish one quite as good and surer of coming home to the ordinary reader. We could grow as near surly with him as would be possible for us with a writer who so generally endears himself to our taste, when he foists upon us a disagreeable alien like *abandon* (used as a noun), as if it could show an honest baptismal certificate in the registers of Johnson or Webster. Perhaps Mr. James finds, or fancies, in such words a significance that escapes our obtuser sense, a sweetness, it may be, of early association, for he tells us somewhere that in his boyhood he was put to school in Geneva. In this way only can we account for his once slipping into the rusticism that "remembers of" a thing.

But beyond any advantage which he may have derived from an intelligent study of French models, it is plain that a much larger share of Mr. James's education has been acquired by travel and through the eyes of a thoughtful observer of men and things. He has seen more cities and manners of men than was possible in the slower days of Ulysses, and if with less gain of worldly wisdom, yet with an enlargement of his artistic apprehensiveness and scope that is of far greater value to him. We do not mean to imply that Mr. James lacks what is called knowledge of the world. On the contrary, he has a great deal of it, but it has not in him degenerated into worldliness, and a mellowing haze of imagination ransoms the edges of things from the hardness of over-near familiarity. He shows on analysis that rare combination of qualities which results in a man of the world, whose contact with it kindles instead of dampening the ardor of his fancy. He is thus excellently fitted for the line he has chosen as a story-teller who deals mainly with problems of character and psychology which spring out of the artificial complexities of society, and as a translator of the impressions received from nature and art into language that often lacks only verse to make it poetry. Mr. James does not see things with his eyes alone. His vision is always modified by his imaginative temperament. He is the last man we should consult for statistics, but his sketches give us the very marrow of sensitive impression, and are positively better than the actual pilgrimage. We are tolerably familiar with the scenes he describes, but hardly knew before how much we had to be grateful for. *Et ego in Arcadia*, we murmur to ourselves as we read, but surely this was not the name we found in our guide-book. It is always *Dichtung und Wahrheit* (Goethe knew very well what he was about when he gave precedence to the giddier sister)—it is always fact seen through imagination and transfigured by it. A single example will best show what we mean. "It is partly, doubtless, because their mighty outlines are still unsoftened that the aqueducts are so impressive. *They seem the very source of the solitude in which they stand;* they look like architectural spectres, and loom through the light mists of their grassy desert, as you recede along the line, with the same insubstantial vastness as if they rose out of Egyptian sands." Such happy touches are frequent in Mr. James's pages, like flecks of sunshine that steal softened through every chance crevice in the leaves, as where he calls the lark a "disembodied voice," or says of an English country-church that "it made a Sunday where it stood." A light-fingered poet would find many a temptation in his prose. But it is not merely our fancies that are pleased. Mr. James tempts us into many byways of serious and fruitful thought. Especially valuable and helpful have we found his *obiter dicta* on the arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture; for example, when he says of the Tuscan palaces that "in their large dependence on pure symmetry for beauty of effect, [they] reproduce more than other modern styles the simple nobleness of Greek architecture." And we would note also what he says of the Albani Antinoüs. It must be a nimble wit that can keep pace with Mr. James's logic in his æsthetic criticism. It is apt to spring airily over the middle term to the conclusion, leaving something in the likeness of a ditch across the path of our slower intelligences, which look about them and think twice before taking the leap. Courage! there are always fresh woods and pastures new on the other side. A curious reflection has more than once flashed upon our minds as we lingered with Mr. James over his complex and refined sensations: we mean the very striking contrast between the ancient and modern traveller. The former saw with his bodily eyes, and reported accordingly, catering for the curiosity of homely wits as to the outsides and appearances of things. Even Montaigne, habitually introspective as he was, sticks to the old method in his travels. The modern traveller, on the other hand, superseded by the guide-book, travels in himself, and records for us the scenery of his own mind as it is affected by change of sky and the various weather of temperament.

Mr. James, in his sketches, frankly acknowledges his preference of the Old World. Life—which here seems all drab to him, without due lights and shades of social contrast, without that indefinable suggestion of immemorial antiquity which has so large a share in picturesque impression—is there a dome of many-colored glass irradiating both senses and imagination. We shall not blame him too gravely for this, as if an American had not as good a right as any ancient of them all to say, *Ubi libertas, ibi patria*. It is no real paradox to affirm that a man's love of his country may often be gauged by his disgust at it. But we think it might fairly be argued against him that the very absence of that distracting complexity of associations might help to produce that solitude which is the main feeder of imagination. Certainly, Hawthorne, with whom no modern European can be matched for the subtlety and power of this marvellous quality, is a strong case on the American side of the question.

Mr. James's tales, if without any obvious moral, are sure to have a clearly defined artistic purpose. They are careful studies of character thrown into dramatic action, and the undercurrent of motive is, as it should be, not in the circumstances but in the characters themselves. It is by delicate touches and hints that his effects are produced. The reader is called upon to do his share, and will find his reward in it, for Mr. James, as we cannot too often insist, is first and always an artist. Nowhere does he show his fine instinct more to the purpose than in leaving the tragic element of tales (dealing as they do with contemporary life, and that mainly in the drawing-room) to take care of itself, and in confining the outward expression of passion within the limits of a decorous amenity. Those who must have their intellectual gullets tingled with the fiery draught of coarse sensation must go elsewhere for their dram; but whoever is capable of the aroma of the more delicate vintages will find it here. In the volume before us

"Madame de Mauves" will illustrate what we mean. There is no space for detailed analysis, even if that were ever adequate to give the true impression of stories so carefully worked out and depending so much for their effect on a gradual cumulation of particulars each in itself unemphatic. We have said that Mr. James shows promise as well as accomplishment, gaining always in mastery of his material. It is but a natural inference from this that his "Roderick Hudson," now going on in the *Atlantic Monthly*, is the fullest and most finished proof of his power as a story-teller. Indeed, we may say frankly that it pleases us the more because the characters are drawn with a bolder hand and in more determined outline, for if Mr. James need any friendly caution, it is against over-delicacy of handling.

## SARGENT'S POLITICAL REMINISCENCES.*

MR. SARGENT'S book belongs to that useful and popular class of works which consist mainly of personal reminiscences, and which thus rank among the best of historical materials. It is at the same time so arranged and so combined with other materials as to form a pretty complete political history of the period which it embraces, thus justifying its more comprehensive title. We think, however, that most readers will wish that its compass had been a little different. The history of the American Republic before the civil war falls into two distinct epochs, the one ending with John Quincy Adams's Administration, the other with Mr. Buchanan's. The events and the issues of Mr. Monroe's and Mr. Adams's Administrations—except those connected with the alleged Coalition—stand by themselves in Mr. Sargent's narrative, and have for the most part passed out of the thoughts and associations of the present generation. But with General Jackson began a new set of causes and influences, which only reached their full effect in the civil war. It is natural enough that Mr. Sargent should not have been "disposed to enter upon that tempestuous Kansas-Nebraska period." Nevertheless, the unity and completeness of his work demanded it, and it is precisely what his readers would have especially enjoyed. After all, we may be grateful for what we have. The book is very readable, trustworthy so far as we can judge, fair in its tone, well fitted to serve as a political history of the years which it covers.

Absolute impartiality the author disclaims. He was an "Old-Line Whig," and writes always from this point of view. This, of course, we could not wish to have otherwise. The sentiments and prejudices of any period, as they have powerful influence at the time, so form an important element in the historical aspect of that period, and the Whig party was one whose sentiments and prejudices cannot fail to inspire a considerable degree of respect even since its overthrow. It was in a large degree the party of culture and refinement, it embodied the traditions of English and American political life, it opposed as well as it could the vulgar and intolerant partisanship of the dominant party. For there is no question that the Democratic was the dominant party—the party that represented the principles and policy which then actuated the American people.

We have recently read an interesting anecdote in illustration of the historical treatment of Guizot, the constitutionalist, and Michelet, whose principle of working was "to seek life wherever it was to be found." "One day, as M. Monod tells us, Guizot was criticising the exuberance of the poetry of India. Michelet, who was present, burst in with, 'Vous ne pouvez le comprendre, vous avez toujours haï la vie.'" The Whig party, as we have said, embodied the old English traditions—the traditions, that is, of historical liberty—traditions of a great, heroic life of constitutional development; far be it from us to say, of a dead conservatism, but of features of liberty which were essentially conservative. The Democratic party represented, we will not say progress—for it was often disastrously retrogressive—but the *life* of the nation; a young, rude, grasping nation, whose life was coarse, callow, and violent, but still exuberant. Had the Whig party, with its culture and integrity, possessed also courage and clearness of vision, it might have tempered the rank and aggressive temper of the Democratic party, and the two would have united to create a lofty and wholesome national life. It was no doubt because of its possession of this prime quality of courage that the Democratic party was selected as the organ of the slavery propagandism of the day. Mr. Calhoun and the South Carolina school of statesmen had no natural affiliation with a party led by men like Van Buren, Cass, Woodbury, and Buchanan. But they had definite purposes of their own, and shrank from no act and from no consequence. The Democratic party of the North had a sufficient intellectual ground of sympathy in the doctrines of State-rights and Strict Construction: it had, too, abundance of courage, and a strong if not a high ambition; the partnership was effected; and nothing is more striking in Mr. Sargent's pages, as nothing was more astounding at the time, than Mr. Calhoun's deliberately attaching himself to Mr. Van Buren's fortunes at the very moment that they seemed desperate.

The circumstances of the political revolution of 1840 must impress every observer as possessing a strong resemblance to the present political aspect of the times. The Democratic party had been in power for twelve years, doing the work which the community demanded to have done, just as has been the case now under the long régime of the Republican party. It was swept out of power by the indignation of the same community, through a party which represented the conservative element in politics, but which at the same time recognized a higher standard of political integrity—the quality felt to be most needed. At the present day, it is the Republican party that has embodied the life of the nation for now sixteen years, and has by virtue of this maintained its hold of power. But it is the Democratic party that is now the mouthpiece of traditional English liberty, local self-government, freedom from arbitrary arrest and illegal acts of power, maintenance of parliamentary privileges, supremacy of the civil over the military authority. When to this is joined a degree of dishonesty in official circles which reminds one strongly of "Price and Swartwout," one is at no loss to explain the reaction of 1874.

The interest of a book like Mr. Sargent's consists largely in personal anecdotes, of which there are a great many good ones, very well told. This incident in relation to Judge McLean is instructive; he was, it will be remembered, Postmaster-General under Monroe, Adams, and Jackson:

"As Mr. McLean had always refused to make appointments and removals on the ground of party affinities, and had strongly condemned such a practice, the enquiry was naturally made: 'If General Jackson adopts this policy, what will Mr. McLean do? Will he carry it out or refuse?' This question was so often put, and so emphatically answered by his nearest friends in the negative, that the General deemed it proper to come to an understanding with, and sent for, Mr. McLean, to whom he stated that he should adopt the policy of removing from office such persons as had, during the canvass for President, taken an active part in politics, and asked whether he had any objection to this line of action. To this Mr. McLean replied in the negative; 'but,' said he, 'if this rule should be adopted, it will operate as well against *your* friends as those of Mr. Adams, as it must be impartially executed.' To this General Jackson made no reply; but, after walking up and down the room several times, as if cogitating with himself, he said, 'Mr. McLean, will you accept a seat upon the bench of the Supreme Court?' This was answered in the affirmative; and he was in due time nominated" (vol. i., p. 166).

This incident was related to the writer the following day by Gen. Cass. In the second volume we have an account of the efforts made in 1840 to put an end to this mischievous practice. Possibly they might have succeeded but for Mr. Tyler's accession to the Presidency and to the Democratic party.

The style of the book can be seen from the extract just given. It is not free from faults, but, on the whole, it is in good taste, as we might expect from a literary representative of the cultivated and conservative Whig party. Mr. Sargent belongs to a school of newspaper writers who did not think it necessary to express emphasis by picking out striking phrases from the middle of a sentence at due intervals and printing them in small capitals as if they described divisions in the subject. There are two or three instructive points of comparison suggested by this book between the manners and usages of this former generation and the present time. Everybody knows, for instance, what a disgraceful scene was presented at Gen. Jackson's inauguration by the mob, when it took possession—as well literally as metaphorically—of the White House. Here we have certainly improved, even although the etiquette of the White House has been infringed, as, for instance, in respect to the rule (vol. ii., p. 24) "established by Washington, and observed by every President down to Mr. Johnson, of never being the guest of others." Indecent and reckless calumny was certainly never more rank than in those early days of the Republic; no doubt for the reason that politics were more earnest then than now. The Democratic period of 1829 to 1841 was as notorious for dishonesty and maladministration as the recent Republican one; the difference, if any, would seem to be, in fact, that its long continuance and the connivance of almost every Administration have made it harder to rouse the public indignation, and have resulted in an almost listless and despairing acquiescence in corruption.

We will close with an incident which will be remembered by many who have forgotten the name of the person concerned. After Mr. Adams's stroke of paralysis at his house in Quincy, he did not make his appearance in the

* 'Public Men and Events, from the Commencement of Mr. Monroe's Administration in 1817 to the close of Mr. Fillmore's Administration in 1853. By Nathan Sargent, late Commissioner of Customs (formerly known as a political writer under the *nom de plume* of "Oliver Oldschool").' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875. 2 vols. 8vo.

House of Representatives until February 13, 1847. The debate was at once interrupted :

"Mr. Moseley of New York, and Mr. Holmes of South Carolina, advanced to Mr. Adams, and, each taking him by an arm, conducted him to the seat he had for many years occupied, and which had been taken at the opening of the session by Mr. Andrew Johnson, who declared at the time that he took it to surrender it to Mr. Adams if they should again have the pleasure of his presence in that hall. Mr. Johnson now gracefully surrendered it ; members gathered around the venerable man, with congratulations on his return ; and after two or three minutes' pause, much affected by the tender cordiality of his reception by the House, he rose, and, in a feeble voice, briefly tendered his heartfelt thanks" (vol. ii., p. 310).

---

*Personal Reminiscences of Cornelia Knight and Thomas Raikes.* Bric-à-Brac Series. Edited by R. H. Stoddard. (New York : Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875.)—Always premising that we are not fond of books of extracts, which give us a disagreeable sense of being fed with a spoon, we may admit that Mr. Stoddard is doing a tolerably useful work. "Useful," indeed, is perhaps strong language, for Mr. Stoddard's process converts his authors into gossip-mongers pure and simple, and his compilations appeal especially to that class of readers whose first glance in their morning paper is always for the "personal" column. Mr. Stoddard undertakes to furnish them with as much gossip as possible, at the least possible trouble to themselves. He not only does their reading for them, but he does their skipping, or most of it, and saves them all necessity for the exercise of discrimination. It often seems to us, we confess, that the art of reading-made-easy is going a trifle too far. The resolving of literary matter into gelatinous broth, warranted to demand none of the onerous labor of mastication, is a practice which doubtless keeps the literary *cuisine*, as we may say, in a thriving state, but which can hardly fail in the long run to have a relaxing effect on the literary appetite. Triviality is at a premium and gravity is at a discount ; books on serious subjects have to apologize for taking a serious tone, and shrewd publishers are observed to slip in hints that things have been so arranged that such works do not really require the reader to think so very hard as might be feared.

We must not preach a sermon out of season, however, for it is doubtless not an unpardonable desecration to chop up into convenient morsels the voluminous prose of Miss Knight and Mr. Raikes. Miss Knight's 'Memoirs,' published in London some fifteen years ago, have a livelier interest than the Reminiscences of her companion. It is often said that the average bright woman tells a better story and talks to better purpose than the average clever man ; here, perhaps, is an example of it. The strong point with both of these venerable gossips was rather in their remarkable opportunities than in any great natural wit. Miss Knight, indeed, had evidently plenty of good sense, and Mr. Raikes was, we should say, a trifle purblind—witness, for example, the extreme vapidity of his account of the last years of Beau Brummel. But they were both spectators of the social game, not players. Miss Knight's chief title to distinction was her having been for some time lady-companion to the Princess Charlotte, daughter of George IV. and heiress presumptive to the crown. Of this Princess Miss Knight gives an interesting account, and, indeed, as the hapless daughter of George IV. and that poor Queen Caroline who was deemed of inadequate virtue even to be *his* consort, she is a figure that appeals to one's sympathies. Miss Knight, during her attendance upon the Princess, was frequently in contact with the Regent, whom she evidently did not like, though it is curious to observe in what respectful terms she conveys her impressions of him. It mattered little to the Regent himself, presumably ; but on one occasion he must have perceived that he was not in favor with his daughter's *dame de compagnie*. He had suddenly broken up the Princess Charlotte's household. "He repeated," says Miss Knight, "his apology for putting a lady to the inconvenience of leaving the house at so short a notice, and I replied that, my father having served his Majesty for fifty years, and sacrificed his health and fortune to that service, it would be very strange if I could not put myself to the temporary inconvenience of a few hours" This sounds like a speech of one of Thackeray's women. Miss Knight's style is generally rather dry, but there is here and there a touch in the way of portraiture which reminds one of the manner of the clever French memoirs. "The good Duchess of Leeds had no inclination to quarrel with anybody. Provided that she might ride two or three times a week at Hall's—a second-rate riding school—on an old quiet horse for exercise, get into her shower-bath and take calomel when she pleased, dine out and go to all parties when invited, shake hands with everybody, and touch her salary, she cared for nothing more ; except when mischievous people, to plague her, or envious gossips, to find out what was going on, talked to her about Princess Charlotte's petticoats being too short, of her Royal Highness nodding instead of bowing, or talking to the maids of honor at chapel between the prayers and the sermon." Miss Knight had lived many years in Italy before living with the Princess Charlotte, and on the death of her mother, at Naples, in 1798, had placed herself under the charge of the famous Lady Hamilton. It was with the Hamiltons and Lord Nelson that she returned to England—rather singular auspices for a young woman who was to become a custodian of the proprieties near a young princess. Miss Knight, however, was apparently not a Puritan ; she regarded the Countess of Albany, wife of the Pretender, whom she had left to live with Alfieri, as a person quite as good as she should be. Miss Knight saw much of society in Rome in the last years of the last century, and her reminiscences are sufficiently amusing. "At supper his Majesty (Gustavus III., King of Sweden) was seen to scratch his head with his fork, and also with his knife, and afterwards to go on eating with them." Of the philanthropic Emperor of Austria, on the other hand (Joseph II.), who was in Rome at the same time, her anecdotes are in the highest degree complimentary.

Mr. Raikes's reminiscences, as here extracted, relate principally to the Duke of Wellington, Talleyrand, and the Orleans family—Louis Philippe being with him a pet object of aversion. It is mostly, as we have said, rather thin gossip, and not redeemed by any very acute perception of character on the author's part. Here is a *mot* of Talleyrand which we do not remember to have seen before. A person asked him "to explain to him the real meaning of the word non-intervention." His reply was : "*C'est un mot métaphysique et politique qui signifie à peu près la même chose qu'intervention.*" Another, perhaps, is better known. A gentleman complained to Talleyrand of having been insulted by a charge of cheating at play, and a threat of being thrown out of the window on a repetition of the offence. Indignant and smarting, he asked for advice. "I advise you," said Talleyrand, "never to play again but in the basement." Of the various unflattering memories of George IV. that have lately been given to the world, one that Mr. Raikes quotes from the Duke of Wellington is perhaps the worst : "I found him in bed dressed in a dirty silk jacket and a turban night-cap, one as greasy as the other ; for notwithstanding his coquetry about dress in public, he was extremely dirty and slovenly in private." If even this monarch's personal elegance was a humbug, there is but little left to him.

---

*A Summary of Modern History.* Translated from the French of M. Michelet, and continued to the present time, by M. C. M. Simpson, translator of 'Napoleon Bonaparte's Letters to King Joseph,' 'Memoir, Letters, and Remains of Alexis de Tocqueville,' etc. (New York : Macmillan & Co. 1875. 16mo, pp. 376.)—Probably there is no historian of equal eminence whose merits are so hard to estimate fairly, or who is the subject of such various judgment, as Michelet. For native genius we should hardly know whom to place above him, and his acquirements were certainly surpassed by few. Add to this an unquestioned sincerity and a style remarkably brilliant and graphic, and we have a rare combination of great qualities. Unfortunately, he gives the impression of one whose imagination and theories ran away with him, and it must be confessed that his most plausible theories—as in his Roman history and in regard to the contest of Austrasia and Neustria in the first volume of his 'History of France'—are not supported by the solid scholarship of later enquirers. Naturally, he has got a somewhat suspected name, as not always and altogether sound. Then, again, his style is one of those that easily fall into manner, a tendency which grew upon him in his later years, so as to be positively unpleasant at times, as was also his fondness for generalities, as well as a certain vague habit he had of talking round a thing instead of telling it directly. In short, while his merits have gained him the most enthusiastic admiration, these faults have procured him the heartiest and most disdainful censure.

The book before us, written in his early years, possesses all his merits with few of his faults. It is a very small book to contain the history of four hundred years (from 1453), and yet it would be hard to find this same period told in double the number of pages with anything like the vividness and attractiveness that we find here. His statements of the general current of events are every way admirable ; and in the treatment of the details we have little fault to find on the score of fairness and impartiality. We would instance the sketches of the Reformation and the religious wars, in particular the account of the introduction of the Reformed religion in the countries of the North, and, in connection with it, the interesting career of the disreputable Christian II. Altogether, his selection of

detail shows the hand of a master. Neither are his French prejudice so conspicuous and offensive as one would expect from a Frenchman, and from Michelet above all. Still, he has no words of censure for the ravaging of the Palatinate and the seizure of Strassburg; and one would gather from this book that it was solely owing to Richelieu's influence that Gustavus Adolphus entered into the Thirty Years' War. For the same reason, doubtless, the character given of William III. is far less favorable (p. 250) than we are accustomed to. There are some admirable summaries of leading events and dates, arranged under the heads of the several countries, and inserted as foot-notes in finer type. Good as they are, however, they would be improved by being spread out in separate lines and more carefully grouped. They are sometimes compressed to the point of obscurity, for instance: "1688, Election of the Archbishop of Cologne"; "1705, confiscation of Bavaria." What can the student suppose these dates to mean? for they are not explained in the text. Neither are the details always well-selected or accurate. In the reign of Charles II. (p. 241), the Cabal is said to continue from 1670 to 1683, instead of from 1667 to 1674, and nothing is said of either Danby, Temple, or Halifax. The Declaration of Rights is given, but not the Bill of Rights, and the Act of Settlement is called the Act of Succession. On page 243 we have some very wild American dates: "Foundation of the State [!] of Massachusetts, 1621; of the town of Boston, 1627; States of Maryland, 1632; of Rhode Island, 1634; of New York [!] and of New Jersey, 1635; of Connecticut, 1636" —every one of them wrong, and Virginia omitted. On page 195, the Great Elector is called the son instead of the grandson of John Sigismund, and, by the way, we can find no account of the Great Elector at all commensurate with his importance, and no clear statement of his relations with Sweden and Poland. Charles II. of Spain is called (p. 262) Charles VI. The death of President Lincoln is placed (p. 347) at Boston, and on the next page the Geneva award is said to have excited the "amazement of all sober judges." This, of course, is in Mr. Simpson's continuation. The translation is excellent; only the statement (p. 242) that in 1706 England and Scotland were *reunited* bears traces of the original *réunis*.

---

*Nature and Life.* Facts and Doctrines relating to the Constitution of Matter, the new Dynamics, and the Philosophy of Nature. By Fernand Papillon. Translated from the second French edition by A. R. Macdonough, Esq. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875.)—This is a collection of essays on various physiological subjects. The author, recently dead, was one of that little band of "*vulgarisateurs*" whom the *Revue des Deux Mondes* employs to serve up to the general reader a nicely-prepared account of the most recent discoveries and speculative tendencies in the various branches of human knowledge. All readers of that worthy periodical know the style of article: a little flourish at the beginning, about a page long, containing some nicely-said generalities, which form an introduction; then a series of sections headed I., II., III., which always give a well-digested and, above all, well-composed account of the facts, written with that fatal polish and fluency which make the work of one contributor to this periodical absolutely indistinguishable in style from that of all the rest; then, to conclude, a little gush of enthusiasm, moral or philosophic, *bien senti;* the whole bedewed at intervals with those graceful tributes, dear to the ears of Frenchmen, and which none can pay with so light a hand as they, to the great names in science or to the great principles in philosophy which every well-conditioned reader is expected to salute as it were in passing, if only for the sake of showing that he too belongs to that part of society which is not ignorant of the "bonnes et saines traditions," and which knows where respect is due. This excessive urbanity, with the diffuseness that accompanies it, is a little tedious to the English reader. If he disagrees with a philosopher, for instance, it annoys him to have to avoid the appearance of rude manners by saying: "The certain and enduring fame of Descartes is great enough to permit us, without fear of dimming its deserved lustre, to pronounce sentence of impotence upon false principles borrowed from his teachings," etc., etc., after the fashion of our author.

Of their class, we may say that M. Papillon's articles are among the very best. The essays on life, in its relation to light, heat, electricity, odors, medicaments, with those on animal grafts, ferments, epidemics, death, and heredity, in addition to their charming style, contain facts and theories which the non-special reader is not likely to meet with elsewhere, and which are calculated to interest every intelligent person. The first hundred pages of the volume are taken up with the author's views of the philosophy of nature. Concerning them few words must suffice us, not because they seem to us to be in themselves of no importance, but because they await a robuster expounder than they have received as yet in France. A rewatering of the well-watered thoughts of Janet, Lévêque, and Vacherot can hardly yield much mental pabulum. These writers, adopting recent scientific theories about the conservation of energy and the constitution of matter, spiritualize the latter by identifying its force with the will-force, which is the only one of which we have any immediate personal experience. Matter is motion, motion is force, force is will. "The science of motions and of the form they take shows us only the outside of the energy of the universe. The science of life, on the contrary, unveils to us its throbbing heart and its splendid plan." M. Papillon works out with these data a sort of Leibnitzian monadism. One of the most interesting articles in the book, in fact, is that entitled Leibnitz's Ideas. To many readers, no doubt, this philosophy will be very suggestive.

We have only to add that the translation is not wholly freed from Gallicisms, especially in proper names. Some mistranslations of scientific terms (as, *e.g.*, the conjunctiva tissue, instead of connective tissue) occur; and on the bottom of p. 327 the translation of the word *perçoit* by "perceives" entirely obscures the sense. It means here "is touched by" or "responds to."

---

*The History of Lawyers, Ancient and Modern.* By William Forsyth, author of 'History of Trial by Jury,' 'Life of Cicero,' etc., etc. With Illustrations. (Boston: Estes & Lauriat.)—Those who have read Mr. Forsyth's 'Life of Cicero' know the author as an extremely clever writer. Whatever may have been the merits of the view of Cicero's character presented by him, there can be no doubt that the picture was vivid and interesting, that the book was well written, and made the men and scenes described live and move again with a real life and motion. Mr. Forsyth is a classical scholar, and at the same time no pedant. He is as thoroughly at home when he gives an account of a forensic contest in Greece or Rome as when he is describing a trial in an English court. Indeed, we should be inclined to say almost too much at home, for he is one of that band of classical scholars who insist on giving vividness to their translations from Greek and Latin words by finding exact English equivalents for technical or professional words, for which there are really no exact equivalents in English. For instance, Mr. Forsyth thinks it pedantic to translate ὦ ἄνδρες δικασταὶ by "O Dicasts," and that it gives a more lively idea of the scene in an Athenian court if we render it "Gentlemen of the jury." Unquestionably it gives a more lively idea, but, unless we are greatly mistaken, much of the liveliness comes from the sense of novelty and sharp contrast between the notion called up by the word "dicast" and that called up by "gentlemen of the jury." When we think of the former, it is of a large popular body, five hundred at the least in number, swayed by every sort of popular passion and prejudice, discriminating very vaguely between fact and law and various degrees of evidence, or even between matters of a civil and criminal nature; in many cases, as Mr. Forsyth himself admits (p. 31), becoming a "mob"; on the other side, we have a small body of twelve men, surrounded on every side with safeguards and limitations, presided over by a judge of whom they are generally in dread, never allowed to consider evidence which may be even supposed to influence their weak minds improperly, permitted to be judges only of facts, and absolutely prevented by our forms of procedure from confounding civil with criminal charges. It is difficult to believe that the "dicast" caricatured in the 'Wasps' would feel at all at home in the jury-box described by Blackstone or Kent. This may seem a small matter, but it is really a vice which runs through all Mr. Forsyth's discussions of classical subjects—as where (p. 36) we find him extending his notion of the similarity between Grecian and Anglo-Saxon procedure so far as to say that "we may call a vote of the Ecclesia that an accused person shall be put upon his trial 'the finding of the grand jury.'" Yet the author does not deny that there are limits to this sort of license, and is very doubtful as to the taste of the Dutch commentator who always translated "consul" by "burgomaster." But we must allow the Dutch the same liberty we allow ourselves in these matters. After all, the main thing is that we should know what a dicast was, not that we should translate the word by some remote English analogue.

Mr. Forsyth has confined his attention in the present volume to Greece and Rome, France and England; and his object has rather been to make a popular account of the subject for the laity than to write a thorough-going history of the bar. In this he has certainly succeeded. For Greece, Rome, England, and France he has given a summary outline of the origin and power of the courts of law and systems of procedure, with abundant references to well-known cases as illustrating the condition of the profession at particular times and places. We do not find many things in the book that are new to lawyers; the chapter on the French bar contains more out-of-the-way information than any other.

Though great innovations have been introduced into the practice of the law in this country, it is probably as yet too soon to estimate their full effect or to expect the United States to furnish an additional chapter for a genuinely philosophical treatise, though it certainly might for a popular work like this. The influence, social and political, of the bar in America shows that the connection between the prosperity of the profession and free institutions is no mere fancy suggested by the history of Rome, Greece, and England, but a general fact, and it has been pretty clearly proved, too, that all attempts to destroy the exclusiveness of the profession, whether by breaking down the barriers in the way of admission or by making the methods of selecting judges popular, have a bad tendency on the *morale* of the bench as well as the bar. What will be the verdict of posterity on more technical questions, the union of the duties of attorneys and barristers, the abolition of the rules of pleading, and so on, remains to be seen.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

| *Authors.—Titles.* | *Publishers.—Prices* |
|---|---|
| Baker (W. S.), William Sharp, Engraver | (Gebbie & Barrie) |
| Kavanagh (Julia), John Dorrien | (D. Appleton & Co.) |
| Krasinski (S.), The Undivine Comedy | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Leland (C. G.), English-Gipsy Songs | (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) |
| Roy (G.), The Old, Old Story, swd | (Robert Clarke & Co.) 0 25 |
| The Art of Pleasing | " " 0 25 |


A NEW TRANSLATION OF AUERBACH'S

*On the Heights.*

By Simon Adler Stern. Library Edition. 1 vol. 12mo, $2. 2 vols. 16mo, Leisure-Hour Series, $1 25 per vol.

RECENT STANDARD PUBLICATIONS.

*GAUTIER'S CONSTANTINOPLE.* $2.
*TAINE'S NOTES ON PARIS.* $2 50.
*TAINE'S NOTES ON ENGLAND.* $2 50.
*WAGNER'S ART LIFE AND THEORIES.* $2.
*SAINTE-BEUVE'S ENGLISH PORTRAITS.* $2.
*GAUTIER'S A WINTER IN RUSSIA.* $2.
*MAINE'S EARLY HISTORY OF INSTITUTIONS.* $3.
*MOSCHELES'S RECENT MUSIC AND MUSICIANS,* $2.
*JONES'S AFRICA.* $5.

Recent and Favorite Volumes of the Leisure Hour Series. Price $1 25 each.

Erskine, Mrs.—Wyncote.
Walford, L. B.—Mr. Smith.
Alexander, Mrs.—Ralph Wilton's Weird.
Alexander, Mrs.—The Wooing O't
Alexander, Mrs.—Which Shall it Be?
Fraser-Tytler, C. C.—Mistress Judith.
Alcestis—A Musical Novel.
Hardy, Thos.—Far from the Madding Crowd.
Hardy, Thos.—A Pair of Blue Eyes.
About, E.—The Notary's Nose.
Craven, Mme.—Fleurange.
My Little Lady.
Parr, Louisa—Hero Carthew.
Richardson—Clarissa Harlowe (condensed).

HENRY HOLT & CO.
NEW YORK.

*Buckingham Hotel,*

FIFTH AVENUE, COR. FIFTIETH STREET
(OPPOSITE THE CATHEDRAL),

Will have splendid suites of rooms; large and airy parlors and chambers, with dressing-rooms attached, especially adapted to the wants of families; location unsurpassed; will be completed by September next.

*TREASURE TROVE.* Cloth, 278 pp. An Illustrated Poem. Price $2 25. Sent free on receipt of price. E. L. FREEMAN & CO., Publishers, Central Falls, R. I.

*Art-work in Silver*

*The Gorham Company,*

No. 1 BOND ST., NEW YORK.

The most extensive and brilliant collection of rich

*BRIDAL GIFTS,*
*TESTIMONIAL PIECES,*
*FAMILY SILVER,*

etc., etc., to be found in the city, now offered at retail at the lowest possible prices.

The Gorham Stamp is an evidence of sterling purity and excellence alike to the purchaser and receiver.

*"THE READER," on page ii, brings into notice the later works of a skilled producer of "family reading"—Miss Yonge—whose publishers are Macmillan & Co.*

*Hide and Seek.*

A pair of life-size figures for the lawn in

*STONE.*

Indestructible by any weather.

Vase on each for earth and flowers.

Enclose 10 cents for illustrated catalogue and prints to

JOHN ROGERS,
212 Fifth Avenue,
New York.

*SPECIAL NOTICES.*

TERMS: In advance, four weeks, 10 cents per word; one year, $6 24 per line. Letters forwarded.

*Professional.*

*A. J. BLOOR, Architect,* 128 *Broadway, New* York.

*CALVERT VAUX, Architect,* 110 *Broadway,* New York.

*CHARLES C. HAIGHT, Architect, Trinity* Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*CHARLES FOLLEN McKIM, Architect,* 57 Broadway, New York.

*E. C. CABOT & F. W. CHANDLER, Architects,* 29 Pemberton Square, Boston.

*DETLEF LIENAU, Architect, Trinity Build*ing, 111 Broadway, New York.

*EDWARD H. KENDALL, Architect,* 71 Broadway, New York.

*FREDERICK C. WITHERS, Architect,* 110 Broadway, New York.

*GAMBRILL & RICHARDSON, Architects,* 57 Broadway, New York.

*GEORGE B. POST, Architect, Equitable Build*ing, 120 Broadway, New York.

*GEORGE E. HARNEY, Architect,* 149 *Broad*way, New York.

*GEORGE HATHORNE, Architect, Trinity* Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*G. R. & R. G. SHAW, Architects,* 4 *Exchange* Place, Boston.

*HENRY FERNBACH, Architect,* 346 Broadway, New York.

*HENRY M. CONGDON, Architect, Trinity* Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*J. CLEAVELAND CADY, Architect, Trinity* Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*RICHARD M. UPJOHN, Architect, Trinity* Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*RUSSELL STURGIS, Architect,* 108 *Fifth* Ave., S. W. corner Sixteenth St., New York.

*GEO. E. WARING, Jr., Consulting Engineer,* for Sanitary and Agricultural Works, Newport, R. I.

*J. WEIDENMANN, Landscape Gardener and* Engineer, 110 Broadway, New York.

*L. W. LEEDS, Engineer of Ventilation,* 110 Broadway, New York.

*WILLIAM FARMER, Architect and Engineer,* Trinity Building, 111 Broadway, New York.

*D. P. FACKLER, Consulting Actuary for Life-*Insurance matters, 320 Broadway, New York.

*SHEPPARD HOMANS, Consulting Actuary,* Western Union Building, Broadway and Dey Street, New York. Advice to individuals upon Life Insurance.

*JOHN FILMER.—Authors wishing to have* their works illustrated can communicate with the above at 293 Broadway, New York.

*ARTHUR v. BRIESEN, Solicitor of Patents,* etc., 258 Broadway, New York.

*MUNN & CO., Solicitors of Patents,* 37 *Park* Row, New York.

*Schools.*

*ADAMS ACADEMY, Quincy, Mass. Hon.* Charles Francis Adams, LL.D., Chairman of the Board of Managers, William Reynolds Dimmock, LL.D., Master, assisted by thoroughly competent teachers, and by special instructors in French, German, and Drawing. The third year of this Academy will begin on Wednesday, September 8. The design of the Academy is to prepare boys in the most thorough manner for the best American colleges. There is a preparatory class for younger boys and for those who are deficient in their English and elementary studies. The large boarding-house of the Academy is under the direction of the Master, who, with his assistants, resides in it. For catalogues address the MASTER.

*BOYS AND YOUNG MEN privately fitted* for College. Conditioned or rejected candidates coached. Stockbridge, Mass. F. HOFFMANN.

*BOSTON UNIVERSITY.—W. F. Warren,* LL.D., President.—Co-operating Faculties at ATHENS and ROME:
School of All Sciences—Post-Graduate Department.
School of Theology—Dean, Rev. J. E. Latimer, S.T.D.
School of Law—Dean, Hon. Geo. S. Hillard, LL.D.
School of Medicine—Dean, I. Tisdale Talbot, M.D.
School of Oratory—Dean, Lewis B. Monroe, A.M.
College of Liberal Arts—Dean, Rev. J. W. Lindsay, S.T.D.
College of Music—Dean, E. Tourjee, Mus. Dr.
College of Agriculture—Dean, Wm. S. Clark, Ph.D., LL.D.
Preparatory Academy—Princ., F. D. Blakeslee, A.M.
For information concerning any Department, address the appropriate DEAN, Boston, Mass.—The University Year-Book (pp. 128) will be sent by the Registrar, Dr. D. Patten, on receipt of 25 cts.

*CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL, Boston, for both* sexes. Complete preparation for college or business. For catalogues, address CUSHINGS & LADD.

*DREW THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY,* Madison, N. J. Address the President, JOHN F. HURST, D.D.

*DUANE S. EVERSON'S Collegiate Academy,* Harvard Rooms, cor. 42d St. and 6th Ave., New York.

*EPISCOPAL THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL,* Cambridge, Mass. Address the Dean, Rev. J. S. STONE, D.D., No. 2 Phillips Place.

*GANNETT INSTITUTE, Boston, Mass.* (For Young Ladies.)—For catalogue, address Rev. GEO. GANNETT, Principal.

*HARVARD UNIVERSITY, Cambridge,* Mass. For information, address as follows:
HARVARD COLLEGE—J. W. Harris, Secretary.
DIVINITY SCHOOL—Prof. O. Stearns, D.D.
LAW SCHOOL—J. H. Arnold, Librarian.
LAWRENCE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL—J. W. Harris, Secretary.
MEDICAL SCHOOL—Dr. R. H. Fitz, Boston.
DENTAL SCHOOL—Dr. T. H. Chandler, Boston.
BUSSEY INSTITUTION, a School of Agriculture and Horticulture—Prof. F. H. Storer, Jamaica Plain.
SUMMER COURSES IN SCIENCE—J. W. Harris, Secretary.
EXAMINATIONS FOR WOMEN—Prof. C. F. Dunbar.

*HIGHLAND MILITARY ACADEMY,* Worcester, Mass. C. B. METCALF, A.M., Supt.

*HUNGERFORD Collegiate Institute, Adams,* N. Y. Classical and scientific courses; healthful; accessible; expenses moderate. ALBERT B. WATKINS, Ph.D.

# INDEX TO VOLUME XX.

## JANUARY TO JUNE, 1875.

### The Week.

AT HOME.


Alabama, "intimidation" of colored Democrats, 70, Congressional report, 142, investigation of Spencer's election, 337—Arkansas, House Committee's report and President's message on, 88, report adopted, 141, condition described by Charles Nordhoff, 250—Senator B. B. Anthony on the state of the South, 370.

Beecher, Rev. H. W., trial: Tilton admitted as witness, 71, plaintiff's case rested, 124, utility of Bowen as a rebutter, 142, as a pew-holder *pendente lite*, 199, Tilton's character shown up, 194, Bowen on the stand, 322, testimony all in, 339—Beecher scandal: Carpenter's statement; *Herald's* poison story, 401; *Christian Union* on the trial, 418—J. Young Brown attacks Butlerism in House, 87, censure sought to be expunged, 161—Secretary Bristow redeeming $30,000,000 bonds, 162, 181, unearths whiskey frauds, 321 Bounty Bill explained by Henry Wilson, 181—Joseph Brooks appointed postmaster at Little Rock, 213 Banking laws, effect of, on distribution of currency, 234—Speaker Blaine on the revival of North and South in politics, 249—Judge Blatchford's decision on the Dana subpœna, 285—Gen. W. F. Bartlett serenaded in Richmond, 106—Bowles, Samuel, Phelps libel suit tried, 322—H. C. Bowen, witness for Tilton, 322, not good company for Dr. G. B. Bacon, 339, services bought by H. H. Boody, 401—John C. Breckinridge deceased, 337—Baltimore *Katholische Volks-Zeitung's* anti-Protestant indecencies, 287—Bunker Hill Centennial, 417—Business, 162, 181, 197, 213, 233, 249, 267, 287, 307, 322, 339, 353, 369, 370, 386, 401, 417, 418.

Clews, Henry, & Co., Schedule of assets published, 50—Senator Carpenter not re-elected, 89—Connecticut Democratic Convention, 124, election carried by Democrats, 234—Colorado, vote of Senate to admit as a State, 142—Senator Christiancy's speech on Pinchback and La., 182—Canal frauds, N. Y., 197, 198, 213, 233, 250—Catholic school negotiations in N. Y., 213, 214, 234, priests as bankers, 339, Catholic family reading in Baltimore, 387—Civil-Rights Bill pronounced unconstitutional by Judge Emmons, 214, case in Trenton, N. J., 233—Cincinnati municipal election, 234—Currency movements under free-banking law, 254—Concord and Lexington Centennial, 267, 286—Centennial Exhibition, annual report of directors, 286, proposed order of opening exercises, 353—H. B. Claflin & Co. indicted for smuggling silks, 402—*Christian Union* on the Beecher trial, 418.

Congress, XLIIId., 3d Session; Thurman's resolution on interference in Louisiana; Schurz's speech on same subject, (Senate); Senate Finance Bill passed (House), 18—Subcommittee's report on Louisiana; Committee report on District of Columbia; tariff changes in revised statutes (House), 33, 34—Morton's Constitutional amendment for electing President (Senate); Little Tariff Bill passed (House), 49—Caucus alteration of rules defeated, 50, revived and again defeated, and moderate change carried (House), 69, 87—President's message on Arkansas; Morton's amendment; death of Senator Buckingham; Pinchback reported entitled to a seat (Senate); Grasshopper Bill and Civil-Rights Bill passed; J. Y. Brown censured (House), 87—Report on Arkansas (House), 88—Equalization of Bounties Bill passed; Choctaw Claim killed; new Tax and Tariff Bill (House), 105—Press gag-law report; Pinchback tabled; Appropriation Bills passed; Pacific Mail Subsidy voted down (Senate), 123, 124; Louisiana Committee's reports; Tax and Tariff bill passed; Texas Pacific subsidy killed (House), 123, 124—Arkansas majority and Louisiana minority resolutions passed; Force Bill passed (House), 141; Civil-Rights Bill passed (both Houses), 141—Appropriation Bills, Mississippi Jetty Bill, Bill to admit Colorado, Equalization of Bounties Bill passed (both Houses); adjournment, 161.

XLIVth, extra Session of Senate: Hawaiian Treaty ratified; Pinchback's case postponed; Louisiana resolution sustaining President passed, 197—adjournment, 213.

Douglass, Frederick, and others demanding the Civil-Rights Bill, 70—Hon. H. L. Dawes wants J. Young Brown expelled the House, 87, financial exhibits compared, 105—Daniel Drew forgets his "puts" and "calls," 233—Secretary Delano's connection with Indian frauds, 268, 285—Chas. A. Dana and the District Court subpœna, 285—Jeff Davis's loyal speech at Houston, 338—Decoration Day observances, 369—Judge Dillon's conflicting railroad decisions, 353, 354, 402.

*Evening Post* censures *Nation's* opposition to Currency Bill, 2, and its views on municipal reform, 162—Emma Mine, text of English stockholders' complaint against Park & Co., 88, answers of defendants, 268; *Mining Journal* cast in a suit with S. T. Paffard for libel, 162, petition to wind up denied, 235, 403—Equalization of Bounties Bill passed and vetoed, 161—Judge Emmons on the constitutionality of Civil-Rights Bill, 214—*Edgar Stewart* condemned, 285—Dorman B. Eaton on civil-service reform, 337—Erie R.R. passes into hands of a receiver, 369.

Force Bill, nature of the House majority passing it, 141, not carried in Senate, 161, its supporters in House appointed to office, 213—*Financial Chronicle* on the Tax Bill, 142.

Grant, President, message on the interference in Louisiana, 33, on the Finance Bill, 35, on heavy guns for sea-coast fortifications, 50, on Arkansas, 88, vetoes Equalization of Bounties Bill, 161, denied a free pass on New Haven R.R., 267, letter on a third term, 369—Gag-law an innocent measure, 123, test case in St. Louis, 182—Father Gerdemann acquitted of embezzlement, 339, 362—W. M. Grosvenor on Missouri politics, 385.

Ice gorges in Delaware and Susquehanna valleys, 198—Illinois non-resident R.R. directors, 214—Indiana millionaire to found a new college, 268—Indian frauds exposed by Prof. Marsh, 305, 321, Sioux chiefs leave Washington, 386—Iowa R.R. tariff law in court, 353, 354, 402—Ingersoll's affidavit on the Ring frauds, 385.

Johnson, Andrew, first speech in Senate, 197—Abraham Jackson, defaulter, 370.

King, Hon. William, missing, 69, until after Congress adjourns, 182—Judge Wm. D. Kelley's tour through the South, 305, 306.

Louisiana: Gen. Sheridan takes command, State Legislature dispersed by U. S. troops, 1; Sheridan's despatches, 17; Cooper Union protest, 18; President's message, Boston protest, 33; Congressional Sub-Committee's report, 33, 34; E. W. Stoughton defends the legality of Federal interference, 34; Gen. Emory's despatches and Col. Morrow's report published, 50; compromise proposed by Congressional Committee, 87; Mr. Frye's informal report, 106; majority and minority report, 123; compromise accepted, 141; President's course endorsed by U. S. Senate, 197; legislature organized under compromise; a colored member yields place to his old master, 268; unseating of members of House, 285, 306, 321—Eugene Lawrence garbles Mr. Schurz, 214.

Mississippi, Vicksburg massacre investigated, 1, Congressional report, 141; condition of State described by Nordhoff, 386—Morton, Senator O. P., proposed Constitutional amendment for Presidential elections, 70, passed in Senate, 141—Archbishop McCloskey made a Cardinal, 182—Minnesota Railroad Commissioners' experience, 183—Massachusetts and South Carolina, reciprocal courtesies, 235, Mass. new liquor law, 306, railroad legislation, 338—Mecklenburg Centennial, 286—Prof. Marsh exposes Indian frauds, 305, 321—Missouri politics described by Grosvenor, 385—Michigan law taxing sale of liquors, 307, 354.

New York, Cooper Union mass-meeting against Federal interference in Louisiana, 18; Mayor Wickham's and Gov. Tilden's messages, 18; canal frauds exposed by Gov. Tilden, 197, 198, investigation committees appointed, 213, report, 322; the Lord family; Gen. Barlow and Judge Church, 233; Governor's Commission; bill to remove State officers for misconduct, 249, defeated, 322; legislature adjourns, 354; N. Y. city laborers' wages reduced, 385, 418—New Mexico, vote of Senate to admit as a State, 142—New Hampshire election, 181, Democratic candidates counted in, 353, 360, settlement, 401—North Carolina, expulsion of Mr. Thorne, 235—Charles Nordhoff on the condition of Arkansas, 250, of Mississippi, 386.

Ohio Republican Convention, 335, Democratic Convention, 417.

Pacific-Mail investigation, 1, 2, 18, 35, Irwin testifies, 50, Congressional report, 142—Wendell Phillips's parliamentary law applied to Louisiana, 33, financial views refuted by Edward Atkinson, 250—T. W. Park's defence in Burlington *Free Press* case, 106, libel on S. T. Paffard, adjudged in England, 161—Judge Poland's triumphant exit from Congress, 161—Jesse Pomeroy's death-sentence, 215—Pennsylvania Anti-Slavery Society Centennial, 267, State neglected by President, 305, slighted by Centennial directors, 353, Republican Convention, 369—Edwards Pierrepont succeeds Attorney-General Williams, 305—Presidential speculations, 354—Piper murder in Boston, 370—Fitz-John Porter on city wages, 418.

Railroad war of Scott and Garrett, 386, 401, 418.

Stockwell, Ex-president of Pacific Mail, career, 2—Hon. Carl Schurz, dinner in Boston, 2, speech on Louisiana in the Senate, 18, public dinners in N. Y., 237, 307—Hon. R. C. Schenck, connection with Emma Mine, 19, pamphlet on poker, 88, 106, 111, recall rumored, 182—E. W. Stoughton defends military interference in Louisiana, 34—Senator Sherman's letter to the *Financier*, 49—Senatorial elections, 49, 89, 142, 337—Prof. B. Silliman maintains his innocence of the Emma Mine fraud, 88, relations to *Nation*, 106—Southern States government bill, 106—Sinking Fund of U. S., non-existent, 105—Sandwich Islands treaty exposed, 142, ratified, 197—South Carolina, Gov. Chamberlain's reform vetoes, 199; Niles G. Parker arrested for embezzlement, 286—Lucy Stone on Centennial taxation, 286—*Schiller* wrecked, 321, 370—Hon. George E. Spencer's fraudulent election to U. S. Senate, 337—Silk Manufacturers' Association meeting, 338—Shute assault in Brooklyn, 402.

Tax Bill, how passed, 142—*Tribune* financial writer more hopeful, 162, occupation of new building, 249—Tweed civil suits in progress, 249, 401, Court of Appeals decision on *habeas corpus*, 401—Gov. Tilden's message on municipal reform, 338—Trusteeship, railroad presidents' ideas of, 418.

Vicksburg, Sheriff Flanagan ousted by military, 35—*Virginius* settlement, 181.

Union Pacific lowered freight rates, 250.

Wells, D. A., exposes the Sandwich Islands treaty, 142—Henry Wilson explains the Bounty Bill, 181—Wisconsin modifies Potter Law, 183, investments avoided by capitalists, 338—Attorney-General Williams to resign, 285, succeeded by Edwards Pierrepont, 305—Whiskey fraud exposure, 321—Mr. Wheeler on the Louisiana compromise, 321.


ABROAD.

*(See also Special Correspondence.)*


Great Britain:—Bishop of Colenso inhibited from preaching, 3—Albert Grant and Sampson of the *Times* sued by Rubery, 18, 89 Schenck's connection with Grant and with Emma Mine, 18, 19—Lavcleye's letter in *Times* on Catholic submission to civil allegiance in Belgium, 19 Gladstone resigns Liberal leadership, 35, succeeded by Marquis of Hartington, 89—*Examiner* on caucus choice of leader, 106—John Mitchel and Dr. Kenealy returned to Parliament, 125, 163; death of John Mitchel, 199; Kenealy's parliamentary programme, 163, first speech, 199; Prittlewell Kenealy petition, 321—*Mining Journal* apologizes to S. T. Paffard, 161; Petition to wind up Emma Mine denied, 235, 403—Moody and Sankey's revival; Thorold Rogers opposes the English Church Establishment; *Economist* praises French Assembly and MacMahon, 215—Honduras Government loans overhauled, 251—Bill to regulate vivisection; Guikwar of Baroda's case discussed, 355—Mr. Jenkins snubbed by Mr. Disraeli, 671, explains the preservation of peace, 403, fails to convict the Irish Commission, 419—Case of Rev. Mr. Keet and his title to "Rev.," 419.

France:—Right and Left unable to agree; measures for liberty of instruction and the press, 3—Message of MacMahon urging Constitutional legislation; defeat of the ministry, 19—Ventavon's bill creating a second Chamber passed a second reading, 51, amendments of M. Wallon carried, 71, bill defeated, 106—Senate constituted, 125—Paris municipal loan on the popular plan, 143—Buffet ministry unattainable; suit of Gen. Wimpffen against Paul de Cassagnac; success of the Prince Imperial at Woolwich, 163—Text of new constitution, 183—Republic acknowledged in *Journal Officiel*, 199—Circular of the Minister of Justice to the *procureurs généraux*; M. Wallon encourages the Liberal Protestants, 269—Fatal ascent of the balloon *Zenith*, 323—Approaching dissolution of Assembly; Committee of Thirty reconstituted; anti-Providence nature of savings-banks, 371—Léon Say's financial statement, 387—Bills on public powers, 403, 419.

Germany:—Bishop of Paderborn's penalties; *Schlesische Volks-Zeitung* on the Pope's right to depose sovereigns; Bismarck's despatch on the Papal election, 51, recognition of Alfonso conditional on guaranties to Protestants, 71—Civil-marriage enacted; Landsturm force, 107—Bavaria's initiative in the civil-status law, 125—New German bank; reply of Catholic bishops to Bismarck's circular despatches, 143, on the Falk laws, 387—Lay administration of Catholic parish-property proposed, 163, 307—Reform in country government extended to Rhine Provinces and Posen, 183—Prussia to withdraw state support from recalcitrant bishops and priests, 215—Germany slighted by the Papacy in appointment of Church dignitaries, 235—War-cloud; interchange of notes with Belgium, 287, 307—Bill for the suppression of religious orders, 307, 371—Peaceful influence of Czar's visit to Berlin, 371—Germany's precedent for crushing a dangerous neighbor, 387—Census of Old Catholics, 403—Responsibility for the late scare, 419.

Austria—Hungary:—Hungarian finances embarrassed, 143—New Cabinet of Conservatives and Liberals, 199.

Spain:—Prince Alfonso proclaimed King, 2, 3, details of the revolution, 51—King takes the field; attitude towards priests and Protestants delays recognition by Germany; Castelar "interviewed," 71—Reactionary measures of ministry, 251, 355.

Italy:—Garibaldi as a Conservative Deputy and drainer of the Campagna, 163, 419, proposed loan, 251—Manin statue unveiled at Venice; meeting of Victor Emanuel and Francis Joseph, 251—Education in the Italian army, 269—Pope's mild words to the King, 323—Ministry's attitude towards the Church sustained, 403.

Turkey:—Montenegrin difficulty settled, 107.

Russia:—Defence of the Brussels Conference, 125—Finances and exports, 387.

India:—Trial of the Guikwar of Baroda for poisoning, 269, 355.

China:—Reform in governing Formosa; Tientsin customs trouble, 355.


### Notes.


Announcements, 9, 24, 40, 59, 77, 95, 112, 132, 149, 172, 191, 206, 223, 242, 258, 275, 293, 314, 330, 346, 361, 375, 396, 409, 423—Austin, Chas., deceased, 79—Agassiz, De Candolle and Wyman on, 135—Abbot, Rev. F. E., New Hampshire pulpit experience, 207—Arnim, Count, defence by von Holtzendorff, 277—America, origin of the name, 150—Algeria, internal sea proposed, 315—Assyrian and Egyptian translations, 176, 192—Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie, 191—Annual Record of Science, 314—Annual Register, 314—*Année Politique*, 206—*Armanach de Gotha*, 25—*Antikritiker*, 332—*Academy* and "Cardiff Giant," 39, 191, 244.

Bradley, Judge, proposed arrangement of the calendar, 294, 339—Blake, William, alleged communism, 223; Drawings by, 190—Bright's edition of Burns's posthumous poems, 288—Bastian's experiments on bacterial germs indecisive, 208—Brachet's Grands écrivains du XVIe siècle, 174—Brunier's Fille de Roland, 260—Bonnet, V., on the French payment of German indemnity, 79—Block, Maurice, on the results of the U. S. census, 276—Blanc, Charles, on the framing of pictures, 259—Bezold, Dr. F. von, on the Hussite revolution, 276—Bocaccio, his models and imitators, 347—Boyton's man-boat anticipated, 347—Bryant vase, 346—Boston mortuary and vital records, 330—Bunker Hill literature, 396—Baltimore *American* on the Hopkins Trust, 224.

Corot, Jean Baptiste Camille, deceased, 152—Clinton, De Witt, as a politician, 133—Curtius Fund, American contributions to, 151—Carlyle's 'Early Kings of Norway,' 77—Carducci, G., 'Literary Studies,' 425—Columbus to be canonized, 174—Cleopatra's needle, weight of, 377—China, population of, 363; Cantonese vernacular guide-book, 97—Crimean dolmens, 277—Canoe exhibition in Philadelphia, 314—Chemistry, defects in the study of, in Germany, 25, 26—Cardiff Giant, 39, 199, 214—Concealed weapons, 224—Card-cataloguing by Government, 396—*China Review*, 97.

Dalton, Dr. J. C., on vivisection, 113—Duveneck, Frank, portrait painter, 376—De Candolle on Agassiz, 135—De Gubernatis, A., on the Vedic Mythology, 135—Dante, recent Italian works on, 26—Darwinian bibliography, 113—Doctor's degrees in Heidelberg, 396—Drama, Klein's History of the, 224—Drake, Samuel G., deceased, 423.

Eliot, President C. W., on relation of high schools to colleges, 112—Elizabeth, Mme., letters counterfeited, 397—English vocabulary of educated men, 134; English publications, 149—Early French Text Society, 174—Early Latin, Specimens of, 223—Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th ed., 173—Eucalyptus globulus, 96.

Finlay, George, deceased, 224—Fitz Gerald, Edward, translates 'Rubáiyát' of Omer Khayyám, 59—French inedited MSS. of Mme. Sévigné, Bossuet, etc., 332; French payment of German indemnity, 79; French and German vital statistics, 377; French publications, 174, 362—Flogging in British penal discipline, 191—Framing of pictures, 259.

Green, orex, Mrs. Eliza, Old New York, 409—Goodwin & Co.'s fraudulent dealings, 346—Green's History of the English People, Error in, 275—Guizot's autograph collection, 397—Grimm, Prof. Wilibald, on Luther's Bible, 41—Gerhard von Elten, old work by, 173—German postal vocabulary de-Gallicized, 97, 135; German anatomical works, 224—Greek news, 225—Government publications, 243, 259—Geographical Congress, 25; Geographical publications, 315, 347.

Helps, Sir Arthur, deceased, 191—Hopkins, Johns, Baltimore University endowment, 60, 224—Hazen, Gen. Wm. B., on the Barren Lands of U. S., 112—Holder, Prof., on the English spoken vocabulary, 134—Hutchings, J. M., ousted from Yosemite, 396, 397—Holst, Dr. von, on Jameson's 'Constitutional Convention,' 77—Holtzendorff, Dr. von, defence of Count Arnim, 277—Haden, Seymour, on sanitary burial, 174—Hotspur's Kate in Shakspere and Polydore Vergil, 173—Hungarian transit expedition's mishaps, 331—Hussite revolution, 276—Harvard College, President's report, 78—Hygrophant invented by Prof. Winlock, 9—Honorable and Right Honorable in English usage, 150—Historical literature of 1874, 97.

Iceland, publications concerning, 11, 12; Icelandic in German Universities, 295, 296—Intercollegiate contest in N. Y. Academy of Music, 24, 25—*International Review* for May, 346—*Italia*, No. II., 152.

John, 1, v. 7, spurious text, 41—*Jahrbuch für romanische Sprache*, 97.
Kingsley, Charles, deceased, 61—Klein's History of the Drama, 224—Keely motor, 424—Khivan campaign, German works on, 61.
Lorenzo de' Medici, Life by Von Reumont, 97—Littré's French Dictionary, 363—Latin vocabulary by terminal order, 26; Latin pronunciation, spread of, in U. S., 346; Latin, use of, in modern courtesies, 348—Lord's Prayer and *daily* bread, 41, 77—Librarian of Congress, report, 40—Life-size in portraiture, 376—Lawson's Wanderings in New Guinea, 425—*Law Review* on Ordinance of 1787 and Wisconsin Constitution, 78.
Millet, Jean François, deceased, 152—Mauch, Karl, deceased, 332—Mill, J. S., Watt's portrait of, 411—Muir, Dr. John, translations from Indian writers, 192—Müller, Max, and Prof. Whitney, controversy, 134, 331—Mussafia, Adolph, Romance studies, 315—Martin's Statesman's Year-book, 206—Morris, Wm. O'Connor, mature history of French Revolution, 314—Maine, Sir H., Rede lecture, 411—Mantegna photographs delayed, 95; ready, 206—Murillo from Cathedral of Seville stolen and recovered, 59—Munich as a pest-city, 149—Magazines for April, 223, 224, 244; for May, 331; for June, 362, 372; for July, 410, 424.
Necrology of 1874, 9, 10, 11—Newcomb, Prof. S., on Life insurance, 346—North Carolina Legislature purged of heresy, 207—N. Y. police justices on carrying concealed weapons, 224—New Guinea Münchausen, 425—Nizhni Novgorod, annual fair, 424, 425—National Academy of Sciences, April meeting, 294, 330—*Nation* widely lent, 149.
Omer Khayyám's English translator, 59—Orientalists' Congress transactions, 175—Old New York, 429.
Putnam, Miss C. F., on colored Virginia schools, 113—Paul Veronese and modern French art, 410—Philadelphia public-school sanitary investigation, 96—Postal vocabulary revised in Germany, 97—Postage-stamp literature, 375—Playing cards, history of, 363—Pamphlets, how to file them, 40—Promessi Sposi, commentary by Cantù, 397—*Portfolio* for March, 190; April, 258; May, 376.
Reuter, Fritz, posthumous works, 114—Rohlf's Libyan expedition photographs, 315—Richthofen, Baron, on the Chinese census, 363—Roest's catalogue of the Rosenthal library, 275—Reumont, A. von, life of Lorenzo de' Medici, 97—Ruskin's 'Proserpina,' 411—Rignold as Macbeth, 262—Roland legend on the stage, 260—Rosenthal Library catalogue, 275—Reichsmark, 96—Rapid transit in N. Y., report on, 133—Railway cases, Lacey's digest of, 314—Reins, in Webster's Dictionary, 112—Razors of antiquity, 347—*Revue des Deux Mondes*, Index, 295, 332—*Russische Revue*, 277.
Schwartz, J., jr., plan of catalogue, 151—Sanneg's terminal Latin vocabulary, 26—Squier collection of American antiquities purchased, 79—Sainte-Claye, 295, 396—Shakspereana, 173—Saxon authors, Haan's Dictionary of, 175—Scottish history throwing light on English, 223—Sanskrit Dictionary of St. Petersburg completed, 134—Statistical Atlas of U. S., Part I., 40, 294—St. John's Guild's fantastic report, 259.
Thorne, J. W., expelled from N. C. legislature, 207—Tyndall's reply to his critics, 60—Theiner, Father Augustine, publishes Council of Trent documents, 41—Trent, Council of, original pieces published, 41—*Tribune* on a national card catalogue, 296.
Virgin, appearances in Alsace-Lorraine, 276—Vivisection controversy, 113.
Winlock, Prof., invents hygrophant, 9; deceased, 409—White, R. G., on absolute music, 150—Winthrop, John, jr., his *Journal*, 275—Whitney, Prof., and Max Müller, controversy, 134, 331—Wood, John T., lectures on Ephesus, 259—Winnecke's comet visible, 96—Webster's Dictionary, blunder on word *reins*, 112—Workingmen's trains in Massachusetts, 151—Weather-change, semi-annual, 331.
Yosemite Valley clear of squatters, 396, 397.
Zürich, University of, new professors appointed, 377—*Zeitgeschichte*, 377.

## Editorial and Miscellaneous Articles.

Arkansas, Case of, 90
Army and the Politicians, 73
Art and Advertising, 342
Boston Railroad Scandal, 127, 148
Bunker Hill, 344
Canals and Cheap Transportation, 216
Capitalists, Sorrows of, 101
Catholic Clergy and the German Government, 217
Contract System in Public Works, 324
Credit of Sovereign States, The, 420
Desperadoes and the Habeas Corpus, 103
District of Columbia, Condition of the, 5
England, Revivals in, 404
Farmers and the Supreme Court, 53
Forty-third Congress, 161
Freedman's Bank, Story of the, 253
Gladstone's Retirement, 109
Governor's Power of Removal, 288
Hopkins University, 166
Ideal Reformer, 74
Independent Voter's Place in Politics, 308
International Law, Proposed Changes in, 167
Reaction in, 309
Instructive Retrospect, 51
Keller, Prof., on the Probable Site of Troy, 55
Kenealy's Supporters, 325
Last Rumor of War, 356
Legislatures, Future of, 341
Lobby, Supreme Court on the, 271
Louisiana and New Hampshire, 388
Louisiana, Proposed Legislation for, 87
The Law and the Facts in, 20
Lyell, Sir Charles, 146
Miracle, Genesis of a, 129
Mitchel and Kenealy, 165
Municipal Government, Study in, 185
Municipal Reform, Later, 126
New Hampshire and Louisiana, 388
Political Prospect, 184
Politics and the Police, 421
Power without Responsibility, 144
Press and the Courts, 236
Public Schools, Improvement in, 357
*Punch* in America, Fiddle for, 209
Reform, Condition of Radical, 252
Religious Publication Societies' Book-keeping, 389
Responsibility in High Places, 200
Revival in England, 404
Rhetorical Training, 145, 170
St. Petersburg, Congress of, 21
Scandal, Some Plain Truths about the, 372
Scapegoat, New Kind of, 237
Senatorial Elections, 82
"Short-hairs" and "Swallow-tails," 218
Sorrows of Capitalists, 201
South and the Centennial, 372
Southern Society, 72
Strikes and Speculation, 389
Subsidies, 4
Town-meeting Legislation, Study of, 186, 203
Tricks of Interpretation, 36
Virginia Schools, 54, 113
Vivisection, 128
Wheeler Compromise and the "Banditti," 270
Whiskey Frauds, Moral of the, 340
Who are our Ancestors? 405

## Occasional Correspondence.

Academy and the "Cardiff Giant," 39, 191
Adams's, Prof., Originality Assailed, 394, 408
"Armstrong" Gun, 292
Bismarck's Humanity, 24
Book Canvassing, Tactics of, 313
Borrowers of the *Nation*, Hints to, 132
Copernicus, Alleged Dictum of, 8, 38
Copyright, An Infringement of, 257
English Vocabularies, 274, 293, 345
First Mortgage Railroad Bonds, 148, 205
German Diplomas, 361, 395, 396
Grangers, Good and Bad, 241
Hampton, Manual Labor at, 23
"Infant Industry," A Struggling, 275
Intercollegiate Contest, 58
Joy, Mr., and the Boston Railroad Scandal, 205
Latin Punning, 222, 242
Life-Insurance Commissions, 360, 375, 395
Lippincott-Chambers Encyclopædia, 76
Lippincott & Co.'s Response to Messrs. Chambers, 8
Lobby, Natural History of the, 293
Louisiana, A Policy for, 58
Malum and Malum, 222, 242
Manual Labor at Hampton, 23
Milton's and Shakspere's Vocabularies, 274, 293
Montenegrin Port, 132
New Hampshire Politics, 360, 393
Pacific Mail and its Subsidy, 330
Pictures Should be Framed, How, 207
Raphael, A Disputed, 94
Rhetorical Training, 171, 206
Roman Law and the Grangers, 345
Schenck, More Lamentations over, 188
Wisconsin Railroad Legislation, Second Stage of, 189, 275, 363
Yale Ph.D., 395

## Special Correspondence.

England—
The Next Conservative Leader, 6
The New Party Leaders, 56
Working-Class Candidates, Lord Hartington and his Following, 92
Gen. Schenck and Draw-Poker, 110
The Coming Measures, 111
The Lesson of Kenealy, 147
The London Clubs, 187
Modern English Comedy, 258
The Women's Enfranchisement Bill, 274
Tory Mismanagement, 290
Scotch and Irish Legislation, 326
Mr. Grant Duff's Political Survey, 358
France—The French View of the Arnim Trial, 391
Paris—Her Churches and Religions, 7
The New King of Spain, 57
The Libraries of Paris, 75
Miracle of La Salette, 131
A French Love-Making in the Last Century, 129
Restif de la Bretonne, 170
Bossuet, 204
The Future Senate, 221
M. Le Play—The French Law of Succession, 254
Belgium and Germany, 312
The Two Ampères, 337
French View of the Late War-Cloud, 338
The Diplomatic Situation in Europe, 392
Switzerland—
Old Catholicism in, 422
Swiss and American Politics, 22
Germany—
The Anti-Prussian Encyclical, 256
Progress of the Church Conflict in Prussia, 220
Shall I be Expatriated? 273
Constitution-Mending in Prussia, 328
Getting a Doctor's Degree, 343
Italy—An Italian "Notion," 339
Australia—Australian Politics, 291
A Southern Paradise—Tasmania, 339
Port Darwin, 407

## Reviews.

Adams, John Quincy, Memoirs of, 315
Art Remains of Southern Italy, 365
Assyria and Egypt, Records of the Past, 176
Astronomy, Recent Works on, 349
Bancroft's Tenth Volume, 80
Bossuet, 221
Brooke's Theology in the English Poets, 41
Christian Classics, Study of, 177
Comte de Paris's History of the Rebellion, 63
Democracy and Monarchy in France, 128
Duff Gordon's Letters, Lady, 412
English History, Recent Works on, 226
English Lexicography, 13
Fiske's Cosmic Philosophy, 135
Galton's English Men of Science, 262
Gentleman Farming, 245
Gilbert's Autobiography, Mrs., 332
Grey and His Warnings, 361
Greville's Journal, 62
Gypsy Dialect in England, 116
Howells's Foregone Conclusion, 12
Ismailia, 81
James's Tales and Sketches, 425
Livingstone's Last Journals, 175
McCosh on Tyndall, 277
Macready's Reminiscences, 297
Maine's Early History of Institutions, 235
Marine Mammals of Western America, 82
Masson's Essays, 114
Mill's Essays on Religion, 98
Minto, Life of Earl, 413
Mohammed and Mohammedanism, 349
Nordhoff's Communistic Societies, 16
*North American Review* for January, 45
" " " April, 280
Novels, 44, 137, 299
Patteson, John Coleridge, 244
Peel, Sir Robert, 260
Poe, Edgar Allan, 108
Prehistoric Man in Europe, 42
Prince Consort, 154
Russell's Recollections and Suggestions, 317
Sainte-Beuve's English Portraits, 261
Sainte-Beuve's First Articles, 117
Sargent's Political Reminiscences, 427
Schliemann's Troy, 348
Shelburne, Lord, 378
Sherman's Memoirs, 397, 411
Smith's Assyrian Discoveries, 209
Spanish Reformers, 192
Speculative Dynamics, 579
Stubbs's Constitutional History of England, 152
Taine's Notes on Paris, 318
Thompson's National Economy, 333
Thomson's Indo China and China, 279
Unseen Universe, 366
Whitney's Linguistic Studies, 296

## Titles of Books Reviewed.

[*The Italics indicate the Shorter Notices, for which also see the Notes.*]
Adams, J. Q., Memoirs of, 315
*Africa* (Jones's), 263
*Alexander in the Punjaub*, 367
Alice Brand, 299
*Animal Mechanics* (Marey's), 264
*Architecture for General Students*, 194
Assyrian Discoveries (Smith's), 209
*Astronomy* (Rambosson's) (Searl-'s), 349
*Bossuet and his Contemporaries*, 221
*Botany* (Sachs's), 400
*Brassey, Thomas, Life and Labors of*, 29
*Bric-à-brac Series*, 229, 428
*Brief Biographies of European Men*, 367
British Ethnology, 226
*British Wild Flowers in relation to Insects*, 229
Caleb Krinkle, 137
Campanische Wandmalerei, 363
Cave hunting, 42
Communistic Societies of the U. S., 26
Cosmic Philosophy, Outlines of, 135
*Czar, Land of the*, 335
*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*, 356
*Democracy*, (Capen's) *History of*, 31
Devils, (Masson's) Three, 114
Egypt, (Lady Duff Gordon's) Letters from, 412
Elliot, Sir Gilbert, Life of, 413
*England*, (Burt's) *Synoptical History of*, 211
*England*, (Molesworth's) *History of*, 29
England, (Stubbs's) Constitutional History of, 152
*English Grammar* (Morris's), 330
English History, (Yeatman's) Introduction to Early, 226
English Men of Science (Galton's), 262
English People, (Green's) Short History of, 226
English Portraits (Sainte-Beuve's), 261
*Essays—Æsthetical* (Calvert's), 388
Euseblus, Ecclesiastical History of, 177
Examen des Trois Règles, etc. (Calvo's), 167
Fellow-Soldier, Story of a, 244
Fixed Stars, Cause of the Supposed Proper Motion of, 349
Foregone Conclusion, 12
For the King's Dues, 299
France, Democracy and Monarchy in, 28
*Gannett, Ezra Stiles*, 288
Gilbert, Mrs., Autobiography, 332
*Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea*, 211
*Group of Poets and their Haunts*, 399
Guerre Civile en Amérique, Histoire de la, 63
Gypsies, Dialect of the English, 116
*Half-Hour Lectures on the Fine Arts* (Scott's), 135
*Health* (Smith's), 264
His Two Wives, 44
*Home Sketches in France* (Miss Field's), 400
*Horace*, (Marshall's) *Works of*, 281
*Hored-Trömningerne* (Brandes's), 14
Institutions, (Maine's) Early History of, 235
Ismailia, 81
Jest and Earnest (Dasent's), 13
Journal of the Reigns of G. IV. and William IV. (Greville's), 62
Keterfelto, 259
König Sigismund und Heinrich V. von England, 226
Lancaster and York, (Gairdner's) Houses of, 226
Latin Hymns with English Notes, 177
*Latin Prose Composition* (Sargent's), 301
*Lawyers* (Forsyth's), *History of*, 429
*Life and Literature in the Fatherland* (Hurst's), 64
*Lincoln, Abraham*, 415
*Literaturgeschichtliches Lesebuch*, 46
Livingstone, Last Journals of, 175
*Long Island, Antiquities of*, 382
Lost Model, 44
Macready's Reminiscences, 297
*Madonna in Christian Art*, 300
Marine Mammals of N. W. Coast of N. A., 82
*Masterpieces of English Literature* (Sprague's), 118
Mechanism of the Universe (Fendler's), 379
Memories, 44
*Mendelssohn: Letters and Recollections*, 319
Mistress Judith, 299
*Modern History, Summary of*, 408
Mohammed and Mohammedanism, 349
*Mythology*, (Murray's) *Manual of*, 84
*Nature and Life*, 429
Oriental and Linguistic Studies (Whitney's), 296
Our New Crusade, 137
*Parallel Extracts* (Mixon's), 301
Paris, (Taine's) Notes on, 318
Passionate Pilgrim, 425
Patricia Kemball, 137
Patteson, John Coleridge, Life of, 244
Peel, Sir Robert, 260
*Personal Reminiscences of Cornelia Knight and Thomas Raikes*, 423
*Phonography, Dictionary of Practical*, 83
Poe, Edgar A., Works of, 208
Political Economy, (Fawcett's) Tales in, 118
*Political Ethics*, (Lieber's) *Manual of*, 193
Premiers Lundis (Sainte Beuve's), 14
Prince Consort, Life of, 137
Progressive Petticoats, 381
*Prussia's Representative Man*, 427
Public Men and Events (Sargent's), 299
Rainbow Creed, 117
Recollections and Suggestions (Earl Russell's), 317
Records of the Past, 176
Religion, (Mill's) Essays on, 98
*Remains of Lost Empires*, 65
Rocks Ahead, 34
*Romance of the Association*, 334

*Rome*, (Hare's) *Days near*,..... 229
*Revel, Miss*,..... 381
Scottish Philosophy (McCosh's),..... 217
Sellnaut, Die Metopen von,..... 365
Shelburne, Earl, Life of,..... 378
She man, Gen. W. T., Memoirs,..... 397, 411
*Social Pressure* (Helps's),..... 193
Social Science and National Economy (Thompson's)..... 333
South Meadows,..... 137
*Spain* (Baxley's),..... 340
Spanish Reformers (Wiffen's),..... 192
Starling, The,..... 44
Straits of Malacca, Indo China, and China..... 279
Suisse, Histoire politique de la (Morin's)..... 256
Transatlantic Sketches (James's)..... 425
Ten Years of Gentleman Farming (Lawson's)..... 245
Theology in the English Poets,..... 41
*Transit of Venus*,..... 230
*Troja, Lage des homerischen*,..... 246
Troy and its Remains,..... 348
Tyndall, Ideas in Nature overlooked by,..... 277
United States, (Bancroft's) History of..... 80
*United States* (Higginson's),..... 100
Uns en Universe,..... 366
*Vaincu, Un*,..... 335
*What I Did with My Fifty Millions*,.. 46
*What Young People Should Know*,.. 335
*White Elephant Land of the*,..... 50
*XVIIIe Siècle* (Paul Lacroix),..... 50

### Books of the Week.

30, 46, 84, 101, 126, 191, 211, 230, 246, 281, 301, 319, 336, 361, 368, 400, 415.

### Fine Arts.

Painting: Eighth Water color Exhibition..... 84, 119, 156
Loan Exhibition at Union League,..... 84
Goupil Water-color exhibition,..... 101
Painting: Fifteenth Annual Exhibition of the Academy of Design, 261, 281, 301, 352
Cameo exhibition in Philadelphia,..... 314
Bryant testimonial vase,..... 346
Brooklyn Art Association Exhibition,..... 368
Frank Duveneck,..... 376
Paul Veronese..... 410
Watt's Portrait of Mill,..... 411
Publications: *Art, Portfolio*,..... 101, 288
Ruskin's 'Proserpina,'..... 411
Drama: Col. Mulberry Sellers..... 138
Notes on the Theatres,..... 178
Madame Ristori,..... 194
Rignold as Macbeth,..... 362

### Poetry.

Joseph Winlock,..... 405

### *ERRATA.*

Page 10, col. i., line 19. For "Cuxton" read "Croxton."
Page 30, col. i., line 24. For "a year" read "three months."
Page 30, col. i., line 24 from bottom. For "30 reais per measure" read "Rs. [rupees] 50 per mensem."
Page 46, col. ii., line 27. For "No. 300" read "Page 300, Vol. XVIII."
Page 59, col. i., lines 1 and 2 of "Notes." Omit "the late."
Page 61, col. ii., line 10 from bottom. For "VI. and VII." read "VII. and VIII." Line 8 from bottom, for "as" read "in."
Page 82, col. ii., line 4 from bottom. For "thousand" read "hundred."
Page 99, col. ii., line 25. For "Nero" read "Nabis."
Page 207, col. i., line 9. For "Macmillan's" read "Rivingtons'."
Page 227, col. ii., line 24. For "sham" read "shame."
Page 362, col. i, line 17. For "last" read "April."

# REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED

## DURING THE HALF-YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1875.

### Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Alberger (J.), Antiquity of Christianity, swd.....(C. P. Somerby & Co.) $0 35
Atwater (Rev. E. E.), Sacred Tabernacle of the Hebrews .....(Dodd & Mead)
Beal (S.), The Romantic Legend of Sâkya Buddha, swd .....(Trübner & Co.)
Channing (Rev. W. E.), Works .....(Am. Unit. Ass.) 1 00
Craven (Mme.), The Veil Withdrawn.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Crawford (Rev. T. J.), Doctrine of Holy Scripture respecting the Atonement, 2d ed.... (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 4 50
Dashiell (Rev. T. G.), A Pastor's Recollections.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Dawson (J. W.), Nature and the Bible.....(Robert Carter & Bros.)
Eustis (Rev. W. T.), Service of Praise.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Fessler (Dr. J.), True and False Infallibility of the Popes .. ..... ..(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), The Religion of Humanity, 3d ed.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Gordon (A. J.), Congregational Worship.....(Young & Bartlett)
Gregory (Rev. D. S.), Christian Ethics .....(Eldredge & Bro.) 1 50
Gross (Rev. M. S.), Baptism as a Sacrament in the Catholic Church, swd.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Hall (Rev. J.), God's Word through Preaching .....(Dodd & Mead)
Hall (Rev. J.) and Stuart (G. H.), The American Evangelists in Great Britain and Ireland ..... .. (Dodd & Mead)
Hyacinthe (Father), Catholic Reform .....(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Keys to the Creeds.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Manning (Cardinal), Internal Mission of the Holy Ghost.....(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.) 1 50
Vatican Decrees and Civil Allegiance.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Martineau (J.), Religion as Affected by Modern Materialism.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
McCosh (Rev. J.), Reply to Tyndall.....(Robert Carter & Bros.)
Miller (J.), Metaphysics .....(Dodd & Mead)
Muhlenberg (Rev. W. A.), Evangelical Catholic Papers .....(T. Whittaker) 2 00
Newman (Rev. J. H.), Postscript to a Letter to the Duke of Norfolk, swd ..... ..... (Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Noyes (J. H.), Home-Talks, Vol. I..... (Oneida Community)
Pease (Rev. A. G.), Philosophy of Trinitarian Doctrine.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Proceedings of the First Congress of the Prot. Epis. Church in U. S., swd..... (T. Whittaker) 0 50
Religion and Science .....(James Campbell) 1 50
Seelye (Rev. J. H.), Christian Missions.....(Dodd & Mead)
Shields (Prof. C. W.), Religion and Science.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Sidgwick (H.), The Methods of Ethics.....(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Spurgeon (Rev. C. H.), Types and Emblems.....(Sheldon & Co.) 1 25
Storrs (Rev. R. S.), Preaching without Notes.....(Dodd & Mead)
Stretton (A.), The Wonderful Life.....(Dodd & Mead)
Supernatural Religion, 2 vols.....(Robert Bros.)
Swedenborg (E.), Apocalypse Revealed, 2 vols.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Syllabus for the People, swd .....(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Tholuck (Prof. A.), Hours of Christian Devotion, 2d ed ...(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Ullathorne (Bishop), Mr. Gladstone's Expostulation Unravelled, swd.(Cath. Pub. Soc.)
Unseen Universe.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Warring (C. B.), Oneness of Genesis and Science.....(J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.) 2 00
Washburn (Rev. E. A.), The Social Law of God.....(T. Whittaker) 1 50
Westropp (H. M.), Ancient Symbol Worship, 2d ed.....(J. W. Bouton)
Wiener (Dr. C.), Die ersten Sätze der Erkenntniss, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Wood (Rev. J. G.), Man and Beast Here and Hereafter.....(Geo. Routledge & Sons)

### Poetry.

Baker (G. A., jr.), Point Lace and Diamonds.....(F. B. Patterson)
Hart (J. M.), Goethe's Hermann and Dorothea .....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Krasinski (S.), The Undivine Comedy.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Leland (C. G.), English-Gipsy Songs..... ...(J. B. Lippincott & Co)
Lermontoff (M.), The Demon .....(Trübner & Co.)
Moe (Adelaide T.), The Old Fountain Inn, and Other Poems....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Moore (Mrs. C. J.), Poems.....(Porter & Coates)
Morris (W.), The Defence of Guenevere, and Other Poems.....(Roberts Bros.) 2 00

### Political and Social Subjects.

Bibble Memoirs, swd .....(A. Denham & Co.) 0 20
Butts (I.), Protection and Free Trade .....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Capel (Mons.), Reply to Gladstone's Political Expostulation, swd..(D. Appleton & Co.)
Capen (N.), The History of Democracy, Vol. I.....(Am. Pub. Soc.)
Cobden Club Essays: Local Government and Taxation.....(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)
Cohn (G.), Streitfragen der Eisenbahnpolitik, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Curtis (G. T.), Nature of the American Union, swd.....(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 0 50
Fairfield (F. G.), Ten Years with Spiritual Mediums.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Famine in Asia Minor, swd.....(F. W. Christern) 1 00
Fischer (K.), Deutschland's öffentliche Meinung, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Greene (W. B.), Socialistic, Communistic, Mutualistic, and Financial Fragments ..... (Lee & Shepard) 1 25
Helps (Sir A.), Social Pressure.....(Roberts Bros.)
Hillebrand (Prof. K.), Wälsches und Deutsches, swd.....(Robert Oppenheim)
History and Philosophy of Marriage.....(Jas. Campbell)
Holtzendorff (Dr. F. von), Das Verbrechen des Mordes und die Todesstrafe, swd..... (L. W. Schmidt)
Vertheidigungsrede für den Grafen Harry von Arnim, swd.. (B. Westermann & Co.)
Ingersoll (C.), Fears for Democracy, swd.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Kleinwächter (Dr. F.), Reform der Handwerks-Verfassung, swd. .....(L. W. Schmidt)
L'Année Politique, 1874, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Laspeyres (Dr. E.), Die Kathedersocialisten, swd .....(L. W. Schmidt)
Laws of the U. S. relating to Currency and Finance, swd.....(C. W. Sever)
Lawson W.), Ten Years of Gentleman Farming.....(Longmans)
Lieber (Dr. F.), Political Ethics, 2 vols.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Mahaffy (Rev. J. P.), Social Life in Greece from Homer to Menander..... (Macmillan & Co.) $1 50
Maine (Sir H. S.), Lectures on the Early History of Institutions.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 3 00
Martin (F.), Statesman's Year-book for 1875.....(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Mill (J. S.), Inexpediency of an Irredeemable Paper Currency, swd..... (H. L. Hinton & Co.)
Newman (Rev. J. H.), Letter on occasion of Mr. Gladstone's Recent Expostulation, swd. (Cath. Pub. Soc.) 0 50
Rights of Women: Legal States Compared.....(Trübner & Co.)
Thompson (Prof. R. E.), Social Science and National Economy.....(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Weeden (W. B.), The Morality of Prohibitory Liquor Laws.....(Roberts Bros.)
Wells (D. A.), Cremation Theory of Resumption, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 25
Wernher (Dr. A.), Die Armen und Krankenpflege, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Westminster (Archbishop of), The Vatican Decrees and Civil Allegiance, swd..... (Cath. Pub. Soc.) 50

### History, Biography, Geography, Travels, etc.

Abbott (J. S. C.), Adventures of Chevalier de la Salle.....(Dodd & Mead)
Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of J. Q. Adams, Vols. IV., V., VI.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Alexander (H. C.), Life of Joseph Addison Alexander, D.D., new ed..... (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 50
Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie, Part I., swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Awdry (Frances), The Story of a Fellow-Soldier .....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Baker (W. S.), William Sharp, Engraver.....(Gebbie & Barrie)
Bancroft (H. H.), Native Races of the Pacific Coast, Vol. II.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Banvard (J.), The Early Life of a King.....(Lit. and Art Pub. Co.)
Baxley (Dr. H. W.), Spain, 2 vols.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Birch (S.), Egypt, from the Earliest Times to 300 B.C.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Boissonnas (Mme. B.), Souvenirs du Gén. Robert Lee, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Bossuet and his Contemporaries .....(Porter & Coates)
Bric-à-Brac Series: Reminiscences by Cornelia Knight and Thomas Raikes..... (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 00
Brotherhead (W.), The Centennial Book of the Signers, Parts 1–4, swd..... (J. M. Stoddart & Co.) 0 50
Brown (H. S.), The Congress of 1774, swd .....(Philadelphia)
Craik (Prof. G. L.), History of Eng. Literature, 2 vols.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Curtels (A. M.), History of the Roman Empire.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dall (Mrs. C. H.), Last Glimpse of Charlotte Temple and Eliza Wharton, swd..... (Cambridge)
Digby (K. E.), History of the Law of Real Property .....(Macmillan & Co.) 3 00
Doherty (Dr. H.), Philosophy of History and Social Evolution.....(John Wiley & Son)
Eckenbrecher (Dr. G. von), Die Lage des Homerischen Troja, swd..... (B. Westermann & Co.)
Field (Mrs. H. M.), Home Sketches in France .....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Fitzmaurice (E.), Life of William, Earl of Shelburne, Vol. I..... ..(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Förster (E.), Peter von Cornelius, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Forsyth (W.), History of Lawyers .....(Estes & Lauriat) 3 50
French (B. F.), Historical Collections of Louisiana and Florida, 2d Series..... (Albert Mason) 4 00
Frothingham (R.), Battle of Bunker Hill, swd.....(Little, Brown & Co.)
Furman (G.), Antiquities of Long Island.....(J. W. Bouton)
Gannett (W. C.), Ezra Stiles Gannett, 1824-1871.....(Roberts Bros.)
Gautier (T.), Constantinople.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Gerard (J. W.), The Old Streets of New York under the Dutch, swd..(F. B. Patterson)
Goodell (A. C., jr.), Address on the Meeting of the Provincial Assembly, Oct. 5, 1774.... (Salem)
Gordon (Lady D.), Last Letters from Egypt and the Cape .....(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Greatorex (Eliza) and Despard (M.), Old New York, Part I., swd. (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 3 00
Greville (C. C. F.), Journal of Reigns of George IV. and William IV., 2 vols..... (D. Appleton & Co.)
Greville Memoirs: Bric-à-Brac Series .....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Havard (H.), La Hollande Pittoresque, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Headley (J. T.), Sacred Mountains and Scenes in the Holy Land ..... (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
The Adirondack, new ed..... " " " 2 00
Higginson (T. W.), English Statesmen: Gladstone.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Young Folks' History of the United States .....(Lee & Shepard)
History of the United States, Parts I.–IV., swd.....(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 0 25
Huston (R. G.), Journey in Honduras, swd.....(Robert Clarke & Co.) 0 50
Jones (C. H.), African Exploration and Adventure .....(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 50
Jordan (Dr. W.), Geographische Resultaten der Expedition in die libysche Wüste, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Jouault (A.), Abraham Lincoln .....(F. W. Christern)
Kiepert (H.), New Wall-map of Palestine, swd..... .....(E. Steiger)
Lanfrey (P.), Histoire de Napoléon I., Vol. 5, swd.....(F. W. Christern)

Lang (Rev. J. D.), Historical and Statistical Account of New South Wales, 2 vols.....(Sampson Low & Co.)
Lawson (Capt. J. A.), Wanderings in the Interior of New Guinea.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) $3 00
Leland (C. G.), Fusang; or, The Discovery of America.....(J. W. Bouton)
Lewis (R.), History of the Life-Boat.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Lloyd (F.) and Newton (W. N.), Prussia's Representative Man.....(Trübner & Co.)
Martin (T.), Life of H. R. H. the Prince Consort, Vol. I.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Masson (Prof. D.), Three Devils, and Other Essays.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Michelet (J.), A Summary of Modern History.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Minto (Countess), Life and Letters of First Earl of Minto, 3 vols.....(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Moberley (Rev. C. E.), Alexander the Great in the Punjaub.....(Rivingtons)
Morris (W. O'C.), French Revolution and First Empire.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Parkman (F.), Les Pionniers Français dans l'Amérique du Nord, swd. (F. W. Christern)
Personal Reminiscences by Moore and Jerdan: Bric-à-Brac Series.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Pollock (Sir F.), Macready's Reminiscences.....(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Power (J. C.), Life of Abraham Lincoln.....(E. A. Wilson & Co.) 2 50
Prescott (W. H.), Biographical and Critical Miscellanies.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Robertson's Charles V., 3 vols.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Russell (Lord John), Recollections and Suggestions, 1813-1873.....(Roberts Bros.)
Sainte-Beuve (C. A.), English Portraits.....(Henry Holt & Co.)
Sargent (N.), Public Men and Events, 1817-1853, 2 vols.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Satchel-Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe.....(Hurd & Houghton) 2 00
Schem (Prof. A. J.), Statistics of the World.....(Lee & Shepard) 0 50
Schliemann (Dr. H.), Troy and its Remains.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 12 50
Schmucker (S. M.), History of the Four Georges.....(James Miller) 1 75
Sherman (Gen. W. T.), Memoirs, 2 vols.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Smith (G.), Assyrian Discoveries.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 4 00
Smith (R. B.), Mohammed and Mohammedanism.....(Harper & Bros.)
Steamship Notes for Travellers to Europe, 2d Year.....(T. B. Patterson)
Stieler's Hand-Atlas, Parts 25 and 26, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
" " Ergänzungsheft IV.: Australia, swd.....(" " ")
Storrs (Rev. R. S.), The Early American Spirit, swd.....(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)
Sweet (S.), History of English Sounds.....(John Wiley & Son)
Taine (H.), Notes on Paris.....(Henry Holt & Co.)
Taylor (B. F.), Pictures of Life in Camp and Field.....(S. C. Griggs & Co.)
Taylor (T.), The Eleusinian and Bacchic Mysteries.....(J. W. Bouton) 3 00
Thomas (J.), Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China.....(Harper & Bros.)
Wahl (O. W.), The Land of the Czar.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 5 25
Walker (Gen. F. A.), Statistical Atlas of the U. S. Part I.....(Washington)
Warburton (Rev. W.), Edward III.....(Estes & Lauriat) 1 00
Whitney (Prof. J. D.), Yosemite Guide-book, new ed.....(California)
Yonge (Miss C. M.), Life of John Coleridge Patteson, 2 vols.....(Macmillan & Co.) 5 00
Zschokke (H.), History of Switzerland.....(Albert Mason)

## Fiction.

Alexander (Mrs.), Ralph Wilton's Weird.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Belot (A.), The Woman of Fire, swd.....(W. F. Gill & Co.) 0 50
Bowles (Emily), In the Camargue, swd.....(A. K. Loring) 0 75
Boyesen (Prof. H. H.), A Norseman's Pilgrimage.....(Sheldon & Co.)
Burckett (Florence), Wildmore.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Charles (Mrs. E.), Conquering and to Conquer.....(Dodd & Mead) 1 25
Cherbuliez (V.), Miss Rovel, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
" (translation), swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 50
Romance of an Honest Woman.....(W. F. Gill & Co.) 1 50
Clarke (Mrs. M. C.), A Rambling Story.....(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Coleman (W. M.), The Wandering Jew in America, swd.....(J. G. Hester) 0 50
Collins (W.), Alice Warlock, swd.....(W. F. Gill & Co.) 0 75
Day (Rev. L. B.), Govinda Sámanta, swd.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Dickens (C.), A Tale of Two Cities.....(Harper & Bros.)
Elsie: a Lowland Sketch, swd.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Erskine (Mrs. T.), Wyncote.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Farjeon (B. L.), At the Sign of the Silver Flagon, swd.....(Harper & Bros.) 0 40
Father and Series: Three Bank-Notes; the Herdsman; Rich and Poor.....(Lutheran Pub. Soc.)
Feuillet (O.), Romance of a Poor Young Man.....(James Miller) 1 50
Forrester (Mrs.), Dolores.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Fraser-Tytler (C. C.), Mistress Judith.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Harbour Bar: a Tale of Scottish Life, swd.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Kavanagh (Julia), John Dorrien.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Keary (Annie), Oldbury.....(Porter & Coates) 1 25
Macdonald (G.), A Double Story.....(Dodd & Mead)
Macdonald (Mrs. A.), For the King's Dues, swd.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
McCarthy (J.), Paul Massie.....(Sheldon & Co.) 1 50
Macleod (Rev. N.), Character Sketches.....(Dodd & Mead)
Macquoid (Mrs. K. S.), My Story, swd.....(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 00
Meredith (Isabella G.), The Old House on Briar Hill.....(Dodd & Mead)
Moore (T.), The Epicurean: a Romance.....(James Miller) 1 25
Locke (D. R.), The Morals of Abou Ben Adhem.....(Lee & Shepard)
"Ouida," Signa.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Rainbow Creed.....(W. F. Gill & Co.)
Reid (C.), Hearts and Hands, swd.....(D. Appleton & Co.) 0 50
Riddle (A. G.), Alice Brand....." "
Roosevelt (R. B.), Progressive Petticoats.....(G. W. Carleton & Co.)
Roy (G.), Generalship: How I Managed my Husband.....(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 1 00
Roy (G.), The Old, Old Story, swd.....(Robert Clarke & Co.) 0 25
The Art of Pleasing....." " 0 25
Sheppard (F. H.), Love Afloat.....(Sheldon & Co.)
Spangler (Helen K.), The Physician's Wife.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stowe (Mrs. H. B.), We and Our Neighbors.....(J. B. Ford & Co.) 1 75
Thinks-I-to-Myself.....(James Miller & Co.) 1 25
Twells (Mrs. J. H.), The Mills of the Gods.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Walford (L. B.), Mr. Smith.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Walsingham (Charlotte), Annette.....(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) 1 75
Whyte-Melville (G. J.), Katerfelto.....(Porter & Coates) 1 25
" " " .....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 4 50
Wichert (E.), The Green Gate.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

## Education.

Abbott (Rev. E. A.), How to Write Clearly.....(Roberts Bros.)
Allen (J. H.) and Greenough (J. B.), Method of Instruction in Latin.....(Ginn Bros.)
Selections from the Poems of Ovid....."
Beecher (Catharine E.), Educational Reminiscences and Suggestions.....(J. B. Ford & Co.) 1 00
Belcher (Rev. H.), Short Exercises in Latin Prose Composition.....(Macmillan & Co.)
Calderwood (Prof.), On Teaching: Its Ends and Means.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Carpenter (Prof. S. H.), Introduction to the Study of Anglo-Saxon.....(Ginn Bros.) 1 25
Cooke (Commander A. P.), Text-book of Naval Ordnance and Gunnery.....(John Wiley & Son)
Dana (Prof. J. D.), Text-book of Geology, 2d ed.....Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)
The Geological Story Briefly Told....." " " " 1 50
Ellis (A. J.), Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin.....(Macmillan & Co.)
Fish (D. W.), First Book in Arithmetic.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)
Complete Arithmetic....." " "
Fyffe (C. A.), History of Greece (History Primers).....(Macmillan & Co.) 0 40
Gallenkamp (W.), Reform der höheren Lehranstalten, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Goldammer (H.), Der Kindergarten, 2 vols., swd....." "
Gross (E. J.), Algebra, Part II.....(Rivingtons)
Harvey (T. W.), Primary Speller and Graded-School Readers.....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)
Heness (T.), Instruction in German without Grammars and Dictionary, 2d ed.....(Schönhoff & Möller)
Hepburn (Prof. A. D.), Manual of English Rhetoric.....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) 1 25
Hotze (C. L.), First Lessons in Physiology.....(Central Pub. Co.)
Huntington (Rev. J. T.), Select Orations of Lysias.....(Ginn Bros.)
Jeanrenaud (Prof. E.), Practical French.....(Am. News Co.)
Keetels (Prof. J. G.), Illustrated Child's First Book in French.....(Clarke & Maynard)
Krüsi (H.), Pestalozzi: His Life, Work, and Influence.....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) 2 25
Laas (Prof. E.), Gymnasium und Realschule, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Lockyer (J. N.), Astronomy (Science Primer).....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Marshall (J. M.), Quinti Horati Flacci Opera, Vol. I.....(Rivingtons)
Morris (Rev. R.), English Grammar (Literature Primers).....(Macmillan & Co.) 0 40
Otto (Dr. E.), German Conversation-Grammar, 15th ed.....(L. W. Schmidt)
French Conversation-Grammar, 6th ed....." "
Introductory German Reader.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 20
Pennell (R. F.), The Latin Subjunctive, swd.....(John Allyn)
Rice (H.), Nature and Culture.....(Lee & Shepard) $1 50
Robinson's Junior-class Arithmetic.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) 0 80
Sachs (J.), Text Book of Botany.....(Macmillan & Co.) 12 50
Sargent (J. Y.) and Dallin (T. F.), Materials and Models for Latin Prose Compositions.....(Rivingtons)
Sauveur (L.), Petites Causeries.....(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages, swd. (Lee & Shepard)
Schlegel (Prof. C. A.), A First German Book.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Shearer (J. W.), The Combination Speller.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)
Stevenson (Sarah H.), Boys and Girls in Biology.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Theory of Spencerian Penmanship.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)
Venable (W. H.), Dramas and Dramatic Scenes.....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)
Willcox (J. M.), Elementary Philosophy, Part I.....(Porter & Coates) 0 75

## Science and Technics.

Allen (Dr. H.), Analysis of the Life-form in Art, swd.....(Philadelphia)
American Public Health Association, Reports and Papers, Vol. I.....(Hurd & Houghton) 6 50
Amory (Dr. D.), Kuss's Lectures on Physiology.....(Jas. Campbell) 2 50
Angell (J.), Elements of Magnetism and Electricity.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 75
Becker (B. H.), Scientific London.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Blackwell (Mrs. A. B.), The Sexes throughout Nature.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Blasius (W.), Storms: their Nature and Laws.....(Porter & Coates)
Braun (A.), Glacial Epoch of Our Globe, swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Brush (Prof. G. J.), Manual of Determinative Mineralogy.....(John Wiley & Son) 3 00
Burlingame (E. L.), Art-Life and Theories of Richard Wagner.....(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Bussler (L.), Praktische Harmonielehre, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Cazelles (Dr. M. A.), Outline of the Evolution Philosophy.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Chambers (Dr. T. K.), Diet in Health and Disease.....(Henry C. Lea)
Chomet (Dr. H.), Influence of Music on Health and Life.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Collins (J. H.), Principles of Metal Mining.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 75
Cooke (M. C.), Fungi: Their Nature and Uses.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Cooper (A. R.), The Cultivation of Art, swd.....(C. P. Somerby & Co.) 0 25
Davidson (T.), Short Account of the Niobe Group, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Estes (D.), Half-hour Recreations in Popular Science.....(Estes & Lauriat) 2 75
Evers (H.), Navigation in Theory and Practice.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Fieber (Dr F.), Treatment of Nervous Diseases by Electricity.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 50
Flint (Prof. A.), Pneumo-Thorax, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 40
Forney (N. M.), Catechism of the Locomotive.....(New York) 2 50
Fothergill (Dr. J. M.), The Maintenance of Health.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Frey (Prof. H.), Histology and Histochemistry of Man.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Galton (F.), English Men of Science: Their Nature and Nurture.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Gardner (Dr. J.), Longevity, 3d ed.....(W. F. Gill & Co.)
Hirsch (A.), Verhütung und Bekämpfung der Volkskrankheiten, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Hunt (W. M.), Talks on Art, swd.....(Hurd & Houghton)
Jacobi (Dr. A.), Acute Rheumatism in Infancy, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Kinahan (G. H.), Valleys, and their Relation to Fissures, Fractures, and Faults, swd.....(John Wiley & Son)
Knight (E. H.), American Mechanical Dictionary, Vols. I., II.....(J. B. Ford & Co.)
Lacey (J. F.), Digest of Railway Decisions.....(Callaghan & Co.)
Ladd (Hill), The Madonna in Christian Art, swd.....(New Haven)
Lubbock (Sir J.), British Wild Flowers in relation to Insects.....(Macmillan & Co.)
Lyman (Capt. L.), Tactical Studies.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Nasher (Dr. S.), Wissenschaftliche Vorträge, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Notes on Building Construction, Part I.....(Rivingtons)
Packard (A. S., jr.), Insects of the Field, swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Population of an Apple-Tree, swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Papillon (F.), Nature and Life.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Phin (J.), Selection and Use of the Microscope.....(Industrial Pub. Co.) 0 75
Pierce (Dr. R. V.), Common-Sense Medical Adviser.....(Buffalo)
Proceedings of Am. Association for the Advancement of Science, 1874, swd.....(Salem)
Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute, Vol. I., swd.....(D. Van Nostrand)
Proctor (R. A.), Transit of Venus.....(R. Worthington & Co.) 3 00
Quatrefages (A. de), Natural History of Man.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Rapid Transit and Terminal Freight Facilities, swd.....(D. Van Nostrand)
Ribot (T.), Heredity.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Rice (T. L.), What is Music?.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Robinson (W. S.), Manual of Parliamentary Law and Practice.....(Lee & Shepard) 0 75
Root (F. W.), School of Singing.....(Geo. F. Root & Sons)
Rüdinger (Dr.), Die willkürlichen Verunstaltungen des menschlichen Körpers, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Salkowski (Prof. E.), Das Fleisch als Nahrungsmittel, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Schmidt (Prof. O.), Descent and Darwinism.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Seguin (Dr. E. C.), Series of American Clinical Lectures, Vol. I., No. 1, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 40
Smith (Dr. E.), Health.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Southall (J. C.), The Recent Origin of Man.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Steiner (Prof. J.), Compendium of Children's Diseases.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Stewart (Prof. B.), The Sun and the Earth, swd.....(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Taylor (S.), The Science of Music.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Tiffany (J. K.), Catalogue of Stamp Publications, swd.....(Privately printed)
Tyndall (Prof. J.), Address before the British Association at Belfast, swd.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
U. S. Patent Association's Publications, Vol. I.....(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Virchow (Prof. R.), Die Heilkräfte des Organismus, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Vogel (Dr. H.), Chemistry of Light and Photography.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Welcker (Prof. W. T.), Military Lessons.....(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)
Wieck (F.), Piano and Song.....(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)
Wilder (Prof. B. G.), What Young People Should Know.....(Estes & Lauriat)

## Periodicals.

Almanach de Gotha, 1875.....(B. Westermann & Co.)
American Newspaper Directory, 1875.....(Geo. P. Rowell & Co.)
Annual Register for 1874.....(Rivingtons)
Baird (Prof. S. F.), Annual Record of Science and Industry for 1874.....(Harper & Bros.)
Disturnell (J.), U. S. Register; or, Blue Book for 1875.....(T. Ellwood Zell.)
Financial Review Annual.....(Wm. B. Dana & Co.)
L'Art, Vol. I., No. 1, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Littell's Living Age.....(Little & Gay)
Portfolio, swd.....(J. W. Bouton) 1 00
Revue des Deux Mondes, Table Générale, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Workshop, swd.....(E. Steiger.) 0 50
Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)

## Miscellaneous.

Appleton (T. G.), A Sheaf of Papers.....(Roberts Bros.)
Berners (Dame J.), Treatyse of Fysshynge.....(H. K. Van Sicklen) 1 50
Best Reading, revised edition.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Calvert (G.), Essays Æsthetical.....(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Dannehl (Dr. G.), Ueber Niederdeutsche Sprache und Literatur.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Dowden (Prof. E.), Shakspere: His Mind and Art.....(Henry S. King & Co.)
Eggleston (G. C.), How to Make a Living.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th ed., Vol. I., A-Ana.....(Little, Brown & Co.)
Fitzgerald (P.), Romance of the English Stage.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Friswell (J. H.), The Better Self.....(Porter & Coates) 2 00
Globe Dictionary of the English Language.....(Estes & Lauriat) 2 00
Graham (F. T.), Reasonable Elocution.....(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 1 25
Harland (Marion), Breakfast, Luncheon, and Tea.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 75
Harrison (J. A.), A Group of Poe's and their Haunts.....(Hurd & Houghton) 1 75
Jacox (F.), Shakspeare Diversions.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 4 00
Lammers (A.), Die Bremer Landwirthschafts-Ausstellung, 1874, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Lilly (W. S.), Characteristics from the Writings of J. H. Newman.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 2 50
Littré (E.), Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, 4 vols.....(F. W. Christern.)
Martens (Dr. E. von), Purpur und Perlen, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
McLain (Mary W.), Wedding Garments.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Meyer (Prof. J. F.), Deutsche Universitäts-Entwickelung, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Pagden (J. W.), $350 a Year by my Bees, swd.....(A. K. Loring) 0 25
Roest (M.), Catalog der Hebraica und Judaica aus den L. Rosenthal'schen Bibliothek, 2 vols.....(Amsterdam)
Simpson (E.), The Dramatic Unities in the Present Day, 2d ed.....(Trübner & Co.)
Stephen (L.), Hours in a Library.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Van Rhyn (G. A. F.), What and How to Read, swd.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Whitney (Prof. W. D.), The Life and Growth of Language.....(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 50
Winterblossom (H. T.), Game of Draw-poker Mathematically Illustrated.....(W. H. Murphy) 1 00
Wynter (Dr. A.), Fruit between the Leaves.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)
Zell's U. S. Business Directory for 1875.....(T. Ellwood Zell)